

UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID
FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA



TESIS DOCTORAL

**Towards a re-conceptualisation of the roles of EFL teachers in
CLIL Secondary settings: A genre-based pedagogy for
developing academic literacies**

**Hacia la reconceptualización del papel del profesor de inglés en
contextos CLIL en Educación Secundaria: El desarrollo de la
literacidad académica a través del aprendizaje basado en
géneros**

MEMORIA PARA OPTAR AL GRADO DE DOCTOR

PRESENTADA POR

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UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID

FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA

Departamento de Estudios Ingleses: Lingüística y Literatura

Doctorado en Lingüística Inglesa



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DOCTORAL THESIS

Marta Jaén Campos

supervised by

Dr. Emma Dafouz Milne

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Abstract

English has become much more than a foreign language. In our global world, the English language is now an indispensable tool which opens up professional, educational and mobility opportunities for citizens. In this context, multilingualism is understood as the ability to communicate functionally in a variety of situations by mobilising their linguistic resources and repertoire resulting from dynamic and plurilingual trajectories (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). It is for that reason that long-established pedagogies in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) are being challenged by the need to look for approaches which better meet the linguistic demands of our globalised society.

In the last two decades, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has spread across Europe as the most effective educational approach to provide learners with the linguistic tools which society demands from them. Since CLIL consists of teaching content subjects through a foreign language with dual aims (Coyle et al., 2010), CLIL classrooms are regarded as a natural environment for foreign language acquisition. Thus, CLIL has been considered the new communicative approach (Graddol, 2006; Pérez-Vidal, 2009) because it creates favourable conditions for authentic language use in ways which EFL cannot offer.

After years of enthusiasm because of the substantial benefits of CLIL, it is now time to examine the areas for improvement. And one of them is precisely language. Although it was initially supposed to be the vehicle for communication which would be acquired naturally in the classroom, the extensive research and years of implementation have demonstrated that more explicit attention to language is still missing and that engaging in content subjects entails particular literacy in subject-specific academic discourse. To develop this proficiency, language has to be scaffolded properly, which is not always the reality of CLIL classrooms.

In parallel, EFL instruction and EFL teachers, particularly in Secondary Education, seem to be disconnected from what is going on in the CLIL classroom. Although they are the language specialists, the role and responsibilities of EFL teachers working in CLIL Secondary settings have not been sufficiently regulated.

In view of the need for more research on the changing roles of EFL teachers, this study sets out to explore the redefinition of such roles, particularly when they are mediated by need to attend specific language demands in CLIL Secondary contexts. This general objective encompasses three specific objectives. First of all, it is the purpose of this study to identify the shift of roles which EFL teachers may have experienced since the implementation of CLIL, from both top-down and bottom-up perspectives. Secondly, the transformation of teachers' professional roles cannot be disassociated from their cognition, particularly their set of beliefs about the role of language, its relation with content or their own role as language teachers. This aspect becomes a cornerstone in the process of analysing the potential success of an hypothetical curricular remodelling and reshaping of the teachers' job. For this reason, this study aims at investigating language teachers' understanding of their own roles and the impact they may have on desired practices. Finally, in order to analyse how EFL teachers can provide specific scaffolding for disciplinary literacy, it is the purpose of this research to examine possibilities of implementing a genre-based learning pedagogy in the EFL classroom.

To do so, this study focuses in the context of Madrid CLIL Programme in Secondary Education settings. Six English teachers working in three different high schools take part in this multi-case study, which consists of the analysis of different sets of data. The English curriculum and the three school syllabi for this subject were analysed in order to find out whether the existing policy prescribes specific responsibilities for English teachers in CLIL contexts. Then, initial questionnaires were administered to ascertain whether some new roles suggested by the literature are already being enacted, and to unravel some of the participants' beliefs about CLIL. Then, the participants tested a pedagogical intervention which put into practice a genre-based pedagogy focused on the development of a History school genre. After that, interviews were conducted with the participants, which were later analysed following content analysis procedures. Questions related to the three specific objectives were included in these interviews, including the feasibility of the genre-based pedagogy as a systematic teaching practice for the future.

The results show that some guidelines in the curriculum seem to indicate that we are moving towards a more proactive, collaborative and advisory role of EFL teachers. However,

the daily-life reality reported by the participants reveals that much is yet left to be done for EFL teachers to assume more agency. When it comes to their vision of their own role, the participating teachers display positive attitudes towards CLIL and feel responsible for the scaffolding and development of the specific linguistic competences needed by their learners in CLIL context subjects. Furthermore, the participants acknowledge the benefits which implementing a genre-based approach in the EFL subject may have to build academic and subject-specific literacy and see it as something doable in the foreseeable future. Drawing on these findings, this thesis offers a final discussion on the implications which these findings have for policy and curriculum development, teacher education, teacher cognition as a key element and future directions for genre-based pedagogies as the way forward for EFL in CLIL settings.

Resumen

El inglés ya no es únicamente una lengua extranjera. En el mundo globalizado en el que vivimos, este idioma se ha convertido en una herramienta indispensable que permite a los ciudadanos abrirse puertas, ya sea profesionales, educativas o de movilidad. Así, el concepto de ‘multilingüismo’ se entiende como la habilidad de poder desenvolverse con facilidad y de una forma funcional en una variedad de situaciones comunicativas en las que seamos capaces de activar todos los recursos lingüísticos que hayamos podido desarrollar a raíz de nuestras experiencias en contacto con varios idiomas (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). Es por ello que la eficacia de las pedagogías asentadas en el campo de la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL) están siendo cuestionadas a la hora de buscar nuevas fórmulas que proporcionen las herramientas lingüísticas que nuestra sociedad global necesita.

En las dos últimas décadas, el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lengua (AICLE, CLIL por sus siglas en inglés), se ha extendido en Europa como el enfoque educativo más efectivo a la hora de ofrecer dichas herramientas lingüísticas. Debido a que AICLE consiste en la enseñanza de asignaturas de contenidos a través de una lengua extranjera con objetivos tanto de contenido como lingüísticos (Coyle et al., 2010), el aula AICLE es un entorno natural para la adquisición y aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera. De este modo, AICLE se ha considerado el enfoque comunicativo definitivo (Graddol, 2006; Pérez-Vidal, 2009), ya que crea las condiciones necesarias para un uso auténtico de la lengua de una manera a la que el aula de idiomas no puede llegar.

Tras años de entusiasmo desencadenado por los múltiples beneficios de AICLE, ha llegado el momento de prestar atención a las áreas de mejora. Y una de ellas es precisamente el lenguaje. A pesar de que inicialmente fue considerado el vehículo para la comunicación que se adquiere de forma natural en el aula, los años de investigación y de implementación han demostrado que es necesario atender al lenguaje de una manera explícita. Asimismo, se ha puesto de manifiesto que para participar en las asignaturas de contenido, los alumnos tienen que ser competentes en el dominio del discurso académico específico de cada materia. Para que esta habilidad pueda desarrollarse correctamente, se han de proporcionar los

mecanismos adecuados y el ‘andamiaje’ lingüístico que el alumno necesita. Pero estos mecanismos no siempre están presentes en el aula AICLE.

En paralelo, la asignatura de inglés y sus profesores parecen estar desconectados de lo que sucede en el aula AICLE, particularmente en el caso de la Educación Secundaria. A pesar de ser los especialistas en la lengua meta, las funciones de los profesores de inglés que trabajan en este tipo de centros no han sido reguladas suficientemente.

En vista de la necesidad de profundizar en la transformación del rol del profesor de inglés, el presente estudio pretende investigar la redefinición de dichos roles, en particular en lo que se refiere a la atención a las necesidades lingüísticas específicas en este contexto. Este objetivo general se subdivide en varios objetivos específicos. En primer lugar, identificar la evolución que los profesores de inglés hayan podido experimentar en sus funciones desde que se implementó AICLE, tanto aquellas que hayan surgido de abajo hacia arriba como las que las autoridades educativas hayan podido prescribir. En segundo lugar, la transformación del rol profesional de los profesores no puede desligarse del conjunto de sus creencias acerca del papel del lenguaje, su relación con el contenido o de su visión de su propio lugar en los programas AICLE. Este aspecto puede ser la piedra angular a la hora de prever el éxito de una hipotética reforma del currículo de la asignatura de inglés y del trabajo de sus profesores. Por ello, este estudio tiene como objetivo investigar cómo los profesores de inglés entienden su propio rol en estos centros y el impacto que ello pueda tener en las prácticas docentes más efectivas en estos contextos AICLE. En último lugar, para poder analizar cómo los profesores de inglés pueden proporcionar el andamiaje necesario para el desarrollo de la competencia lingüística académica, esta investigación pretende examinar las posibilidades de implementación de un aprendizaje basado en géneros en el aula de inglés como lengua extranjera.

Para ello, esta tesis se centra en el contexto del programa bilingüe de la Comunidad de Madrid. Seis profesores de inglés en Educación Secundaria han participado en este estudio de caso múltiple en el que se han usado diferentes fuentes de datos. En primer lugar, se analizó el currículo oficial de inglés, así como las programaciones de los tres centros en los que trabajan los participantes para averiguar si se han establecido nuevas responsabilidades específicas para el profesor de inglés en este tipo de centros. A continuación, se les administró un cuestionario para comprobar si algunas de las sugerencias para el profesor de inglés presentes en la literatura ya se están llevando a cabo, así como para tener un acercamiento a algunas de las creencias de los participantes acerca de AICLE. Seguidamente, se llevó a cabo una intervención pedagógica en la que los participantes pusieron en práctica el

aprendizaje basado en géneros utilizando un género escolar propio de la asignatura de Historia. Finalmente, se entrevistó a los participantes. Se incluyeron preguntas acerca de los tres objetivos específicos, incluyendo la posible viabilidad del aprendizaje basado en géneros como una práctica que pudiera ser implementada de forma sistemática en el futuro. Estas entrevistas fueron después examinadas siguiendo los procedimientos propios del análisis de contenido.

Los resultados muestran que el currículo sugiere un rol más proactivo y colaborativo del profesor de inglés. Sin embargo, el testimonio de los profesores acerca de sus tareas diarias demuestran que aún queda un largo camino por recorrer para dotar al profesor de inglés de una mayor presencia en centros AICLE de Educación Secundaria. En lo que se refiere a su propia visión, los participantes demuestran actitudes positivas hacia el programa bilingüe y se sienten responsables de proporcionar a sus alumnos las herramientas lingüísticas necesarias en un contexto como es el suyo. Además, reconocen que el aprendizaje basado en géneros puede reportar múltiples beneficios para tal fin y lo ven como algo factible de implementar en el futuro. Esta tesis se cierra con una discusión acerca de las implicaciones que estos resultados pueden tener para futuras regulaciones, desarrollo de nuevos currículos, formación del profesorado, las creencias de los profesores como un elemento fundamental a tener en cuenta o el aprendizaje basado en géneros como el camino futuro para la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera en contextos AICLE.

Abbreviations and acronyms

BAK - Beliefs-Assumptions-Knowledge

BICS - Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALLA - Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

CALP - Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAQDAS - Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software

CAM - Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid (Madrid Region)

CBI - Content-Based Instruction

CDF - Cognitive Discourse Function

CEFR - Common European Framework of Reference

CLIL - Content and Language Integrated Learning

CELT - Content Enhanced Language Teaching

CLT - Communicative Language Teaching

CoRe - Content Representation

EAL - English as an Additional Language

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

ELL - English Language Learners

EMI - English as a Medium of Instruction

ESL - English as a Second Language

ESO/CSE - Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (Compulsory Secondary Education)

ESOL - English for Speakers of Other Languages

EU - European Union

FL - Foreign Language

FoF - Focus on Form

GenRe - Genre Representation

ICL - Integrated Content and Language

ICR - Inter-coder reliability

ICT - Information and Communication Technology

L1 - Mother tongue

L2 - Second language

LA - Language Awareness

LAC-Language Across the Curriculum

LOMCE - Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa (Organic Law for the Improvement of the Quality of Education/Current Spanish Statutory Educational Act)

LTI - language teacher identity

OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PBL- Project-Based Learning

PCK - Pedagogical content knowledge

PPT - PowerPoint Presentation

PTL - Pluriliteracies approach to Teaching for Learning

QDA - Qualitative Document Analysis

SFL - Systemic Functional Linguistics

SLA - Second Language Acquisition

TBL - Task-Based Learning

TESOL- Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TL - Target Language

TLA - Teacher Language Awareness

TLC - Teaching and Learning Cycle

ZPD - Zone of Proximal Development

1. Introduction

1.1. Background and rationale

In an increasingly global, multicultural and multilingual society, language learning has become an invaluable asset, opening opportunities for mobility around the world. It is for this reason that the European Union (EU) has put multilingual competence at the centre of its educational strategies. Their eventual goal is to strengthen the cohesion of the Union and the democratic and citizenship values of its Member States (Council of the European Union, 2019). In this context, multilingual speakers are those who reach a functional competence and are able to make use of their multilingual repertoire in a variety of communicative situations, opposed to the former ideal of attaining native-like proficiency (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020).

Against this backdrop, language teaching, and English Language Teaching (ELT) in particular, have endorsed communicative approaches in the last decades. As a reaction to an excessive focus on grammatical competence, these teaching models enhance the development of communicative skills which enable us to use language effectively to perform real-life tasks across various social contexts. In fact, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (hereafter CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) recommends these communicative methodologies to ensure the success of citizens in the current social, educational or professional domains. As a result, the focus of ELT in English as a Foreign Language (hereafter EFL) contexts has been primarily on the development of the linguistic competence, oral communication in particular, which would enable learners or language users to communicate functionally in a variety of situations in which they may be required to use the foreign language. For decades, this understanding of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972) has largely been the guiding principle for EFL curriculum development, testing, teaching materials or teachers' practices.

But the growing role of English as a global language (Crystal, 2003; Jenkins, 2009) has also heightened the need for new language instruction models capable of responding

better to the requirements of our changing society¹. Indeed, in the last two decades, and having the multilingual speaker paradigm in mind, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has rapidly spread across Europe as an educational approach suitable to meet the multilingual educational demands of a globalised society and to respond to the recommendations of the EU more effectively. This approach seems to have taken a leading role due to its ability to bind together countless educational innovations. Put simply, CLIL refers to the teaching of content subjects through a foreign language aiming at both the learning of content and the development of the foreign language (Coyle et al, 2010; Marsh, 2002). Supported by all the inspirational research conducted on the Canadian immersion programmes, and other similar programmes in the US, numerous benefits have been associated with these approaches. Broadly, research has found that, despite the variety of contexts of implementation, students enrolled in programmes integrating content and language display a higher cognitive development (Coyle et al. 2010; Lyster, 2007; Marsh et al., 2020) with no detriment to the L1 competence (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; San Isidro, 2019) or to content learning (Hughes & Madrid, 2019; Jäppinen, 2006; Martínez Agudo, 2020; Pérez Cañado, 2018). Motivation is also said to be enhanced (Lasagabaster, 2011; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017) because content becomes more relevant for the students, creating “a genuine immediate need to learn the language” (Lightbown and Spada, 2013, p.193).

Benefits have been particularly prominent and evident in target language (TL) development, with favourable outcomes in terms of comprehension skills, fluency, vocabulary or confidence to take risks (Dalton-Puffer, 2008). In writing, Roquet and Pérez-Vidal (2015) concluded that learners developed a higher degree of accuracy, which also improved over time. As a whole, it is accepted that CLIL students generally outperform their non-CLIL counterparts as far as foreign language is concerned (Admiraal et al., 2006; Pérez-Cañado; 2012, 2018). The explanation lies in the fact that CLIL and other forms of multilingual education offer a naturalistic context for language practice. In that sense, CLIL is said to go beyond Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) because of its authenticity of language use and purpose, since the target language is used to communicate real messages (Coyle et al., 2010). Thus, CLIL has been referred to as the ultimate communicative approach

¹ As a result of those transformations, the approach to English which is more and more present in textbooks is that of International English, which seeks to incorporate all the World Englishes and not only the traditional prestige regional variants.

(Graddol, 2006) and the natural evolution of CLT or the communicative approach revisited (Pérez-Vidal, 2009).

These positive outcomes of integrated approaches may be behind the enthusiasm towards CLIL in Spain, where a general dissatisfaction with students' English proficiency has been often reported at the end of Secondary Education (Lasagabaster, 2011) and flagged as one of the lowest levels in Europe (Education First, 2021). In the Spanish educational system, immersion programmes were already present in regions with an additional co-official language. But it was in 1996 that the British Council and the Ministry of Education agreed on the application of an integrated Spanish-British curriculum, implementing it in a few state Primary and Secondary schools. However, soon after, CLIL programmes also spread to state and state-subsidiary² schools in monolingual regions (see Otto & San Isidro, 2019, for a review of the state of CLIL programmes in Spain). As a result, this integrated approach was extended to all schools beyond elitist private institutions, another major social benefit of these programmes (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010).

Madrid Region (*aka* CAM³), the context of our study, first launched its *bilingual project* in 2004, spreading rapidly to a large number of schools. In 2020-2021, more than half of the state Secondary schools (63.6%) already offered CLIL programmes, and more than a quarter (25.1%) of the total number of students in subsidiary Secondary schools are enrolled in this type of educational approach (Comunidad de Madrid, 2021). Moreover, according to the administration, 86.5% of the students enrolled in these programmes reach a B2 or a higher level of competence when finishing compulsory education (Comunidad de Madrid, 2018). As a consequence, in this region CLIL students are found to outperform their non-CLIL counterparts in all the English language skills (Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017).

Despite the overall success and the initial enthusiasm, the reality of CLIL in practice has revealed considerable room for improvement and need for further research when it comes to the desired content and language integration. More specifically, recent research has consistently reported that there is an insufficient attention to language (Lasagabaster, 2014; Lindahl & Baecher, 2015; Pavón & Ellison, 2013) as well as an absence of standardised language objectives (Pavón et al., 2014). This situation has also been referred to as a *language gap* (Halbach, 2014). For this reason, it has been claimed these schools in which the language of instruction is still being learned must become “language aware” (Otto & San Isidro, 2019) or “language sensitive” (Leaton-Gray et al., 2018) to ensure that learners

² Schools which are run by private institutions but publicly-funded, at least partially (*aka* ‘charter schools’).

³ In Spanish, *Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid*.

“acquire a very good level of the language of schooling, if appropriate through special support measures” (Council of the European Union, 2019, p.16).

Furthermore, in the first years of CLIL implementation, the expected language learning goals tended to be associated with attaining proficiency in general English (Rieder-Bünemann, 2022). But, once again, research and the reality of CLIL classrooms have shown that, as students progress from Primary through Secondary Education, content subjects taught through an additional language become more challenging in terms of subject-specific language demands. Curriculum demands are complex and students do not always possess the necessary cognitive-discursive competence. In addition, they need to gradually develop academic discourse, which encompasses features which are discipline-specific, culturally bound to the content area and entail particular cognitive operations (Zwiers, 2006). This academic style and discourse may entail further difficulties for pupils when dealing with classroom material and activities, making explicit that language-focused instruction is necessary (Lightbown, 2014). Hence, pedagogies which can contribute to developing repertoires by which learners can “construct, critically analyse and communicate ‘expert’ knowledge adequately and successfully across cultures, languages and disciplines” (Coyle, 2020, p.190) are still to be enhanced in CLIL contexts.

Although content teachers have logically received much attention in domains such as classroom discourse (see Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Nikula, 2010), teacher education (see Dafouz et al., 2010; Pons, 2019), teacher beliefs (see Hüttner et al., 2013; Skinnari & Bovellan, 2016) or effective pedagogies (see De Graaf et al, 2007; Pérez-Vidal, 2007), insufficient attention has been paid to the role of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in all this pedagogical and professional transformation. Language teachers seem to be under-represented in CLIL and multilingual education research, having paid scarce attention to their role and practices (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). But CLIL may not only be having certain impact on content teachers but on language teachers as well, affecting their teaching focus, responsibilities, enacted methodologies, and even resulting in professional identity issues due to the new contextual demands. Indeed, it has been reported that some EFL teachers even feel redundant and displaced (Halbach, 2014; Pavón & Ellison, 2013). Thus, this study intends to contribute to research on EFL and CLIL implementation by examining the redefinition of EFL teaching in CLIL Secondary settings, particularly from the perspective of how EFL teachers can address the language gap.

Furthermore, as is the case of other pedagogical transformations, it has been claimed that the effectiveness of CLIL is mediated by the practitioners’ understanding of their own

role (see Skinnari & Bovellan, 2016). Part of CLIL's success relies on the capability to adapt and evolve to the new scenario (Bower et al., 2020), which in turn may reshape teachers' knowledge and practices and affect their beliefs and identity. Therefore, it is a remaining issue to find out whether CLIL implementation may be having a substantial impact on language teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and identity. It is for that reason that it is of utmost importance to examine EFL teachers' views with regard to CLIL, their notion of content-language integration or their vision of their own ideal role in these contexts.

One of the particularities of CLIL settings is that EFL has remained as a school subject alongside CLIL subjects, running parallel but having paths which do not cross as much as they should (Jaén, 2016). But if CLIL has actually become part of "integral part of modern FL teaching" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.6), it seems reasonable to make attempts to understand how this transformation is affecting EFL teachers and what contributions they can make to content and language integrated programmes. So far, some suggestions for collaboration with content teachers have been made (see Davison, 2006; Lo, 2015; Pavón, 2014), but there appears to be a lack of regulation of the scope of their responsibilities.

Despite this lack of policy, it seems logical to resort to the language specialists when attending the above-mentioned linguistic deficiencies and needs, because this is precisely their field of expertise. However, to do so, it becomes paramount to examine whether the EFL subject would need a shift of focus. As mentioned above, teaching curricular content through a foreign language involves particular academic language skills. If CLIL is disregarding the language teacher collaborative and pedagogical practices (Dale, 2020), the inevitable question which arises has to do with whether the EFL subject, particularly in Secondary Education, is offering the linguistic repertoire which learners really need. It has been suggested that traditional language teaching is no longer valid to meet the linguistic requirements of CLIL contexts, which has impacted the perception of relevance, agency and status of language teachers (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.141). Indeed, the learner profile is changing not only due to integrated programmes, but also mediated by the amount of extramural exposure (media, the Internet, etc.) available for them. So, given the learners' higher communicative competence, a grammar-based curriculum is no longer suitable in CLIL settings (Halbach, 2018). At the same time, and as stated earlier, the enthusiasm for CLT might have resulted in a frequent and broad understanding of EFL teaching as pursuing mainly the ability to communicate functionally in daily life situations. But CLT does not automatically foster the specific textual competences proper to CLIL settings. Following Hymes' (1972) communicative competence must also be understood as sociocultural

competence. Thus, it is essential that learners adapt to different genres and registers in accordance with the specific community conventions, a perspective which situates CLIL learners as users of “academic” (school) language in the FL.

It is for that reason that Pavón and Méndez (2017) argue that “the language as a subject acquires a new dimension in CLIL” (p.242) and Coyle & Meyer (2021) claim that this school subject can be reshaped, and that language teachers must be “brought into the frame” (p.117). According to Tedick & Cammarata (2012), the language curriculum is yet to be redefined so that the language teacher can adopt a new supportive role as language expert and syllabi developer. In other words, CLIL has the potential to integrate EFL better with the rest of the school subjects (Cenoz et al., 2014), so the apparent language gap between the EFL curriculum and the CLIL curriculum might be solved by examining them together.

To deal with the issue of offering learners the subject-specific language which they need in CLIL contexts, the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) framework appears to provide content and language teachers with a helpful approach to language and, in turn, with strategies to integrate language effectively (Lightbown, 2014; Otto, 2019) so as to develop students’ disciplinary literacy. It must be borne in mind that the current definition of literacy goes beyond knowing how to read and write (Halbach, 2022) and is now understood as the ability to engage in recurrent socio-cultural practices (Ryshina-Pankova, 2016), which, in this school context, are related to each discipline and taking into consideration the specific language of instruction. The SFL model offers a frame or reference to describe literacy development across school subjects and it places language as the tool for meaning-making knowledge building (Martin & Rose, 2008). This conceptualisation goes beyond the dichotomy *content or language* and it places (subject-specific) language as the instrument to communicate and develop knowledge (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). Moreover, the concepts of *genre* and *register*, which shape the text types to which CLIL students are exposed and have to produce, and the lexico-grammatical choices used to build them (Llinares et al., 2012), become key. The use of this SFL framework enables CLIL teachers to carry out effective language analyses of their disciplines. However, we cannot assume that all the practitioners will be in possession of the necessary knowledge and background to do it on their own. This is where language teachers could become essential to charter the linguistic features of subject-specific literacies and incorporate them as part of their EFL subject focus. To do so, SFL could provide the framework from which the EFL curriculum operating in CLIL contexts could be transformed. Hence the urgency of investigating the role of EFL teachers in

CLIL settings, particularly in Secondary Education, where those language demands become more and more visible.

1.2. Objectives and research questions

In view of the need for more research on the changing roles of the EFL teacher within CLIL in Secondary Education and to make the EFL subject more purposeful for learners in this type of educational setting, the overall aim of this thesis is to delve into the redefinition of such roles, in particular when they serve the purpose of addressing the issues of subject-disciplinary language and literacy development. To examine these possibilities, this general aim encompasses three specific objectives. Firstly, it attempts to identify the new responsibilities that EFL teachers in Secondary Education may have assumed since the implementation of CLIL programmes in their educational setting. This is the first step towards their reconceptualisation and systematisation in institutional policy. Secondly, this study also aims at exploring the language teachers' understanding of their own roles and the impact it may have on any potential practice targeting better content-language integration. Finally, it is also the purpose of this thesis to explore how the EFL teacher can provide some specific support for disciplinary language learning by implementing a genre-based learning approach in their classrooms.

In order to provide relevant answers to the object under study, the following research questions have been posed:

- 1a. Are the roles of the EFL teacher within CLIL Secondary settings changing since the implementation of CLIL programmes in the Madrid Region?
- 1b. If so, are these roles shifting to support language awareness practices and the development of subject-specific literacies in CLIL?

- 2a. How do EFL teachers perceive their own 'ideal' roles in CLIL programmes?
- 2b. To what extent can EFL teachers' beliefs influence desired practices in CLIL Secondary scenarios?

- 3a. Can genre-based learning/teaching be an effective pedagogy for EFL teachers to support academic skills development and disciplinary language learning and use?
- 3b. How do they view the potential implementation of this genre-based pedagogy?

Each pair of research questions corresponds to each of the respective objectives of the study. To answer them, a multi-case study has been designed, involving three different high-schools in Madrid and six EFL teachers. Questionnaires and interviews with the participants are used as data sets, as well as the official EFL curriculum and the syllabi followed in the three educational settings. Moreover, a pedagogical intervention has been designed for this study, aiming at putting genre-based learning into practice so that EFL teachers can actually experience it and consider it a potential approach for the future. The following section will detail the organisation of this thesis and outline the research procedure designed.

1.3. Overview and organisation of the thesis

The next three chapters encompass the theoretical underpinnings which frame this study. Each of the three chapters can be paired up with each of the objectives and research questions.

Thus, Chapter 2 helps us understand where to place EFL teachers' roles within CLIL research and implementation. To do so, it first addresses the place of EFL in multilingual education settings, revisiting its aims as a teaching discipline and the claims for its curricular reform. Then, the chapter situates CLIL within the tradition of multilingual education and introduces the frameworks on which research has built to claim for more explicit attention to the language dimension within these educational approaches. It also reviews previous research on the matter, focusing on the factors which have led to an insufficient language awareness. Being EFL teachers the pivotal figure in this thesis, this chapter examines the different suggestions made by the literature to involve them in CLIL implementation and enhance the effectiveness of this approach.

Chapter 3 delves into the second objective and pair of research questions, which are concerned with the variable of teacher cognition, particularly from the point of view of language teacher cognition. It also puts this notion at the centre of CLIL inasmuch its implementation is having considerable impact on teachers' beliefs, identity or collaborative and power relations, also in the case of Secondary EFL teachers. This framework will provide a sound basis to explore language teachers' understanding of their own role in CLIL settings and their conceptualisation of ideal practices.

Chapter 4 focuses specifically on the role of language and offers a literature review of how language has been considered throughout different models to end up presenting the SFL

framework. Since the last of the objectives and pair of research questions deals with the implementation of a genre-based approach in EFL teaching as a means of support for learners to better acquire academic skills and subject-specific literacy, the SFL approach to language has proved to be highly useful in CLIL contexts. Within its scope, the language of schooling, school genres and genre-based pedagogy are addressed in this part.

Chapter 5 encompasses the methodological section of this thesis. It focuses on the participants, the data gathering process and the whole research design. It also presents the different steps for the data analysis, including the decisions made to ensure validity, reliability and research ethics.

Chapters 6, 7 and 8 comprise the results section. Each of the three chapters aligns with the three pairs of research questions, following a successive order. Thus, findings are displayed in separate chapters. These results chapters analyse the data obtained through different but complementary research instruments and engage in the discussion of the findings.

It is in chapter 9 where the main results are treated globally, focusing on how they interplay and relate to each other. This enables us to offer a final discussion and reflect on the policy and pedagogical implications, on the directions for future action when it comes to the redefinition of the roles of EFL teachers within CLIL Secondary settings.

Finally, chapter 10 closes this thesis by summarising in what ways the research questions have been answered, as well as by outlining some limitations of the study and suggestions for further research. This chapter is followed by the bibliographical references cited throughout the thesis and the 16 appendices which complement it, for the readers' convenience.

2. The EFL teacher and the language gap in CLIL Secondary Settings

2.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the main theoretical framework whereby the current study is set, and which serves as a point of departure for the other complementary theoretical frameworks that follow in chapters 3 and 4. To start with, section 2.2. will look at English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, the new challenges which have emerged for them in the context of multilingual education and why current models or approaches may be insufficient to cater for present-day learners. Similarly, the impact of other relevant factors on the figure of the EFL professional will be explored. Assuming that the spread of programmes such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which integrate content and language, have made EFL teachers rethink their role within these changing settings, section 2.3. will try to place CLIL within the tradition of bilingual and multilingual education. Then, section 2.4. will address the main linguistic deficiencies found in these types of educational settings and analyse the role of language in CLIL from the perspective of the multiple claims which have been made to support its saliency. As this pitfall has been proved not exclusive to CLIL contexts but recurrent in all types of integrated settings, it will be necessary to look at research in other programmes too (e.g. in Canada and the US). In that sense, we will observe the evolution from calls for Focus-on-Form (FoF) practices, implemented in the CLIL classroom, to the advocacy of generalised Language Awareness (LA) practices, which embrace other agents such as the Foreign Language teacher. More specifically, section 2.4.1. will examine the factors which have led to insufficient language-related practices in CLIL content lessons.

Once the language issues and linguistic deficiencies, as well as causes and potential risks are analysed in section 2.5., the focus will be shifted to the EFL practitioner again to discuss how they are positioned in relation to those practices. This section will deal with what the literature has disclosed about the reshaping of the EFL teacher role in these contexts, mediated by collaborative practices with content teachers, and highlighting the key role which these professionals play (or could play) when addressing the issue of language integration. Finally, and in order to offer a more thorough description of the context under analysis, section 2.6. will present other levels of teacher collaboration which can enhance the quality of CLIL programmes.

2.2. Where do we EFL teachers stand?

2.2.1. The current role of EFL teaching in multilingual education settings

In the early 1980s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) appeared to address the shortcomings of structuralist approaches and grammar-based methods. The so-called *communicative method*, which represented a major shift in language teaching, was grounded on the premise that the focus should be on achieving communicative proficiency rather than the mere mastery of syntactic structures. Thus, CLT was presented as the most effective methodology to teach EFL, since its aim is to develop communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), and the emphasis is largely placed on developing fluency over accuracy. Thus, the focus was no longer the formation of syntactic structures at a sentence level, and as a result the role of grammar was reconsidered. It is not that grammatical competence was discarded, but with CLT grammar was linked to language function, that is, the purpose of communication and context. As Richards (2006) points out, in CLT:

[Activities] seek to develop students' communicative competence through linking grammatical development to the ability to communicate. Hence, grammar is not taught in isolation but often arises out of a communicative task, thus creating a need for specific items of grammar (p.23).

Although CLT has evolved to incorporate recent innovations, its principles are still extensively followed (e.g. meaningful tasks involving interaction and authentic communication) in foreign language teaching. However, some decades later, the communicative language classroom does no longer seem the most suitable scenario for

language acquisition. Owing to CLIL, which is reported to go one step further in terms of effectiveness is its authenticity (Coyle et al. 2010) of purpose and language use, the target language is being used to communicate real messages; and authenticity of materials as well. For that reason, CLIL has been considered CLT's natural heir or ultimate communicative approach (Graddol, 2006; Pérez-Vidal, 2013) because many methodological principles of CLIL have been taken from CLT. Moreover, it promotes interaction to favour co-construction of meaning and provides opportunities for natural language acquisition. That is, CLIL appears to incorporate all the benefits of communicative approaches. Hence, what can be considered the most effective language teaching appears to have transferred to the CLIL content lessons. In this scenario, EFL lessons no longer provide the best conditions for meaningful language practice. In this light, the question that we must ask ourselves is: where do language teachers stand? CLIL implementation seems to have had some significant impact on the reality of EFL teaching in this type of educational setting, so the EFL profession will have to be reexamined and readapted in the light of CLIL and alongside it too.

Language specialists at Secondary Education have expressed their concern about their uncertain professional future, afraid of the possibility that their subject may eventually disappear as a consequence of the growing number of non-linguistic subjects taught through a foreign language. To illustrate this situation, Pavón and Ellison (2013, p. 74) reported how EFL practitioners think of their job as redundant and secondary. This scepticism and feeling of loss of status is caused by the perception that learners' language acquisition is no longer their responsibility, but content teachers' (Halbach, 2014). Graddol (2006) even affirmed that because of other subjects being taught through English, "teaching general English in secondary school will fall away and become the preserve of the remedial teacher, helping students who cannot manage in the mainstream classes to catch up" (2006, p.101).

According to Leaton-Gray et al., (2018), if EFL teaching focuses mostly on grammar but does not offer a wider variety of contents and opportunities for critical thinking, language teaching is running counter to the widely accepted principles of how languages are effectively learnt (*ibid.*). With this in mind, these authors posit that the way forward is to adapt language teaching to a more content-based language teaching, with content-rich language classes (Leaton-Gray et al.; 2018, p. 61).

2.2.2. Learning objectives in EFL

By definition, the end of EFL is the language itself. That is, its content is purely linguistic. In EFL classrooms, ‘content’ can be incorporated (e.g. in theme-based language courses), but it largely functions as a pretext or excuse, it still serves language acquisition. Assuming that CLIL provides better opportunities and supposedly, the best context for language acquisition (Mehisto et al., 2008), EFL presents limitations in contrast to CLIL and other multilingual education settings when it comes to language learning aims.

Another framework from which to examine the current limitations of EFL teaching based on communicative approaches is the so-called dichotomy BICS and CALP (Cummins, 1984, 2000), key in immersion contexts. The term Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refers to the language proficiency that arises in social conversations whereas Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) encompasses the language used in academic contexts. According to Halbach (2012), from the work of Cummins we can deduce that children acquire certain communicative language proficiency (BICS) first and from there, they build up academic language skills (CALP) (p. 1-2). Especially since the consolidation of CLT, language teaching has been about teaching BICS and to develop academic competence in social and public domains. But current educational scenarios, with more bilingual and multilingual education and more international programmes in higher education, have shifted the focus towards CALP and the relevance of academic and discipline-specific language. To overcome this, new scales and descriptors have been included in the new Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (hereafter CEFR) with a special focus on educational domains in which an additional language is used as a medium of instruction (Council of Europe, 2020).

2.2.3. More claims for curricular reform: the current global challenges of ELT

In CLIL Secondary settings in particular, English Language Teaching is not only shaped by the growing presence of multilingual education, but also by other contextual factors such as the type of students (teenagers), broader curricular demands and orientations, the role of English as a global language and the implications of such role in society. Against this backdrop, let us point out some determining factors in this regard.

Firstly, it could be considered that it is the whole view of English teaching that is undergoing a transformation. Because of the language learning demands of our globalised society, Graddol (2006) has predicted a decline of EFL: “a new generation of English-knowing children will grow up who do not need further English lessons of the traditional kind” (2006, p.101).

On the one hand, the amount of extramural exposure to the FL has increased, particularly due to the force of ICT, which is potentially effective (Collins & Muñoz, 2016). Consequently, EFL teachers are no longer the exclusive source of EFL input for learners. Nowadays, learners have instant access to multimedia content such as video games, films, or TV series. This easy access has come to bridge home and school in new ways, but the effects on literacy are yet to be fully investigated because the impact on proficiency is not clear (Muñoz, 2006). As much of this input is in English, this could be causing students’ lack of interest in the FL subject in the light of the perception that they do not need explicit language teaching any longer, an issue which deserves further investigation. For Lain (2014), one way of motivating teenagers is by leaving textbooks aside and using smartphones and digital materials in innovative ways to keep them engaged. In other words, to exploit the way teenagers and ICTs interact, but in the context of the English classroom.

On the other hand, it has been argued that the FL curriculum should not be organised according to grammatical progression criteria but in a way which suits the learners’ needs in terms of content and communication (Coyle, 2007; Halbach, 2018; Lyster and Tedick, 2014; Snow, et al., 1989), in acknowledgment of the skills required by our globalised society in terms of international communication. This prepares learners for the challenges they will have to face in their future and promotes the ability ‘to do’ because it goes one step further than simply mental representation or ‘to know’ (Vanpatten & Benati, 2010), a view which tallies with the broader paradigm of the competency approach to education we are experiencing nowadays. In line with these 21st century citizenship and educational demands, other voices have suggested a content-based foreign language curriculum, but in which ‘content’ refers to thematic focus such as social and eco justice, rights, citizenship, and other global topics which concern the future of the next generations. Osborn (2006) illustrates how relevant topics such as identity or activism can be linked to typical language teaching components such as vocabulary or grammar. The ultimate goal would be to turn language teaching into a critical and inquiry-based space in which learners are engaged in deep thinking skills in preparation for culturally and linguistically diverse societies (Cammarata et al., 2016). This approach also reframes the EFL subject not as an excuse for language

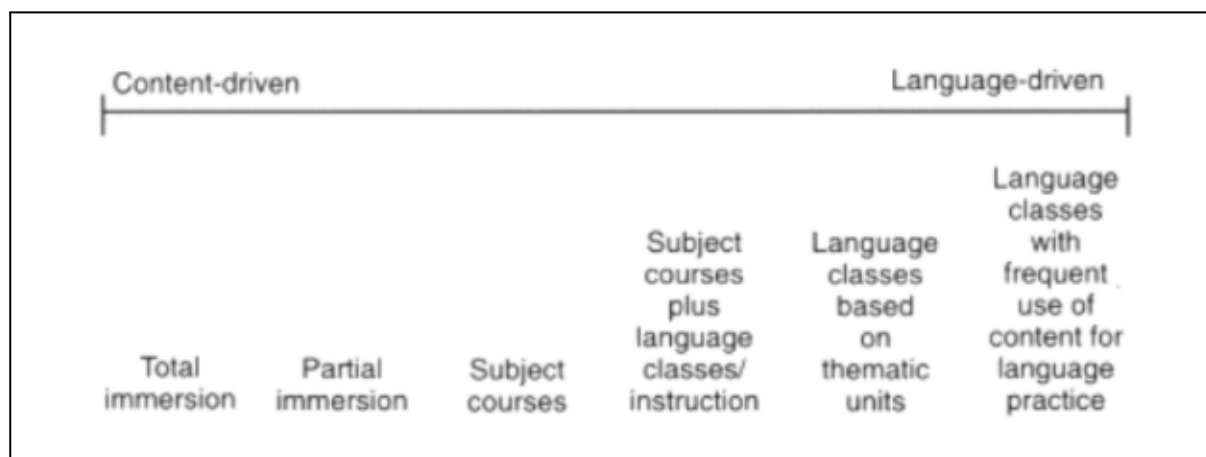
practice, but as a “legitimised contribution to educating young people” (Coyle & Meyer, 2021).

In short, this reshaping of objectives, curriculum and syllabus development sets out to create contexts which focus on both the linguistic and 21st century skills that educational and societal forces are demanding from learners and citizens.

In the light of all the new factors affecting EFL teaching in CLIL settings in the context of the educational demands of the 21st century, new opportunities emerge for EFL teachers in this new educational scenario. If English is at the core of education, and foreign language competence is highly valued, language specialists should not feel threatened. Indeed, as language specialists, their role is key in CLIL programmes (Marsh, 2005). Put differently, their professional future is not at risk, but their teacher practice would benefit from a reconceptualization which accepts the force of new educational trends and shows willingness to adapt to the new scenario. In order to fully understand what this scenario entails, the next section will verse upon CLIL and the linguistic challenges which may arise in these settings.

2.3. The place of CLIL within multilingual education

Bilingual or multilingual education approaches involve using two or more languages in education (Cenoz, 2013). The main premise is that languages are better learned when used as a means of acquiring information (content) and not as an end itself which focuses solely on the mechanisms of language (Genesee, 1991). To situate CLIL as an approach in which content and language are integrated, it is essential first to look at programmes which stand under the same umbrella. The ‘continuum of content and language integration’ put forward by Met (1998) has proved to be a practical tool to help us categorise different programmes which integrate content and language:

Figure 1*Continuum of content and language integration*

Note: Adapted from “Curriculum decision-making in content-based language teaching” (p.41), by Met, 1998. In J. Cenoz & F. Genesee (Eds.), *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education*. Multilingual Matters.

Thus, towards the content-driven end we can find immersion settings, in which content subjects are taught by means of an additional, second or foreign language. It is called partial immersion when at least a few of the content subjects are taught through the mother tongue. Towards the language-driven end we can find language courses which make use of content as an excuse to practise language. In other words, the main aim is language and not content. Distinctions between approaches under the umbrella of content-language integration are motivated by the different degree of emphasis on the language or the content (Stoller, 2008). It must be borne in mind that the term Content-based Instruction (CBI), more popular in the US, can also be used as the umbrella term to refer to educational programmes in which both content and language are integrated (see Brinton et al., 2003; Cenoz, 2015). In any case, despite the historical and contextual reasons behind the endorsement of one term vs another, integrated settings are, by definition, message-driven scenarios where language acts as a vehicle, a tool for communication. The main feature of all models is that learners acquire an additional language in an authentic and compelling context for them (Snow et al., 1989).

Canadian immersion programmes are often looked upon as the pioneers or the best-known example of integrated programmes (Cenoz, 2015, p. 10). There, immersion has been running since the 1960s aiming at achieving both academic success and functional competence in French. In the United States (US) contexts, a wide range of programmes are

held, apart from the structured (total) and partial immersion. Such is the case of transitional (one language is eventually replaced by another), maintenance (the target language does not replace the first language) or the two-way immersion programmes (dual programmes which involve learners who are native speakers of English and native speakers of other languages).

The term Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was defined as situations in which “...a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint curricular role” (Marsh, 2002, p.58). This term emerged in the 1990s as the European approach to bilingual and multilingual education, so it is often referred to as a European construct (Coyle, 2018; Lorenzo, 2007b; Marsh, 2002; Pérez-Vidal, 2009). CLIL as such was not represented explicitly in the figure; however, it would be placed towards the middle of the continuum in Figure 1. That is, under ‘subject courses plus language classes/instruction’, since CLIL programmes tend to combine subject courses taught through a foreign language but explicit language lessons (the EFL subject) still remain as part of the curriculum. This is one of the distinctive features of CLIL and, in fact, the scenario in Spain.

CLIL would not be considered immersion because in most cases, the teaching hours do not reach 50% of the curriculum, which is the threshold to be classified as such (Cenoz, 2015). Other scholars see CLIL from a different angle and associate it with subjects taught through a foreign language, but not a second language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2013; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010) because in the latter students can have extramural exposure to the target language outside school. For instance, in their view, an immersion programme through Catalan in Catalonia would not be considered CLIL but simply immersion.

In this light, from here onwards in this study, we will use the term CLIL to refer to Spain’s (and Madrid, the regional context of this study) approach to “bilingual education”⁴ programmes, considering it as a type of multilingual education. Therefore, it will be considered that some of the relevant findings in content-driven CBI and immersion contexts can be applicable to ours since the implications at a pedagogical level and methodological level do not vary fundamentally (Cenoz et al., 2014).

The definition of CLIL offered by David Marsh above already stated the dual nature of the approach as it pursues both content and foreign language objectives simultaneously. In that definition, not only did he assert that language and content should be considered

⁴ CLIL programmes are often referred to as “bilingual education” in Spain. Although this is the frequent label which tends to be preferred among practitioners and the general population, we will stick to “CLIL programmes” to describe the same reality.

concurrently, but he also insisted that both aspects have a shared function. Together with Marsh, Coyle et al. (2010) gave one of the most extended definitions of CLIL as a “dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (2010, p.1).

It can be seen that the ideal of the twofold nature is a constant in every definition provided for CLIL. However, the balance of content and language in CLIL and similar approaches has been the object of considerable discussion, (Camarata & Tedick, 2012; Cenoz et al., 2014; Lorenzo, 2007a; Lyster, 2007). According to the definition, content and language should be balanced while in practice such balance has been proved insufficient, as will be discussed throughout this chapter.

A key element in CLIL implementation in Spain is that it was originally adopted with enthusiasm because of the promising results in terms of improvement in language competence (Pérez Cañado, 2016). In other words, its motivation was primarily language-driven (Rieder-Bünemann et al., 2022). However, once implemented, reality has shown that CLIL is actually more content-driven because the content is dictated by the official school curricula, and thus, entailing specific linguistic needs (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016; Llinares et al., 2012; Coyle & Meyer, 2021). In other words the nature of CLIL implementation is not a matter of balance, but of acknowledgment of the fact that content guides the linguistic demands, which are determined by curricular demands. Hence, the nature of language in CLIL is wide because it is used both as a means of communication and a learning tool. This presupposes that the language needed in CLIL classroom encompasses classroom language, language for interaction and negotiation, language associated with content and (general) academic language. More specifically, Dale et al. (2017, p. 4-5) report the five types of language present in CBI scenarios which have been described in the vast literature on the issue:

- Subject-specific language (language of learning, language of e.g. science, subject discourses, etc.)
- Classroom language (language for learning)
- General academic language
- General everyday language
- Culture-specific language (intercultural communicative competence).

Because of the focus of this study, chapter 4 will verse upon the role of subject-specific literacy and explore it in more detail. Then, assuming that CLIL is

content-driven and its role of a manifold nature, balancing all these dimensions might not be an easy task for CLIL teachers. Thus, the next section will show the different frameworks used to advocate more attention to language in integrated settings.

2.4. From Focus-on-Form(s) to Language Awareness (LA)

From the outset of immersion, CBI and, in our context, CLIL; the multiple advantages of these approaches have been widely reported; namely second language outcomes, academic performance or cognitive development (see Chapter 1). In many cases, those benefits have been compared to results of isolated EFL instruction. For instance, Lyster (2007) states that “immersion students, regardless of program type, develop much higher levels of second language proficiency than do non-immersion students studying the second language as a regular subject” (2007, p.14).

On the one hand, we know that fluency, comprehension skills and confidence in the FL/SL are enhanced. Research has shown that CLIL students achieve higher levels of FL competence in comparison to their non-CLIL counterparts (Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2011). For instance, Várkuti (2010) carried out a study on CLIL and non-CLIL students in Hungary and concluded that “using English as a medium for learning various subjects is a more efficient route in providing functional language proficiency than traditional EFL” (2010, p. 67). Regarding writing improvement, Roquet and Pérez-Vidal (2015) carried out a comparative study of formal instruction and a CLIL group which revealed how accuracy improved significantly in the second group over a year.

Yet, on the other hand, several studies have revealed that providing learners with relevant contexts and comprehensible input is not enough as far as linguistic accuracy is concerned (Brinton et al., 2003; Snow et al., 1989; Swain, 1996). In other words, exposure with no attention to form could be insufficient for language acquisition (Lightbown, 2014). One of the main issues which has occupied researchers is precisely whether message-driven scenarios are, in essence, compatible with practices which pay explicit attention to form. In fact, this tension form-meaning seems to be an issue of continuous discussion both in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and CBI and immersion (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

2.4.1. Focus-on Form in Second Language Acquisition and multilingual education approaches

The notion of Focus-on-form (FoF) was first developed by Michael Long (1988, 1991), who distinguished between ‘focus on forms’ and ‘focus on form’. The former refers to attention paid to linguistic features and grammar structures according to a syllabus revolving around the learning of discrete syntactic structures. In contrast, the latter refers to *incidental* attention paid to form during the course of instruction. From this we can assume that this attention takes place in the course of meaning-driven instruction but could facilitate the simultaneous development of accuracy in conjunction with fluency.

According to Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1985, 1996), conversational interaction in the L2 forms the basis for language development. Thus, negotiated interaction is fundamental for meaning making. That is to say, interaction facilitates negotiation of meaning (Pica, 1994) and consequently, acquisition. Interlocutors (here teachers and learners), “work linguistically to achieve the needed comprehensibility, whether repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways” (Pica, 1994, p. 494). In this view, conversation is not simply a medium of practice, but the only way for learning to occur. For this, modified and focused interaction become essential. Interlocutors (teachers) need to make modifications to make input comprehensible to learners and focus students’ attention to areas of the L2 which learners have little information about or face any discrepancy about L2 real use. Similarly, for learning to take place during interaction, two other requirements apart from this input (positive evidence) must be accomplished according to Long (1985): corrective feedback (negative evidence) and output. In other words, learners should be offered both feedback and opportunities to produce output. In the specific domain of attention to learners’ production and on the basis of Swain’s Output Hypothesis (1985), only by having opportunities to produce, can learners notice their gaps, test their hypotheses about how language works and eventually, reflect about their own production. As Swain (1995) underlined, this practice helps develop morphology and syntax processing (1995, p. 128). For this reason, group work is fostered as a means of facilitating meaningful interaction in the classroom (Long, 1989; Van Lier, 2008).

Being aware of this, one can conclude that FoF practices could be beneficial in meaning-focused instruction. Thus, Lightbown (2014) offered a FoF approach which she calls language-focus instruction, also in the form of separate instruction (the ESL/EFL classroom); in other words, it includes the language practitioner. She insisted that, for this

practice to be effective, content and language teachers must be coordinated so that the focus of language lessons can be precisely the linguistic features which pupils will need later in content lessons to avoid the scenario in which “learning grammar rules in a grammar class may result in knowledge that is not easily transferable to the content classroom” (p.30). Lightbown offers some examples of activities such as “a lesson on the verb forms that are needed for a science report, a dictation that includes patterns and vocabulary that occur in a social studies lesson (p.69). Interestingly, she also included ‘learning to learn’ strategies or corrective feedback as part of this language-focused learning. Then, the content teacher is expected to highlight all those features and provide feedback when necessary. Ellis (2002) also suggested certain FoF strategies such as negotiation of meaning and of form, implicit (e.g. recasts) and explicit feedback and pre-emptive focus-on-form techniques. More recently, Ellis (2015a, 2015b) even advocates focus-on-forms approaches in combination with meaning-driven instruction, especially in functional approaches.

2.4.2. Lyster’s Counterbalanced Approach

Canadian immersion programmes are considered the antecedent for CLIL programmes and a source of inspiration for European bilingual and multilingual programmes. Their experience of more than five decades with immersion makes the Canadian context a valuable and reliable model. We can learn from their pedagogical decisions and draw on the vast amount of solid research which consolidates it.

It was in the context of Canadian immersion that the first claims for the above-mentioned FoF took place. One of the main tenets of immersion is that language is supposed to be picked up naturally. This relates to Krashen’s input hypothesis (1985), which claimed that if learners are exposed to comprehensible input, they will go for meaning first and as a result, they will pick up the grammar structure as well (Lyster, 2017). Nonetheless, it was found that students enrolled in immersion programmes were becoming more and more fluent, showed high levels of listening and reading comprehension, but still lacked grammar accuracy (Harley et al. 1990). It is in this scenario that it was acknowledged that language had not been paid enough attention to so far, limiting the students’ opportunities for better achievement. In order to give response to this problem, Lyster drew on some of those previous suggestions to develop his Counterbalanced approach (Lyster, 2007), by which he argued that form-focused and controlled practices reported more profound and long-lasting effects on language competence. The precedents for the Counterbalanced Approach date back

to the vast amount of research on immersion starting in the 1960s. For instance, it was already pointed out that immersion requires teachers to plan for the language dimension and cater for opportunities for interaction (Genesee, 1991). This approach also draws on previous research (see Netten 1991) which concluded that some of the most effective instructional practices with a huge impact on language learning outcomes are:

- teacher-student interaction
- opportunities for meaningful peer-interaction
- fewer non-verbal clues to convey meaning
- explicit correction

(adapted from Lyster, 2007, p.5)

In short, the Counterbalanced Approach advocates more systematic attention to form and function by compensating the reported deficiency with interactional and corrective feedback, noticing activities and other instructional practices which can make language more visible. In this vein, attention to meaning should be counterbalanced with Focus on Form (FoF), in line with Lightbown (2014) and Ellis above. These practices should not be incidental but reinforced by means of proactive and reactive activities. As Lyster (2007) argues:

With its goal of integrating both form-focused and content-based instruction in conjunction with language across the curriculum and other pivotal literacy-based approaches at the heart of school-based learning, counterbalanced instruction promotes continued second language growth by inciting learners to shift their attentional focus in a way that balances their awareness of getting two for one, that is, learning both language and content together. (p.126)

A broader idea that can be inferred from this is that content and language should not be separated because they are already integrated by nature. Such is the stance that Lyster also claims to subscribe and to which we will come back later in this study. As in the immersion contexts explained here, FoF has also been touched upon in CLIL settings, as the next section will describe.

2.4.3. FoF in CLIL settings

The need for FoF has also been advocated in our European CLIL contexts. Concerned with the extent to which content teachers with little or no notion of language pedagogy and SLA can contribute to learners' development of the target language, De Graaf et al. (2007) created an observation tool which was tested in Dutch schools. Their tool consisted of the following domains: how teachers facilitate exposure to input, meaning-focused processing, form-focused processing, to examine strategic language use and form processing, opportunities for output production and the use of strategies (2007, p.607-610). These were considered by Westhoff (2004) as the five dimensions necessary for successful language learning. The domain of form-focused processing refers to activities "aimed at awareness-raising of language form, thus making learners conscious of specific language features" (De Graaf et al., 2007, p.608). The indicators within form-focused are:

- facilitating noticing of problematic and relevant language forms,
- providing examples of correct and relevant language forms,
- correcting use of problematic and relevant language forms (corrective feedback with both implicit and explicit techniques),
- explaining problematic and relevant language forms, e.g. by giving rules and
- having pupils give peer feedback.

(De Graaf et al. 2007, p.609)

The observation of these activities would be a reliable indicator of effective FoF. In the study testing the tool, the authors found out some instances of teachers enacting effective language pedagogy, at least incidentally. However, no instances of noticing and explanation of problematic language forms were found. Interestingly, these results contrast with teacher interviews, in which many of them asserted that providing corrective feedback was important. In any case, this tool proves to have great utility since it allows to measure the extent to which practitioners enact the expected integration of language in CLIL, which, as we have discussed in this section, can play a key role in language learning outcomes.

The impact of classroom interaction and teacher knowledge has also been an object of study. Focusing on discourse in Austrian classrooms, Dalton-Puffer (2007) stated that there is no point in doing CLIL if language goals were not essential, and highlighted the importance of creating a language curriculum for CLIL which also encompasses the acquisition of academic language skills. Moreover, she attributes teachers' differences in the attitude

towards the role of language to different degrees of teacher training, an issue to which we will come back to in 2.4.5.2. Her focus on discourse rests on the Vygotskian idea that cognitive development emerges from social interaction and therefore, the nature of CLIL classroom talk will influence learners language competence: “Since very little explicit language teaching happens in CLIL lessons, it must be assumed that what the learners learn or do not learn is directly connected to the conditions of language use that hold during content teaching” (Dalton-Puffer, 2008, p.7). As for the effects of CLIL on students’ linguistic competence, Dalton-Puffer (2008) reported that areas such as writing, syntax, non-technical language or pragmatics have been unaffected by CLIL.

Back in Spain, Pérez-Vidal (2007) followed Lyster and argued for more FoF in CLIL as well. Drawing on the experience from Canadian Immersion and the constraints of implicit instruction, she claimed that explicit instruction is essential to favour language acquisition, even in essentially message-driven contexts such as CLIL. In order to analyse current classroom approaches to form, Pérez-Vidal conducted a study on three different schools in Catalonia to identify the extent of the need for more focus on form. She adapted Bernhardt’s (1992) categorization of instruction strategies used for Canadian immersion: “language input and output strategies”, “managing strategies” and “other strategies”. The first group comprises strategies to adapt meaning or language to make oneself understood, code-switching and other moves to boost students’ output. This category encompasses explicit FoF teaching. The second one includes references to syllabus, materials and guidelines for activities. Finally, making interdisciplinary connections fall within the last category. After observing CLIL teachers in those three schools, the results revealed that the first category takes most of the teacher talk, particularly those strategies focused on meaning. This contrasts with the nonexistent instances of FoF strategies. Hence, Pérez-Vidal concluded that the nature of the lessons observed were mainly communicative, focused on meaning, and urges to acknowledge the key role of focus-on-form practices in contexts where an integrated pedagogy has been implemented:

If our small sample is representative of more extensive practices, there seems to be a need for introducing FoF approaches to complement current practices in CLIL teaching, as Lyster (2007) has emphasised. Further empirically driven research evidence is necessary in this domain not only to restate the benefits of multilingual approaches, but also to help find the adequate paths and pedagogical strategies for the best possible learning outcomes and returns of an extremely innovative, yet equally

challenging approach to education which is gaining ground in the European Bologna era. (2007, p.50)

As far as corrective feedback is concerned, García Mayo and Basterrechea (2017) examine contradictory studies on interaction in CLIL classrooms and claim that more research is needed to investigate in depth the extent to which negotiation, feedback moves and attention to form are fostered. In this vein, Milla and García Mayo (2014) compared types of feedback in CLIL and EFL pre-university courses⁵ and concluded that it was more varied and explicit in EFL whereas in CLIL it was primarily done through recasts (implicit correction). In their study, there were a significantly higher number of oral errors corrected in EFL, which is logically more form-oriented. Indeed, in a similar study, also in these pre-university courses, Milla (2017) found out that the CLIL teacher corrected about 20% of the errors, while this figure increased to 80% in the case of the EFL teacher. In English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in higher education settings, similar results were obtained by Lasagabaster and Doiz (2018), who outline two interesting facts. On the one hand, students did not notice two thirds of the error-correction movements. On the other, although language teachers correct much more, of a total of 92 errors, 42 were related to grammar, whereas this figure drops to five register errors. This proves that focus on grammar still prevails when compared to other linguistic and communicative categories.

It could be argued that CLIL is by nature message-oriented, but these proposals for FoF integration within CLIL lessons are not incompatible with the content-driven nature of CLIL. This initial FoF advocacy has evolved into a claim for what has been called ‘Language Awareness’ (LA), which will be addressed next.

2.4.4. Language Awareness (LA): The effects of the language gap in CLIL

While form-focused strategies encompass the actions taken by the content teacher in the content classroom to address language issues, as discussed in the previous section, these strategies are not always present. Thus, these FoF advocacies have evolved towards a broader perspective in which the attention to language is not exclusively a task of the content teacher, but a global institutional and educational concern at a school level. Paying attention to language is not simply restricted to FoF practices but to developing sufficient Language

⁵ Bachillerato. In Spain, there are two post-Secondary courses (ages 16-18) in preparation for Higher Education.

Awareness (LA), understood as the knowledge about language and conscious sensitivity while language teaching and learning. (see James & Garret, 1991). It means going beyond the explicit and specific focus on language (e.g. corrective feedback) to being aware of language and the role it plays in CLIL and other similar educational settings, thereby creating a language-aware learning environment (Otto & San Isidro, 2019). In fact, the Council of Europe (2019), in its recommendations for a comprehensive approach to language teaching also encourages the development of language awareness in schools, “helping the learners to broaden their competences in the languages of schooling by supporting teachers in addressing the use of specific language in their respective subject areas, including raising the awareness of different language registers and specific vocabulary” (p.4). In the same vein, Llinares et al. (2012) argued that it must be the responsibility of the CLIL teacher to make visible the genre and register features through classroom interaction, which constitutes an explicit approach to language.

The lack of FoF and language awareness (LA) in CLIL is also related to the issue of the language gap in CLIL (see Halbach, 2014), which refers to the linguistic difficulties that learners can experience when dealing with content texts, topics and activities through a foreign language. Given the general agreement that students need the foreign language to follow content lessons effectively (Halbach, 2018; Lorenzo, 2017; Met, 2008; Navés, 2009), we must turn now to the potential negative effect of not attending the language dimension.

Lasagabaster (2014) argued that “too often content-based teaching is carried out paying minimum attention to students’ use of the target language and without examining the features of the language output” (2014, p.123). But more importantly, and to show that language awareness encompasses much more than simply providing corrective feedback, Lasagabaster here refers to output mistakes not only limiting them to grammatical mistakes, but also insufficient accuracy or inadequacy of register.

One of the main potential risks of LA is considering that it is limited to terminology and key technical vocabulary. Despite being firm advocates of incidental language learning in CLIL, Lorenzo and Moore (2010) acknowledged that language use and content goals cannot be separated and tentatively concluded that “content teachers tend to prioritise lexis as the key to integration, emphasising that learners require the terminology of the discipline in order to grasp the area content in an L2” (2010, p.29) (also see Lorenzo et al., 2009). That is, there is a tendency to associate attention to language in CLIL with the specific terminology relevant to the subject matter, leaving aside other important considerations. To illustrate this, these scholars provide the example of how learners cannot deal with historical past events if

they do not have notions of the verb system of the TL. Moreover, even though Lorenzo and Moore suggest a notional approach by which learners' output would be accepted as long as there is a clear meaning and some degree of competency in the academic functions, they also acknowledged that "there are still problems with accuracy" (2010, p. 32). That is, LA goes beyond simply attending the specific terminology proper to each discipline to encompassing the language of the classroom, cognitive operations (language for learning), discourse features and the subject-specific literacy, which also involves helping students cope with the specific genres.

Similarly, Regalla (2012) claimed that language objectives in immersion contexts⁶ are not limited to technical vocabulary. Interestingly, she suggested that even though content teachers are not FL teachers, they must become specialists in the language of their content. That is, learners need access to academic language specific to the content field and teachers in these contexts where language is a medium of instruction should be aware of the role that language plays for meaning construction. Otherwise, we risk our teaching having a superficial effect (Halbach, 2014, Coyle & Meyer, 2021) and language turning out to be a barrier to access content knowledge (Bailey et al., 2007).

From the perspective of socio-constructivist theories in SLA, on which CLIL rationale rests, far-reaching effects can be found in terms of both language and content learning. Turning to Vygotsky's (1978) theory of language, which views language development as something mediated by social interaction, the role of language is again central in CLIL. But not only is language a central element for language acquisition, but also for cognitive development on the whole (Swain, 2006). Social interaction is the element from which cognitive development emerges. Hence the notion of language centrality in cognitive development: if language acquisition stems from social interaction and social interaction is paramount for cognitive development, language cannot be separated from cognition. Consequently, not attending the language dimension in CLIL classrooms may result in poor cognitive development. If we learn through interaction, it must be present in CLIL classrooms. This is another reason why teachers are encouraged to show awareness of negotiation of meaning techniques and strategies to offer corrective feedback as part of a FoF approach, as seen above. Methodological approaches such as Project-based Learning (PBL), Task-based Learning (TBL) or Cooperative Learning, all based on constructivist theories of

⁶ Regalla's research focuses on English language learners (ELLs) in the US.

learning and fostering meaningful interaction, are recommended to prevent CLIL implementation from being unproductive (see Meyer, 2010).

Among the numerous scholars who have argued for more interaction in CLIL classrooms, we can highlight the work of Dafouz, Llinares and Morton (2010) because of its focus on Secondary Education and on the importance of interaction in the framework for CLIL teacher development. Following Genesee (1994) and Long (1996), they describe the ideal classroom environment as one in which opportunities for negotiation of meaning, interaction and participation are provided. Dafouz, Llinares and Morton (2010) assert that apart from the skills to do so, teachers should incorporate consistent values and knowledge regarding classroom interaction:

CLIL teachers need to appreciate the role of language in developing understanding and that learning a language goes hand in hand with using the language for different purposes [...] [and] how negotiation of meaning can support language and content learning and how contingent scaffolding supports CLIL. (p.16)

Similarly, Escobar and Walsh (2017) show how learning can be positively enhanced under a better understanding of classroom discourse because of the central role of classroom interactional competence when assisting learning. Thus, the whole educational success may be contingent on the quality of interaction, thus resulting in complete failure when not addressed properly (Escobar 2016; Evnitskaya, 2018; Mercer, 2004).

In short, the language gap in CLIL classrooms refers to insufficient LA, which not only encompasses corrective feedback practices, but also gives a prominent role to interaction as a learning tool and pays attention to the specific linguistic requirements which are proper to each school discipline. This section has outlined the risks of the language gap, whose causes will be addressed next.

2.4.5. An overview of the possible causes of the language gap in CLIL

Research has evinced that contexts in which content is taught through an additional language content is predominant whereas language pedagogy is frequently disregarded (see Fortune et al., 2008). The lack of LA in these settings seems to be a direct consequence of content teachers' prioritisation of content over language (Block & Moncada, 2019; Dafouz, 2018; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2020; San Isidro, 2018; Otto & San Isidro, 2019; Skinnari &

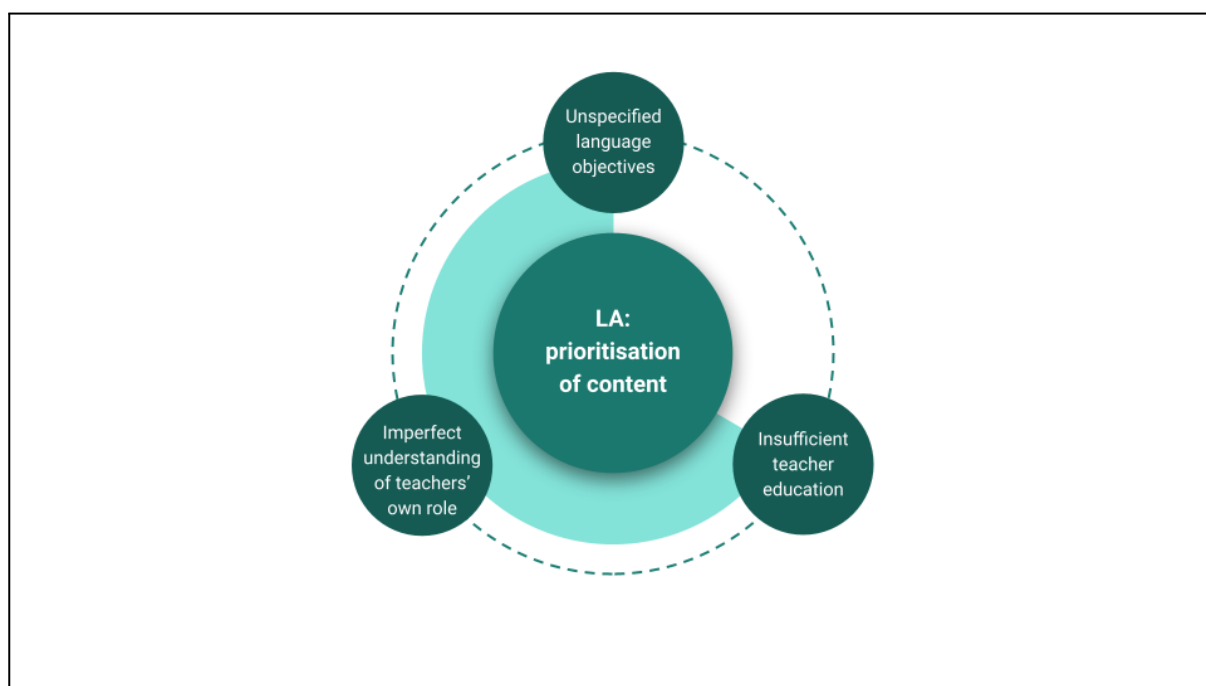
Bovellan, 2016; Talbot & Gruber, 2021). Two main explanations have been offered for content teachers generally giving more weight to content than language:

The concern reflects two fears: firstly, that the foreign language may slow down proceedings so that less subject matter can be covered and secondly, that lower language proficiency may result in reduced cognitive complexity of the subject matter presented and/or learned. (Dalton-Puffer; 2007, p. 5)

The reasons for such prioritisation seem to be interconnected. That is, they affect one another, as Figure 2 attempts to show:

Figure 2

Factors for content prioritisation



Note: Author's own elaboration.

The prioritisation of content over form is threefold and articulated by unspecified language objectives, insufficient teacher education and teachers' 'imperfect' understanding of their own role. Let us now discuss in more depth what each of these factors entails.

2.4.5.1. Unspecified language objectives in the CLIL curriculum

First and foremost, at the prescriptive level there exists no statutory curriculum for bilingual education in Spain. The Education Act (LOMCE) states that the educational administration can establish that part of the curriculum can be taught through a foreign language as long as the basic aspects of the curriculum are not modified⁷ (Organic Law 8/2013, p.10). While objectives and standards are well-specified by the pertinent policy and educational laws for mainstream education, language goals have not yet been designed for CLIL programmes neither at a national nor a regional level. Although Madrid has some other further regulations, they are more concerned with organisational issues rather than being curriculum-oriented. However, the identification of specific language objectives also constitutes a key stage in terms of the planning organisation (Pavón et al., 2014), so CLIL programmes could benefit from the establishment of a top-down initiative in this regard. This scenario is not exclusive to Spain. In fact, despite the centrality of multilingualism and intercultural communication in the EU, there is little audit of the language aims and how to operationalise the language policy in classroom practices in European schools, key to ensure certain coherence and systematicity across programmes (Leaton-Gray et al., 2018).

It goes without saying that any form of integrated learning poses an additional challenge as far as the incorporation of language objectives is concerned because of the difficulty to notice the linguistic needs of the curriculum and its associated language-learning demands (Davison, 2006; Short & Echevarría, 1999). One could argue the impossibility of attaining such task. After all, the language demands in these contexts are dictated by the content subject (Deller & Price 2007). This assumption would take us again to the necessity of training teachers so that they are able to identify language demands arising from content.

Baecher et al. (2014), have investigated the inclusion of language objectives in CBI in the US at the level of instructional planning. They acknowledge both the challenges that planning for language poses as well as its interplay with any previous training and teacher beliefs. Baecher et al. analysed 107 lesson plans for various content matters from 43 in-service and pre-service teachers and concluded that participants wrote less clear language objectives in comparison to clearer content objectives. Even when they focused on language, the target was primarily the four skills and vocabulary, while language functions or strategies for language learning were mostly disregarded. This study shows teachers' struggle when

⁷ Original text: las administraciones educativas podrán establecer que una parte de las asignaturas del currículo se impartan en lenguas extranjeras sin que ello suponga modificación de los aspectos básicos del currículo regulados en el presente Real Decreto (Organic Law 8/2013, p.10)

dealing with language objectives. On the contrary, the study conducted by Echevarria et al. (2006) concluded that when teachers formulated the specific language demands of the tasks in their lesson plans, the result was a higher level of success for the pupils.

One manner of ensuring language objectives is by explicitly encapsulating them in CLIL assessment. For that reason, some efforts are being made to develop a specific CEFR descriptor scale for academic language exclusively, which would have important implications for CLIL if this scale were used to establish learning outcomes (Shaw, 2020).

In short, the establishment of language pedagogy principles would result in unified criteria making them approach-based and not contingent on individual teacher practices (Björklund, 2006). CLIL practice will only be successful if the required content and language objectives are achieved (Mehisto & Ting, 2017, p.214), but in order to achieve them, they must be established first.

2.4.5.2. Insufficient teacher education in CLIL settings

As teacher education is contingent on the curriculum, this is the second element we must look at. Some previous research on the issue has revealed that the insufficient attention to language is also caused by the lack of teacher education on the principles of integration of content and language (Bovellan, 2014; Marsh et al. 2011; Morton, 2012) and language pedagogy (Llinares & Whittaker, 2010).

In 2010, the CLIL-Teacher's Competences Grid was developed by the CLIL Cascade Network (CNN)⁸ as a framework of reference for recommended teacher competences necessary to carry out good practices in CLIL. The grid was divided into different areas, each competence having their own indicator in the form of can-do statements. The areas of competence listed embrace 'programme parameters', 'CLIL policy', 'target language competences for teaching CLIL', 'course development', 'partnership in supporting student learning', 'integration' (merging content, language and learning skills), 'implementation', 'SLA', 'interculturality', 'learning environment management', 'learner focus in the CLIL environment', 'learning skill focus in CLIL', 'learning assessment and evaluation in CLIL' and 'lifelong learning & innovative teaching and learning approaches' (see Coonan et al. 2010). We can see that language competences play a key role and comprehend various domains, ranging from 'using the language of teaching and learning activities' to 'applying

⁸ Pat Bertoux, Carmel Mary Coonan, M^a Jesús Frigols-Martín, and Peeter Mehisto (See Coonan et al. 2010)

SLA knowledge in lesson preparation and in the classroom'. Needless to say, it is an ambitious set of competences and a highly demanding objective for teachers

Since the first programmes were implemented in Spain⁹, the major concern has been the linguistic competence of CLIL teachers. The only specification and condition in order to be qualified as *bilingual teacher in Primary Education* is to certify an upper-intermediate or advanced level of the target language. In fact, only Madrid and Navarra require C1 as the threshold whereas just B2 level is compulsory in the rest of regions in Spain¹⁰. As we know, decision-making in terms of education corresponds to regional authorities and not at a national level (see Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) for an illustration of the varied implementation of CLIL and teacher training in Spain). We should also bear in mind that the teacher profile varies from Primary to Secondary Education. While in the former we find practitioners graduated in teaching and specialised in the FL, in the latter CLIL teachers are specialised in a content area (e.g. Biology, Geography, etc.) and they solely have to certify the level of FL required. That is, it is guaranteed that teachers are equipped with knowledge of language pedagogy in Primary, but not in Secondary Education. Once they certify their level, they are issued the so-called *habilitación lingüística*¹¹ and they can begin to practice CLIL teaching.

The situation described contrasts strikingly with the set of recommended competences mentioned above. Proficiency in the TL is undoubtedly important, but it constitutes only one of the fourteen areas of expertise. In other words, a teacher may have the required language skills and get a C1 certification, but it does not automatically imply that they are knowledgeable in SLA or that they are capable of performing according to the methodological foundation of CLIL on the basis of integration. As Pérez-Vidal (2005) puts it: “however well subject teachers may know the tongues they are teaching in they generally lack the language teachers’ specific teaching techniques” (2005, p.40). She goes on to say that linguistic awareness is necessary to make sure that input is comprehensible by using techniques such as repetition, paraphrasing, reformulating, and so on, for which she demands methodological training (2005, pp. 40-41). Thus, not only the language is necessary, but also training on methodological principles.

In this light, over the past decade, many CLIL researchers have argued for more teacher education. According to Llinares and Dafouz (2010), because of the differences of

⁹ ‘The first programmes’ refers to those programmes implemented in monolingual regions. Bilingual education initiatives implemented in regions with two co-official languages are not taken into account.

¹⁰ This may change, as some regions intend to raise the entry level)

¹¹ Certification as CLIL teachers.

teacher profile between Primary and Secondary Education, not only should administrations guarantee practitioners FL competence, but also recognition of each subject's specific language demands and characteristics of the different subject disciplines. Similarly, Fernández and Halbach (2011) claimed that practitioners should be trained on the principles of integration in order to teach content through a foreign language effectively. They identified teacher training needs in Madrid and 66% of the teachers participating pointed at teaching reading and writing in English as their major concern. Cabezuelo and Fernández (2014) used the same framework and replicated the study to analyse how teacher needs in terms of training had changed over the years. They concluded that the majority of participants had ceased to be primarily concerned with their level of English and were more concerned instead with their lack of methodological capabilities. In this respect, 16 out of the 17 participants complained that training was not sufficient and "it needed further improvement with continuous training courses and opportunities" (2014, p.62).

In recent years, numerous Master programmes have proliferated across Spanish universities. However, and to the author's knowledge, most of the teacher education programmes and initiatives mentioned are mostly addressed at Primary level teachers. During the first years of CLIL, this may have seemed reasonable, as it would take a few years for the first cohort of students to start Secondary education, in 2010-2011. One year earlier, the *Secondary Teacher Language Training* Programmes were introduced by the regional government for schools willing to implement CLIL programmes. These courses were language courses following communicative methodology for which, as Olivares and Pena (2013) emphasise in their study of these courses' efficiency, "the administration particularly wants universities to only train teachers linguistically, i.e. they specifically mention that no methodology or subject-specific training is given" (2013, p. 89).

Lindahl and Baecher (2015), in their study of language awareness in the context of the TESOL programme for future CBI/CLIL practitioners, claimed that "in the CBI/CLIL context more than in the 'traditional' ESL classroom, teachers need greater support in attending to the language dimensions of their practice so that the content focus does not overtake instructional time" (2015, p.29). Hence, following the notion of Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) (see Andrews, 2007), Lindahl and Baecher insisted that pedagogical practices will be determined by their previous training and practicum periods.

More recently, Pérez Cañado (2018) has argued that the training currently offered does not meet all the areas of competence. She proposes some actions such as the creation of new degrees or specific courses for pre-/in-service teachers, as the lines below summarise:

Teachers, undoubtedly the actors who have been more deeply impacted by CLIL, have often been thrown out to teach according to this approach without sufficient or adequate training, because the demands placed on them by the implementation of this new approach have been largely overlooked (Pérez Cañado, 2018, p.213).

Going back to the issue of teacher profile and training, the very illustrative study conducted by Custodio-Espinar (2019) revealed that content teachers certified with linguistic competence (C2 in particular) who also received prior CLIL training were the group which was most aware of the principles of content-language integration. In contrast, those with the lowest levels of awareness were teachers who had been accredited with neither prior nor post CLIL training. It must be taken into consideration that from 2010 onwards, CLIL teachers in Madrid no longer receive compulsory methodological training. There are only optional courses for those practitioners who are interested. Drawing on these results, Custodio-Espinar and García have concluded (2020) that the accreditation system should introduce obligatory CLIL training on the principles of content-language integration. Moreover, in her meta-analysis of training needs, Pons (2019), reports that in all of the studies examined, in-service teachers listed content and language awareness as an area in need for more training.

In short, and as San Isidro (2018) insists, “CLIL teachers are subject teachers who are not used to planning their programs and lessons taking languages into consideration, let alone taking foreign or additional languages into account” (p.189). Thus, CLIL teachers must be offered pre- and in-service education as a point of departure to guarantee LA and effectiveness of the whole approach.

2.4.5.3. CLIL teachers’ ‘imperfect’ understanding of their own role

Another reason for the found prioritisation of content over language is connected with CLIL teachers’ perception of their own role. As previously mentioned, Secondary CLIL practitioners’ profile is that of a content teacher who certifies an advanced command of the TL. This is the only requirement in most cases in Spain. Hence, the interaction between the prioritisation of content and the understanding of one’s role resides in the fact that despite teaching through a foreign language, many practitioners still regard themselves solely as content teachers (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2020; Nikula et al., 2016), particularly those who had already taught in their L1 for some time. Therefore, for this reason, it might be the case that content teachers do not feel language is their responsibility (Airey, 2012). Nonetheless, fear

of making mistakes and not being linguistically prepared may also interfere with this view (Otto & San Isidro, 2019).

Regardless of whether content teachers are aware of the linguistic demands or not, the shift from teaching content subjects through a shared L1 to teaching content through a foreign language does not simply involve a change of language. A whole methodological change is implied in CLIL implementation: more participative and student-centred lessons, comprehensible input without oversimplification of concepts, scaffolding strategies, and other techniques to make oneself understood, and so on. As Pavón and Ellison (2013) put it:

Any teacher who becomes directly involved in a CLIL programme should consider it an extension of professional development, for as with any experiment involving new methodologies or techniques in the classroom, the experience inevitably leads to further reflection on beliefs, values and practice which leads to change and professional growth. (p.77)

In short, content teachers are not always aware of the methodological changes required in CLIL contexts (Pavón & Rubio, 2010). Again, only by offering appropriate teacher education programmes can the weaknesses be minimised. As far as language objectives are concerned, practitioners should be trained in their identification and planning, especially because there are no official regulations in that sense. Tan's study (2011) of CBI teachers' beliefs and practices regarding language proved how the absence of training correlates with the self-image as content teachers.

The way teachers understand their own role and the influence of classroom practice will be discussed in detail in the next chapter, but with a focus on the role of teacher identity in the case of EFL teachers. Having problematised the language gap in CLIL and established the need for more LA, the next section shifts the focus back to EFL teachers and examines how their expertise can be used to that end.

2.5. The transformation of EFL teaching in CLIL Secondary settings

Some of the findings reported throughout the previous section seem to suggest that there are some areas in which CLIL outperforms EFL and vice versa. Against this backdrop, the fact that provision of EFL instruction has stayed alongside the content subjects in most CLIL programmes is beneficial as they complement each other. Indeed Pérez-Vidal, who had

advocated the need for more FoF (2007) poses the *combination of contexts* hypothesis, by which she states that the most effective way of achieving linguistic competence is by combining formal instruction and CLIL this way: “it is by reaching an upper intermediate level through formal instruction, that CLIL approaches to education can be beneficial to learners to improve in receptive skills (2011, p. 11). This provision of EFL, if effectively implemented, could have the potential to materialise Ellis’ advocacy for a combination of focus-on-forms and meaning-driven approaches (2015a, 2015, b) presented above.

Against this backdrop, this section will examine what research has said about this reconceptualization of roles in the light of the specific linguistic needs in CLIL settings. Given the circumstances mentioned above and drawing on the need for more LA in CLIL, this section will present the proposals which the extant literature has put forward in the last few years concerning the EFL practitioners and how to reshape their role in order to offer solutions to the language gap.

Generally speaking, these proposals claim for more intense involvement of EFL teachers, who have not played an active role in this type of programmes so far. Since their field of expertise is precisely the FL, it has been argued that their figure is essential to guarantee language visibility, which is the urgent need to be addressed.

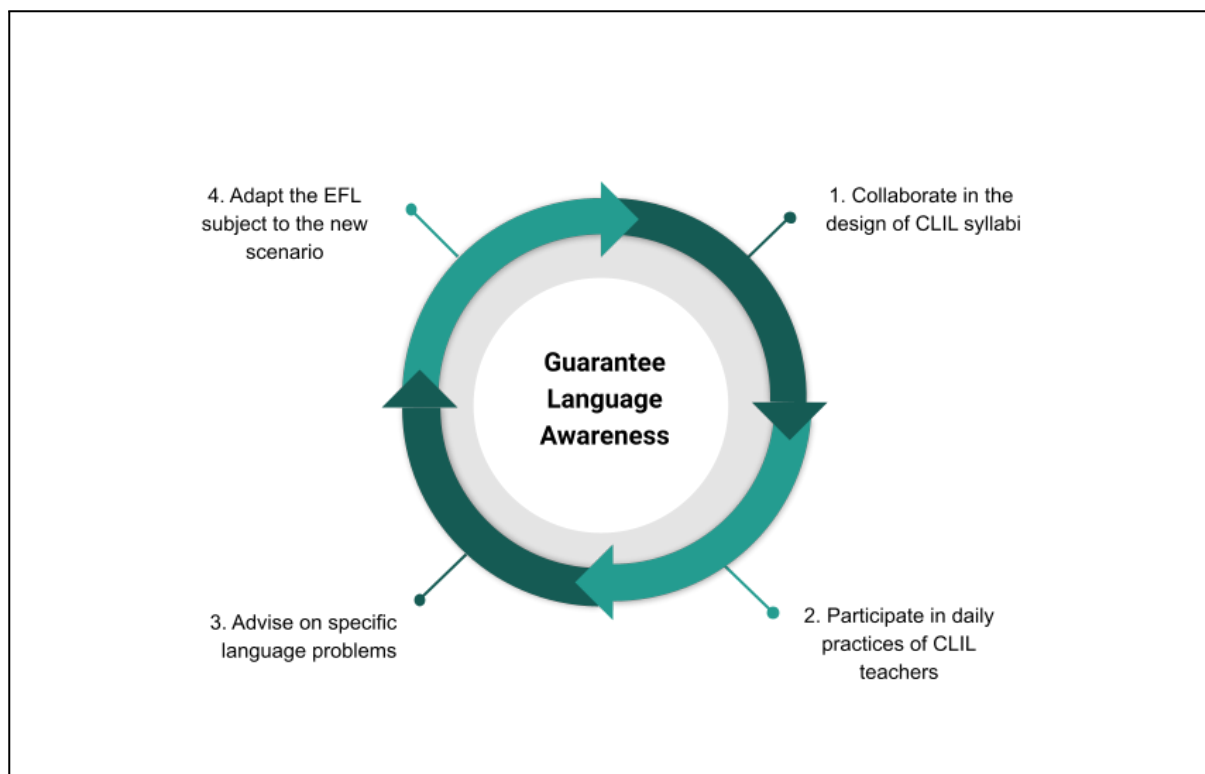
These new responsibilities cannot be understood and put into practice without a much-needed condition: teacher collaboration. The Council of the European Union recommends the promotion of “collaborative teaching between language teachers and teachers of other subjects” (2019, p.18). Some research has suggested that the means to address the language gap is by connecting content and language subjects through the joint effort of both content and language teachers.

In fact, as Lyster (2017) puts it, “connections between content and language lessons have not been exploited in a way which ensures that the language addressed in EFL complements and supports the content focus” (2017, p. 29). This is the idea that serves as a point of departure: FL teachers offering valuable linguistic support (Pavón & Ellison, 2013). This support can be articulated in initiatives of varied nature. Other previous proposals in ESL contexts have been a source of inspiration, such as those put forward by Davison (2006) after a professional development programme carried out at an Asian-Pacific context: EFL teachers’ new roles are to identify language demands of content areas and support groups in the analysis of those demands, to establish language focus and strategies, to foster curricular language awareness, to participate in planning and preparation with teams or joint reflection and evaluation of unit plans, among others (p.462).

Figure 3 comprises these various proposals for the new conceptualization of the roles of the EFL teacher, particularly valid for CLIL settings and Secondary Education:

Figure 3

The new roles of the EFL teacher in CLIL secondary settings



Note: Adapted from *Redefining the roles of EFL teachers within CLIL secondary settings* (p.77), by Jaén, 2016.

This figure is used as a point of departure to organise and define the new roles which EFL teachers could adopt and which have been further described in the last few years. Let us examine each of these new dimensions of the work of EFL teachers in CLIL Secondary settings in detail in the next subsections.

2.5.1. Identifying linguistic objectives: CLIL syllabi design

The first of the areas in which FL teachers can be involved in order to guarantee language visibility is in the identification of language objectives in CLIL syllabi, whose absence, as stated in 2.4.5.1., seems to be a direct cause of the lack of LA. To illustrate this,

the TESOL¹² International Association (2013) put forward some recommendations in the context of ESL in the US; namely, that ESL teachers guide content teachers on how to establish language objectives integrated with content objectives with the aim of helping students perform the standards¹³ better. This way, the language teacher would become a kind of peer-educator and consultant who would help content teachers develop lesson plans. In doing so, the language teachers could help counteract those situations in which teachers' attention to language is limited to lexical items.

It has been claimed that time for coordination is particularly necessary at the beginning of the school year, when language and content teachers can plan the subjects together, finding and describing linguistic objectives (Otto and San Isidro, 2019). The identification of specific objectives is a key element in the design of lesson plans, according to the study on CLIL strategic and organisational planning carried out by Pavón et al (2014). In their study, they concluded that linguistic objectives were coordinated in both linguistic and non-linguistic subjects. They also found out that in 97% of the cases, language teachers were capable of identifying the linguistic objectives in CLIL subjects and introducing them somehow in their EFL lessons. Despite these promising results, they were Primary language teachers, a stage in which the content and language teacher tends to be the same person, who makes this labour easier. This is not the case in Secondary education, where the content and language teaching positions are occupied by teachers of very different profiles. San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2020) have recently carried out a longitudinal study with 4th ESO teachers following a training-designing-implementing (TDI) approach. For two years, two Social Science teachers and four language teachers (including two EFL teachers) were immersed in a training programme consisting in planning together for CLIL lessons. They remark how the initial reluctance to address language was overcome thanks to these collaborative practices with language teachers. Moreover, they also claim that the attitudes of students towards language had improved after those two years. Even if this study was conducted in Galicia, the scholars claim it is transferable to other settings. In any case, these results show the positive effects of integrating language objectives explicitly with the help of the target language teachers.

The 'language across the curriculum' (LAC) perspective has been claimed to be fruitful in CLIL contexts because it can contribute to enhancing collaborative practices and developing literacy both in the mother tongue as in any second or foreign languages (Pavón

¹² Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

¹³ Common Core State Standards

et al., 2014). In Spain, those regions with two co-official languages have undertaken actions in that line for some decades. However, this is not the case in monolingual regions such as Madrid. In the last years, one monolingual region, Andalucía, has adopted a ‘Curriculum for the integration of languages’¹⁴ (Junta de Andalucía, 2008) and School Language Project¹⁵ (Junta de Andalucía, 2018), which materialises in a kind of ‘whole school language project’. In these contexts, according to Pavón and Pérez (2018), the school dynamics is completely transformed. These scholars also highlight that non-linguistic teachers are expected to identify the linguistic competences expected of their students, for which they need the help of language teachers. For this reason, and according to the language project regulations, schools work with ‘textual genres maps’, which compile types of texts which students read and write across subjects. One of the various actions taken in this regard is the elaboration of lesson plans in which all the subjects are included (Pavón & Pérez, 2018).

Therefore, and thanks to initiatives like this, the presence of language in CLIL is ensured, at least at a prescriptive level, due to the involvement of EFL teachers. Taking this idea one step further, it has been recommended to envisage simultaneous language objectives for both disciplines in order to coordinate them (Jaén, 2016). For instance, it might be the case that students enrolled in CLIL programmes have to deal with passive voice in Science to describe scientific phenomena earlier than what the FL curriculum prescribes. Thus, by bringing together linguistic objectives to make them coincide in time whenever possible, teachers contribute to raising students’ linguistic awareness and strategies which can be transferred among subjects. It goes without saying that this can be undertaken in more than one linguistic area. The identification and coordination of shared linguistic objectives could even be carried out for all the subjects involved in the project.

2.5.2. Joining forces in daily practices: from isolated actions to curricular integration

The joint planning is not limited to the abstract prescriptive level, but it has also been recommended that content and language teachers work together on a more frequent basis to guarantee homogenization of teaching practices, methodologies or assessment, which can be built up around various actions. First of all, by working together in the design and

¹⁴ Currículo Integrado de las Lenguas

¹⁵ Proyecto Lingüístico de Centro (PLC). Available at <http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/educacion/webportal/web/proyecto-linguistico-centro/programa-proyecto-linguistico-de-centro>

implementation of specific tasks and activities carried out both in the linguistic and the non-linguistic classroom. If teachers feel confident enough, these isolated practices could be turned into more ambitious projects with a clear interdisciplinary approach. For instance, the content teacher could establish the content requirements of the task, activity or project, and the language teacher would do so with the linguistic requirements. Pérez Cañado (2018) highlights that in recent years, project-based learning (PBL) has been gradually incorporated in many bilingual schools, resulting in inevitable cooperation among teachers and leading to more integrated units. However, she acknowledges the substantial effort that it entails: “Extra hours outside the official schedule need to be resorted to in order to adequately plan ongoing collaborative projects, which negatively impinges on the teachers’ workload and motivation” (2018, p.216).

Making language visible through this co-design of tasks also affects the scaffolding dimension, a pedagogical tool (Vygotsky, 1978), which has gained enormous significance in CBI approaches and refers to all the extra support provided to bridge potential learning gaps and which is withdrawn once it is no longer needed. It is based on the notion of Zone of Proximal Development, (ZPD) defined as “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 collaboration with more capable peers” (1978, p. 86). Content teachers are expected to provide language scaffolding for academic language (Coelho, 2014) but they may not be necessarily familiar with how to do so if they have not been trained to do so (see 2.4.5.2.). Language specialists can share effective strategies to scaffold language, also helpful in message-driven contexts. In that sense, Grandinetti et al. (2013) claim that the EFL teacher expertise is “essential for delineating where language focusing moments can be inserted to provide effective scaffolds into new content” (2013, p. 360).

Assessment seems to be another intricate issue for CLIL practitioners. As Ball et al. (2015) point out, what to assess (Content? Language? Both?) turns into a dilemma for teachers. Because of the content-driven nature of CLIL, the specific linguistic demands are subscribed to the content and derive from them. Marzano (2010) warns us not to mix BICS and CALP when assessing content, since we should avoid assessing non-academic competences which have little to do with the content. As Llinares et al. (2012) explain, in most of the European CLIL Secondary settings, it is the content teachers who are in charge of assessment, being language relegated to a vehicular and incidental role. In this light, once again, EFL and content teachers could co-assess and co-design assessment tools (Jaén, 2016),

such as rubrics. In doing so, language teachers assist in the acknowledgement of the role of language in the particular tasks, activities and projects under assessment, making language a visible component. Pavón (2014) also suggests having the language teacher in charge of language assessment, particularly in situations affected with time-constraints and where the students' language command is low. The outcome of these collaborative practices could be summarised as follows:

In sum, although CLIL teachers are usually expected to focus on content while their language colleagues are expected to address those formal features of the language that might be necessary for the students to work on specific subject genres or registers, planned activities designed to focus on language while working on content could be very useful. (Llinares et al.; 2012, p. 201)

All these initiatives comply with the EU Commission Recommendations (2019), which categorises as good practice the cross-curricular integration of linguistic awareness due to the possibilities this integration of language and subjects offers in terms of authentic learning in real-life situations (2019, p. 20). Other proposals take this synergy further and even recommend the creation of an integrated curriculum. Nikula et al. (2016) have argued for the creation of merged templates for linguistic and non-linguistic areas. In their view, CLIL challenges the traditional *collection curriculum* (2016, p. 10) which divides content into subjects, towards an *integrated curriculum*. That is the reason why they call for an exploration of the possibilities of creating “content and language units in a merged template, plan or curriculum” (2016, p. 11). At the level of classroom practices, these scholars refer to integrated lesson plans being an amalgam of content teaching and task-based language teaching approaches (p. 12). As Otto and San Isidro (2019) acknowledge, this curricular integration or interdisciplinary approach challenges our conceptualization of content and language teachers' roles. In their view, successful collaboration will take place on condition that their roles are clearly defined. In short, it implies a holistic view of the subjects (San Isidro, 2018).

2.5.3. Advising on and dealing with specific language issues

Thorough planning does not guarantee that everything goes as expected. Thus, there will be other occasions in which particular language problems may appear, even if the content and language teachers have identified the language objectives in the first stage. According to

Bertaux et al. (2010) analysing linguistic needs and uses which should be corrected is one of the many competences attributed to an efficient CLIL teacher. For instance, a content teacher could notice recurrent language errors among their students. In these cases, the content teacher is expected to identify the problem and resort to the language teacher (Coonan, 2012), who can help design a plan to address the problem and prevent it from holding content acquisition back. That is, attention to specific language errors should be paid in the EFL subject (Pavón & Méndez, 2017). Among the actions which can be taken in these situations are the revision of the specific linguistic issue in an explicit way in the EFL lessons or the establishment of correction and modelling techniques in the CLIL classroom. This enables the language specialist to track the evolution of the specific difficulty.

It could also happen that it is the content teacher who needs to consult EFL teachers in clarification of any linguistic concept, which was made a standardised role in the case of Malaysia (Tan, 2011). Another way of monitoring the CLIL teacher is by observing, correcting and giving them feedback in terms of their linguistic performance and awareness (Dale & Tanner, 2012).

2.5.4. Adapting the English subject to the new scenario

The effects of an integrated approach and the formal collaborative practices mentioned throughout this section results in the redefinition of the scope of the EFL subject itself, the transformation of its curriculum and of the role of the English teacher. Hence, a reshaping of the EFL subject has also been proposed so as to fully adjust to the language demands arising in CLIL contexts. Some authorised voices' indications go in that direction. For instance, Halbach (2014) points out that in order to maximise the outcomes of this educational approach, the scope of integration cannot be limited to content lessons and argues for more synergy between both disciplines, having EFL instruction emphasise the development of communication and learning strategies. It must be noted that the claims for a reshaping of language curricula in immersion contexts are not new. Snow et al. (1989) were already advocates for curricular organisation according to the content and communicative linguistic needs proper to these settings, leaving behind grammar-based curricula structured in terms of the complexity progression of the grammatical structures.

Focusing solely on the EFL curriculum, now that the focus is on fostering CALP and not only BICS, the EFL curriculum and its syllabus development is to be transformed as well (Pavón, 2014). Having that in mind, the adoption of a textual approach in EFL has been

suggested in the literature (Bovellan, 2014; Coyle & Meyer, 2021; Halbach, 2022; Lorenzo & Moore, 2010), which entails working at a textual level instead of focusing solely on isolated grammar and at a sentence level. This approach will be further explored in the last of the theoretical frameworks which this dissertation draws on, as this is the new role of EFL teachers which this study intends to focus on in detail.

Such pedagogical shift has been institutionalised in countries like Malaysia, where the EFL subject turned into an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) area in upper-secondary education: ‘English for Maths and Science’ (Tan, 2011)¹⁶. Although a general focus was maintained in the case of grammar, teachers also worked with reading strategies, identification of key functions (e.g. definitions) or the transformation of texts into charts (Tan, 2011).

Back in Europe, Leaton-Gray et al. (2018) claim that language teachers must assume their responsibility for language learning in Secondary CLIL and argue the following:

They (language classes) could further incorporate meaningful activities that require the use of core academic functions common to many content subjects such as: analysing, classifying, comparing, contrasting, explaining causes and consequences, evaluating, hypothesising, inquiring collaboratively, justifying, persuading, separating fact from opinion, solving problems, synthesising and verifying. (2018, p. 61-62)

In Italy, Coonan (2012) sees EFL as an integral part of CLIL and argues that the FL curriculum should incorporate the CLIL language learning demands. She examines the different scenarios in which the EFL curriculum could be made part of CLIL: propaedeutic scenarios, in which the language teacher would prepare learners for CLIL before it starts by including language forms such as structures or genres or by introducing content modules; and concurrent scenarios, in which EFL instruction can be used as scaffolding for those language problems detected in CLIL parallel lessons, as mentioned in 2.5.3. Both scenarios contemplate the introduction of CLIL modules within the EFL subject as a means of getting students familiar with the content-specific literacies and as a way of extending CLIL in the latter (Coonan, 2012, p. 120-121). To make these claims, she draws on Beacco’s (2009) and Mohan’s (1986) models of content-language integration, which would have a significant effect on the FL curriculum:

¹⁶ This practice was later abandoned.

The choices made for inclusion into the foreign language programme have an obvious impact at various levels of the curriculum which, in some cases, might lead to a considerable transformation of the curriculum itself in terms of objectives, content, and methodology. (Coonan, 2012, p.123)

As far as objectives are concerned, the curriculum would be rather dynamic, as teachers would have to incorporate those language needs emerging during the school year in the curriculum of the following academic year (in the concurrent scenario). Regarding content, Coonan suggests carrying out tasks which include discourse types, e.g. discuss the causes and effects of something (p.124).

If it is content that is introduced in the EFL subject, and understood as subject-specific content, this choice may not be a mere excuse for language practice. Not being a pretext is the only way by which language can truly serve to explore content (Cammarata et al.; 2016, p.11). In this regard, the uniqueness of FL enables the development of critical thinking and intercultural awareness, essential skills for 21st century citizens, who must compete in a global market and from which the ability to be interculturally and linguistically competent will be required. This, together with inquiry-based learning (see 2.2.3.) will also benefit literacy development. For these reasons, Cammarata et al. (ibid.) claim that future language programmes should be designed around topics “deeply connected to authentic life concerns and impact students’ lives and those of others, such as themes linked to social justice, eco-justice, ethics, rights, and power” (p. 10). Osborn (2006) used social justice-related content, arguing that it offers significant ground for FL learning because these topics can integrate traditional language course components such as grammar or vocabulary. A similar approach is adopted by Kubota (2012), in this case using contested issues in History.

Nonetheless, Cumming and Lyster (2016) report the obstacles found when language teachers are afraid or lack enough content knowledge (see p.79, 88). Leaton-Gray et al. (2018) recommend, therefore, that such teachers must be at ease with the kind of content and topics which they incorporate (p.63). In these scholars’ view, the scope of research has left the language-driven side of Met’s continuum (1989) with many questions yet to be answered.

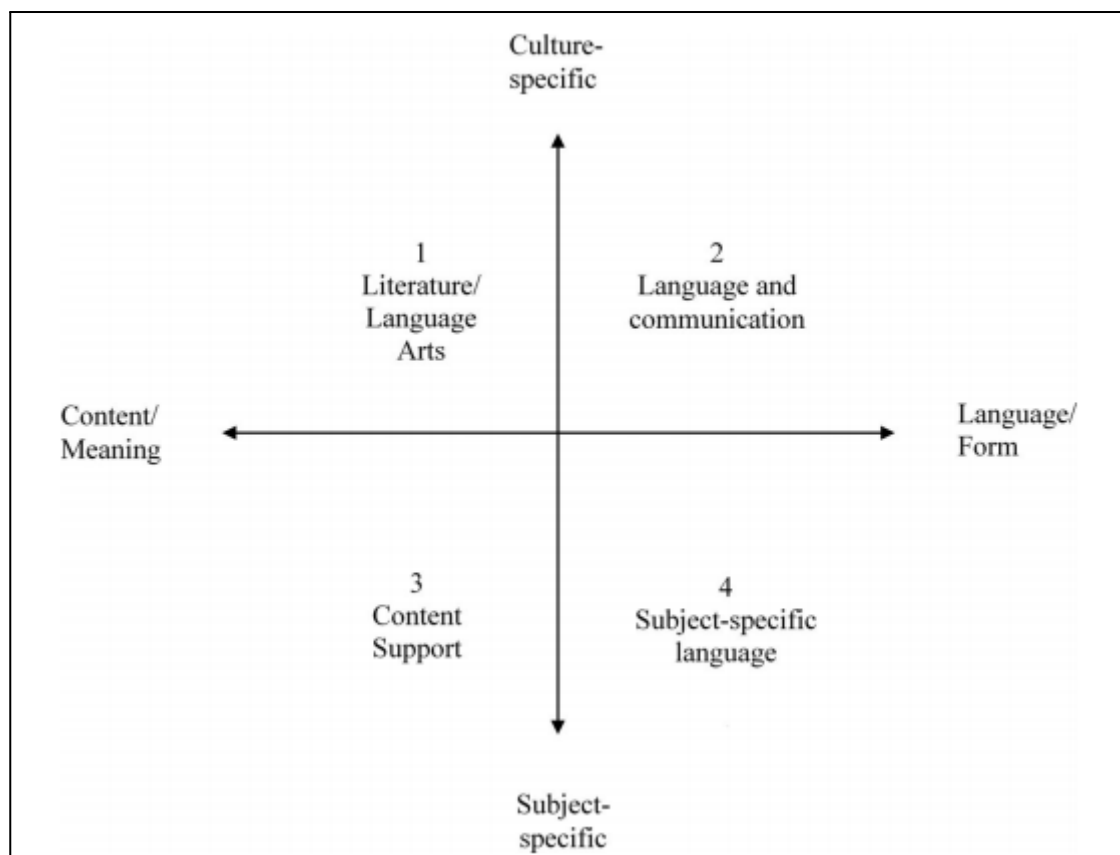
Other models have even suggested that EFL teachers stop using textbooks in order to focus on the specific language their students need in these educational contexts (Dale and Tanner, 2012). The goal for these proposals is to help learners understand and use the language of their content subjects (Tanner & Dale, 2015). To do so, the role of the EFL

teacher is to design content-based language activities to work on linking words and sequencers to structure texts, language to interpret and explain visuals (e.g. graphs). Interestingly, these authors claim that these content-based language activities could be used both in the linguistic and non-linguistic subjects, which reinforces the idea of a merged curriculum suggested by Coonan (2012).

More recently, and after analysing the existing literature on the roles of language teachers (whether FL, SL and also L1), Dale et al (2017) have developed a framework for language teaching in bilingual education according to the language focus, content focus, pedagogical choices and collaborative choices of language teachers in bilingual programmes:

Figure 4

A framework for language teaching in bilingual education



Note: Retrieved from Dale, L. Oostdam, R. & Verspoor, M. (2017): “Searching for identity and focus: towards an analytical framework for language teachers in bilingual education” (p.377), by L. Dale; R. Oostdam & M. Verspoor, 2017, International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism.

The authors propose this framework as a point of departure to describe FL teachers' roles. Each quadrant relates to specific choices of focus. The vertical continuum represents the type of language, ranging from the culture-specific discourse community (BICS) to subject-specific (CALP). The horizontal continuum represents the type of content in language lessons, ranging from more meaning-driven to explicit focus of form. More interesting for teacher roles, the resulting quadrants show the specific orientation language teachers can choose: 1) focus on content such as Literature or Arts in a message-driven approach, 2) focus on language and communication, 3) use of the content subjects to endorse a meaning-drive approach, and 4) introduction of subject-specific language in FL to focus on form.

Quadrant 2 corresponds to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) understanding of language teaching, which is the model expected to be found in most contexts. Quadrant 1 would be the equivalent of Soft CLIL approaches or Content-Based language teaching, using literature or culture as an excuse for implicit language teaching. Quadrants 3 and 4 would comprise the most recent proposals for Foreign Language Teaching in CLIL and other immersion contexts. Whereas quadrant 3 would merely be a reproduction of what is going on in non-linguistic subjects, quadrant 4 would fill the linguistic gap with explicit language teaching focused on the specific needs in these contexts.

Despite these efforts, there is not much research on the impact of all this shift of paradigm on the language teachers. Some studies have been conducted to examine whether these proposals found in the literature and reviewed throughout this section have been enacted in CLIL contexts in the last years. For instance, some research has been carried out in the Andalusian¹⁷ and Galician¹⁸ contexts. In a study conducted by Pavón and Méndez (2017) in Andalucía in which the perceptions of content and language teachers were examined, they concluded that the overall teaching methodology has evolved because of CLIL. The participants agreed that the benefits of coordination are beyond question although its feasibility has its problems due to time and stress constraints. These results were in the line of other studies conducted in various contexts (Davison, 2006; Graaf et al., 2012; Lo, 2020), which corroborate that time constraints and workload are common obstacles hindering more teacher collaboration. All in all, these Andalusian participants claimed for a clear and structured identification of teacher roles, also in line with Lo's finding (2020) where the lack of school policy and initiative concerning coordination was cited as the second major hindrance. Finally, research carried out in the Basque Country has led to having new EFL

¹⁷ See Méndez and Pavón (2012), Pavón et al. (2014), Pavón and Méndez (2017).

¹⁸ See San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2019, 2020).

textbooks edited. As a result, Ball (2020) claims for Content Enhanced Language Teaching (CELT), an approach in which the language teacher becomes more content-aware and focuses more on academic discourse.

2.6. Language Awareness at a whole-school level: Other types of teacher collaboration

The previous section has reviewed the proposals put forward by the literature in order to reshape the role of FL teachers and make it more purposeful for CLIL contexts. But teacher coordination and collaboration does not only concern the tandem content and language teachers. As a matter of fact, the establishment of various levels of teacher collaboration have been claimed to enhance the quality of CLIL (Frigols, 2012; Morton, 2013).

Pavón (2014) establishes three channels of collaboration: content-language teacher, content-content teacher and language-language teacher. The first network is highly recommended when there are no wide boundaries between teacher and learner competence in the TL. First of all, language teachers are encouraged to open their subjects to a more communicative methodology (also see Pavón & Ellison, 2013, p. 74) which highlights meaning but pays attention to form as well in order to provide students with the necessary tools for their content lessons (Pavón, 2014, p. 119). This way, a sense of homogeneity is stimulated. In line with the recommendations listed in 2.5.1., this scholar also supports the encompassing of language objectives (including CALP), which necessarily involves content and language teachers designing their syllabi jointly (also see Pavón et al. 2014). Secondly, at the level of content-content teacher collaboration, Pavón suggests a thematic cohesion when possible, which means that content teachers should identify common content and objectives. Coyle (2007) also agrees that establishing connections between concepts learnt in different content subjects helps students better assimilate information. Pavón (2014) also advises to collaborate in pursuit of a shared methodology to develop critical thinking skills, to apply a task-based approach or scaffolding techniques, just to name a few aspects. He also recommends the use of common pedagogical approaches; for instance, assessment strategies or techniques to deal with materials. In his view, “the application of common methodological strategies by the content teachers is certainly relevant because students need to perceive that there is a shared pedagogy” (2014, p.121). The last level encompasses the collaboration of language teachers, including L1 and other FL teachers. In the last years, the role of the L1 in

CLIL has shifted from being completely banned to be regarded as an enriching tool which supports the acquisition of an L2 (Dobson et al, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2013; Méndez & Pavón, 2012; Relaño, 2014) inasmuch it contributes to develop of linguistic skills and to establish connections among languages. This notion also embraces any other FL in the curriculum. Therefore, the ideal scenario would be the coordinated work of different language teachers to foster common uses of language, linguistic strategies, functions or textual genres (Pavón, 2014, p. 122).

Another level of collaboration concerns the language assistants, who have become an invaluable human resource because of the opportunity they offer to improve linguistic support in terms of quantity and quality of input (Pavón & García, 2012), among other benefits such as intercultural understanding. However, their presence has not been maximised yet, as more collaborative practices between content teachers and language assistants are still missing (Dafouz and Hibler, 2013; Hibler, 2010).

In order to establish such a complex network of collaboration, the figure of a coordinator is paramount (Pavón, 2014). This position is normally occupied by an English teacher and some of the main responsibilities taken on by the bilingual coordinator comprise conducting coordination meetings, establishing teacher functions (both content and language teachers), advising in terms of homogeneous methodology and evaluation criteria, helping to find common language objectives or coordinating the work of language assistants (see Pavón; 2014, p.117-118).

Not only do these practices imply a big effort on the part of teachers, but also external support (Pavón & Méndez, 2017) from the management team (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017), who are expected to adopt all the necessary measures to facilitate these collaborative actions. In fact, teacher coordination is just one of the multiple challenges and complexities that bilingual education entails for school management (Ortega & Hughes, 2017). It is the stakeholders' responsibility to mould, foster and support partnerships and support them (Davison, 2006), for which a whole-school policy and structural support should be developed (Snow et al., 1989). Otherwise, there will not be any incentive for content and language teachers (Lo, 2020). Concerning meetings, Julián and Fonseca (2017) have found that teachers report the need for more formal meetings, while they acknowledge that informal gatherings take place only to analyse individual necessities with the coordinator figure. This shows that these mechanisms imply a great deal of time and effort. The desired scenario is still far from being attained (Skinnari & Bovellan, 2016), and from an institutional point of view, separated teacher roles and management rigidity are still found. Curricular pressures,

insufficient time and resources, as well as the need for formal processes and a well-established organisation are among the factors hindering teacher coordination (Dale et al. 2017). As will be further explored in the next chapter, other power, hierarchy and status issues could be behind this. In Pérez Cañado's view (2018), collaborative practices are gradually gaining presence, partially caused by the establishment of project-based initiatives, but the amount of extra time (far beyond the official schedule) becomes a demotivating factor for teachers. For these reasons, this author even lists *interpersonal and collaborative competence* as a challenge for teacher education.

It must be highlighted, however, that the lack of teacher collaboration is not a problem exclusive to CLIL settings. According to the last TALIS¹⁹ report (2020), only 24% of the teachers in Spain share materials or take part in some kind of collaboration network, which contrasts with the 40% of the OECD average. This fact seems to suggest that this insufficient cooperation among colleagues is also the norm in mainstream education; thus, bilingual education is not an exception.

In short, although teacher collaboration is seen as advantageous in all kinds of settings, it seems to be particularly beneficial in CLIL. Research has proved that when teachers collaborate, the consciousness of students' needs rises, which results in more adequate curricular choices and a change of pedagogical focus, leading eventually to a positive impact on students' learning and to improving the effectiveness of any multilingual programme (Lo, 2015, 2020). Similarly, teachers can share effective techniques (Pavón & Méndez, 2017) and are able to provide more adequate strategies to enhance learners' meaning-making (San Isidro, 2018).

All the new roles and networks of collaboration described throughout this chapter entail profound transformations. Undoubtedly, the need for FoF and LA to address the language gap are more than enough justification for the new responsibilities of language teachers. However, this redefinition of roles cannot be studied solely from the shift of daily practices in the classroom, but also from the perspective of what it may entail for the agents, the language teachers, in terms of their own perception of their new roles. For that reason, the next chapter will focus on the impact of aspects such as teachers' beliefs or assumptions.

¹⁹ The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey. Carried out in 2018, but published 2020. Available at <http://www.oecd.org/education/talis-2018-results-volume-ii-19cf08df-en.htm>

2.7. Chapter summary

The present chapter has intended to situate where the role of the EFL teacher stands with regard to current CLIL Secondary settings. To that end, the current place of EFL and CLIL have been analysed in sections 2.2 and 2.3., respectively. The existing literature on the issue concludes that EFL teachers need to redefine their role to make it more purposeful for learners taking part in CLIL contexts. Section 2.4. has presented some of the reasons behind the linguistic obstacles found by extensive research, and which affect the effectiveness of integrated programmes. In light of the need for more systematic attention to language in these settings, the models which suggest taking more advantage of the expertise of language teachers have been detailed. But this shift necessarily involves a redefinition of the roles of EFL professionals and the scope of their subject, issues which have been discussed in section 2.5. The extent to which these new roles have been implemented will be the object of analysis in chapter 6.

3. Teacher cognition and its effect on the reshaping of the EFL practitioner roles

3.1. Introduction

The relevance of teacher cognition as a theoretical framework resides in the need to examine aspects such as teacher knowledge or beliefs, especially in educational contexts undergoing some kind of pedagogical and role transformations (Calderhead, 1987). The focus on teacher cognition should not be disregarded when researching new teaching roles, since it can inform teacher choices and should be considered in teacher education and policy making. Moreover, it makes it possible to examine the extent to which stakeholders accept (or not) pedagogical innovations (Hüttner et al., 2013).

Focusing on our CLIL setting, this chapter will explore the impact of CLIL on the reshaping of teacher cognition, particularly on beliefs and identity. As we will examine, the so-called language gap and teachers' vision of their own role and identity are inextricably intertwined, since language awareness is influenced by teachers' views of integration of content and language. Thus, this chapter will first present the elements which define teacher cognition in section 3.2. and the particularities which shape it, paying special attention to language teachers in 3.3. Then, we will look at the CLIL scenario in section 3.4. and the dynamics which it has triggered with regard to teachers' beliefs and visions of their own identity. Finally, the issue of teacher collaboration in CLIL will be discussed, this time from the perspective of power relations and its interplay with teacher beliefs.

3.2. What is teacher cognition?

Put simply, teacher cognition has been defined as “what teachers know, believe, and think” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). A more extended definition includes the “often tacit,

personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic — i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives” (Borg, 2008, p. 35). This second definition seems to assume that what teachers believe and know is not static, but rather, can evolve according to contextual circumstances. The scenario under investigation in this study is immersed in a process of educational transformation, whereby teacher cognition will presumably be evolving over time as well.

Concerning research in the field of teacher cognition, in the early 1970s, teachers' behaviour was still the focus when analysing the relationship between teacher behaviour and pupils' achievement. However, in the late 1960s, a new model had started to develop, which, influenced by cognitive psychologists, put at the centre the impact of teacher cognition on classroom practices and its consequences (Borg, 2008). It was then claimed that what teachers do is influenced by what they think (Clark & Yinger, 1977), which would also embrace planning stages or interactive decision-making processes. Some decades later, this area of research had grown considerably, resulting in some confusion with specific terminology. In any case, the realm teacher cognition comprises various branches and key categories. For instance, the notions of practical knowledge or subject matter knowledge. A key term in this regard is *teacher knowledge*, which encompasses subject-matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners, of educational contexts and of educational ends (Borg, 2008).

One relevant subcategory of teacher cognition is *teacher beliefs*, which have been defined as “statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what ‘should be done’, ‘should be the case’ and ‘is preferable’” (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 244). For Pajares (1992), beliefs are shaped by a wide range of closely related cognitive constructs such as opinions, perceptions, conceptions or implicit, explicit or personal theories (p. 310). Regarding the question of the extent to which beliefs are set or can change over time, Pajares (ibid.) argued that some beliefs are peripheral and bound to shift according to context variability, whereas others are core beliefs, which would offer more resistance to change. Pairing beliefs with Pajares' definition might lead to confusion and blurry boundaries with the notion of teacher knowledge. Irrespective of whether beliefs and knowledge are seen as synonyms or not, they lead to many interesting issues and sub-areas of research. For instance, formal teacher knowledge vs practical teacher

knowledge (what we learn through practice and experience), which makes it necessary to study pre-service and in-service teachers.

Borg (2003) synthesised the four dimensions which shape teacher cognition: schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice and contextual factors (2003, p. 3). Schooling refers to the teachers' own experience while they were pupils. Secondly, their own teacher education and the impact it may have on beliefs and behaviours. Regarding the third dimension, the study of teacher cognition has also demonstrated that what teachers think and believe is not always performed in the classroom. As Borg (2008) explained, these discrepancies are motivated by other environmental factors beyond the teachers' control, which constitute the fourth dimension. Curricula or school pressures, as well as excessive workloads are among those environmental factors, which could, in turn, affect teachers' identity negatively. This disassociation, then, is caused by contextual situations, and triggers a more 'social' understanding of teacher cognition (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

Teacher cognition has also been studied taking into account variables related to each discipline, so there exists what we call subject-specific teacher cognition. The next section will particularly address language teacher cognition.

3.3. Language teacher cognition

3.3.1. Beliefs, assumptions and knowledge: an overview

The specific field of language teacher cognition also encompasses issues of teacher beliefs, identities or assumptions. Woods (1996) focused explicitly on teacher cognition in language teaching. For him, the boundaries among the subfields of teacher cognition were clearer in the past, but they are more and more blurred, also due to the profusion of terms within the "semantic field of knowledge and beliefs" (p.192). To solve this and to show the interrelation of these dimensions, he posited what he called "a spectrum of meaning" (p.195) referred to under the acronym BAK (Beliefs-Assumptions-Knowledge). At one end of the spectrum, *knowledge* would encompass the accepted and demonstrable facts which teachers know. *Assumptions* comprise what we take as a fact, although it has not been proved yet. At the other end of the spectrum, *beliefs* would refer "to an acceptance of a proposition for which there is no conventional knowledge" (p.195). This nomenclature will serve as a framework of reference for the terms used in the analysis of teachers' views in chapter 7. Although the ultimate goal is that learners learn the language, the impact of teachers' own

BAK must by no means be disregarded, as much depends on their own early learning experiences, teacher education, early and current teaching experiences, etc.

Only in the 2000s did language teacher cognition become a research field in itself (Sasajima, 2015), when a vast number of studies about it proliferated. Interestingly enough, these aspects of teacher cognition have recently been regarded as determining factors when exploring teacher quality (Chaves & Guapacha, 2016) or teacher competence (Kunter et al. 2013). This fact serves as an illustration of the risks in taking beliefs or attitudes for granted. Kubanyiova (2014) states that language teachers' practices are shaped by the following elements:

(...) the invisible dimension of their knowledge of language, language pedagogy, context, students and themselves, their prior beliefs about how languages are learned and how they should or should not be taught, and the diverse images and models of teaching that teachers have internalised throughout their careers. (p.74)

According to Freeman (2013), language teachers are not just simply executors of the SLA theories they learn, but they also incorporate their own beliefs about how learners are learnt and taught. Hence the relevance of also exploring teachers' beliefs about how languages are taught and learnt. Some interesting scenarios pertaining to specific issues in language education have also been pointed out, especially when discrepancies between beliefs and practice take place. For instance, in terms of grammar, Borg (2006) argued that teachers are attributed explicit formal instruction, but this fact does not necessarily imply that they believe that the specific type of instruction which they have been trained for will be the most effective for language learning (p.101), but they just enact it because it is expected of them. Another factor behind certain pedagogical decisions could be the teachers' fear of not knowing enough grammar. Interestingly, Borg also discussed how teachers' beliefs are often set and based on the methodological approaches prominent by the time they start teaching, so they may be resistant to change. Literacy constitutes another concern for this author. Although Borg remarked that no consistent theory can be drawn from the existing literature, he highlighted that novice teachers seem to hold more functional approaches whereas more experienced teachers seem to still favour skill-based notions (Johnson, 1992, as cited in Borg, 2008). One of the studies about writing which he reviews (Tsui, 1996, as cited in Borg, 2008) revealed the attitudes towards process-writing of the participant teacher, who rejected it as opposed to product-writing because process-writing is time-consuming, and pupils write fewer compositions (p.158). However, this teacher ended up implementing a less

time-consuming modified process-writing over time, which suggests that beliefs can also evolve. Using this study as an illustration, Borg pointed out that teachers are likely to evolve from initial “general rejection to modified forms of acceptance depending on the extent to which the new practices are seen by teachers to be compatible with their current beliefs and practices” (p.161). This seems to indicate that teachers react to innovation differently, accepting it when it fits and complies with their existent set of beliefs.

In his study on the distinctive features of language teachers, Borg (2006) reported that the participants involved acknowledge that language teaching differs from teaching other disciplines due to the more progressive and dynamic (or at least different) methodology, materials or activities often used in language teaching. However, some of the participants also reported that sometimes prototypical EFL tasks are cognitively undemanding and that EFL is perceived as having lower status when compared to other school subjects.

Although it is not directly connected with the beliefs system, one relevant dimension which is worth mentioning is teacher motivation. The complexity of its construct is not the focus here, but it is relevant to mention that teacher motivation may have a powerful impact on language teachers’ professional development as well as on their vision of their own self-efficacy in relation to how to help students. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), contextual factors can also influence language teacher motivation both at a macro (e.g. society or community) and micro level (the institution). As for the latter, excessive bureaucracy has been found to demotivate teachers, particularly in formal settings (Crookes, 2009). Concerning the evolution from pre-service and novice teachers to in-service and more experienced practitioners, Hiver et al. (2018) posit that the former may feel demotivated when they find out that the institution and its teaching circumstances differ from what they had envisaged; but they also experience higher motivation when they perceive that, over time, pupils are able to communicate in the target language and that they engage in interaction. Interestingly, these scholars also advocate the interrelation between motivation and teacher development.

For all these reasons, it is essential to understand teachers’ motivations, beliefs and identity issues. As Chaves and Guapacha (2016) suggest, teachers’ needs should be identified, also in terms of self-image or interests, so as to devise tailored professional development which can have a tangible impact on practices. This might become even more important in immersion and CLIL contexts, where the transformation of teacher roles have undergone significant transformations.

It has been claimed that ‘teacher identity’ and ‘role’ are not synonyms, since role refers to function while identity encompasses something less transparent, such as commitments or investments (Britzman, 1994, p.29). Thus, teacher identity, and *language teacher identity* (LTI) in particular, is closely interwoven with teacher cognition and can be regarded as the organiser for values, beliefs or knowledge (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020). But identity is not something rigid, it also evolves conditioned by different variables. In fact, It has been defined as *identity work*, formed and modified by teaching practice (Barkhuizen, 2021), or *ongoing* construction shaped by instructional decisions, reflections and experiences in the community of practice (Yazan & Lindahl, 2020). Yazan (2018) proposes a conceptual framework to understand language teachers’ identity. This framework incorporates: (a) teacher learning, (b) teacher cognition, (c) teachers’ participation in communities of practice, (d) contextual factors, (e) teacher biographies, and (f) teacher emotions.

We can see that communities of practice and contextual factors can play a key role in determining teacher’s identity, as it will be discussed in the next section in the case of EFL teachers working in CLIL settings. Interestingly, Yazan and Rudolph (2018) claim that one of the aspects that impact teachers’ identity is precisely their views about language, since non-native language teachers are also language learners, so their own aspirations and frustrations can mould their own self-image. For all these reasons, it is of utmost importance to understand language teachers’ identity.

3.3.2. Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and views about language

One dimension which becomes paramount for the present study is Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), since the language teachers’ views about language and their teaching focus can be ascertained. It is a construct developed by Shulman (1987) which refers to the amalgam of both the knowledge of the content to be taught and the pedagogy to teach it. PCK originally refers to the ways of representing and formulating the subject that makes it comprehensible (Shulman; 1987, as cited in Morton, 2012, p. 103). Loughran et al. (2012) define it as “the knowledge that teachers develop over time, and through experience, about how to teach particular content in particular ways in order to lead to enhanced student understanding” (2012, p.7). Interestingly, they also acknowledge that PCK varies according to context, content and experience (2012, p.7). As Troyan et al. (2017) claim, PCK responses to the teacher’s working place particularities. Thus, PCK is shaped by teachers’ education and experiences.

In the case of language teaching, PCK would refer to the knowledge about language and about language teaching. Thus, the language teacher is somebody who is able to transform that knowledge about teaching into successful pedagogical practices (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). Some specific illustrations could be how language teachers position themselves within certain linguistic, SLA and language teaching traditions, the role of grammar and the most effective ways to teach it (contextualising, implicitly, explicitly, inductively, deductively, etc.).

Adopting Loughran et al. (2012) and Troyan et al.'s (2017) view of the interplay of PCK and contextual factors has inevitable implications and raises interesting questions. What if a teacher's PCK does not respond to the students' learning needs? Then, each learning context should be studied in detail; particularly in the case of English language teaching scenarios (EFL, ESP, ELF, CLIL, etc.) so as to examine whether certain teacher knowledge results in particular pedagogies. For instance, and more relevant to our research, in the context under study here, EFL teachers may hold PCK which may not yet align with CLIL assumed beliefs and practices.

3.3.3. Beliefs about teaching English as a global language

The work of English teachers is also mediated by the particular role of this language, so it is important to ascertain their beliefs in this regard as well. Undoubtedly, the role of English as a global language and the conditions of a growing multilingual era has brought about some transformations in the teaching of English (as described in 2.2.), as well as in practitioners' mindset. English teachers do not solely teach a foreign language, but the linguistic tools which their pupils will need to operate in a globalised world. Given these circumstances, according to Kubanyiova and Crookes (2016), language teachers also adopt a role as moral agents and must acknowledge that ideologies and values are embedded in language teaching. Moreover, these scholars regard language learning as something dynamic which places individuals in a different position in the world, which certainly has some "implications for what teachers need to know about language, language learning and learning" (2016, p.123). In their view, some pragmatic concerns and actions such as error correction, L1 treatment or assessment cannot be separated from teachers' moral dimension. For those reasons, teacher visions of their identity become central for meaningful professional development (Kubanyiova, 2012), since teacher cognition, teacher motivation and teacher development are intertwined (Kubanyiova, 2009). In Schulz's words (2000),

given the current social circumstances and educational trends, language teachers should become more and more knowledgeable about SLA, linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and interdisciplinary connections. In fact, having a shared mindset benchmark in mind, the EU commissioned the “European Profile of Language Teacher Education” (Kelly et al., 2004). Apart from the required knowledge, skills or strategies, some of the profile’s 40 items also try to unify values regarding the importance of learning foreign languages, social values, team-work or lifelong learning. In contrast, Kubanyiova and Feryok, (2015), argue that language teacher cognition has not yet been considered in language education curricula and opt for the term ‘ecology of language teachers inner life’ to reconcile psychological and social traditions and approaches to what teachers know, think and do.

Such a role of English as a global language has fostered the proliferation of various educational settings to cater for different learning needs. A consequence of this can also be tensions when teachers have to identify with their own professional identity. Mohamed et al. (2015) illustrate this with the experience of a school language teacher in Malaysia, who shifts to an engineering ESP context. As many other professionals coming from ESL backgrounds, specific knowledge of engineering and of the language needs and discourse of ESP were not part of their professional background. As these scholars report, the features of his new setting does not allow this teacher to incorporate his beliefs into practices, causing him some dissatisfaction. Moreover, the results of this study suggest that, indeed, this teacher does not regard himself as an ESP teacher. In the author’s words: “teaching in a discipline-specific institutional context not only involved understanding what needs to be taught and how to go about teaching it, but also about the ways in which the educator identified himself and his position within his workplace” (2015, p.97). This is just an illustration in ESP contexts, but it could be easily translated to other scenarios, including CLIL settings. These types of situations can have enormous implications, as they show that the beliefs that we bring in from previous contexts can have certain impact on our current teaching practices if we fail to understand the role of language and the specific needs of our students. To do so effectively, practitioners will probably have to reflect upon and adapt their own beliefs and identity.

3.4. Teacher cognition in CLIL & multilingual education

Recent educational and innovative trends such as the growing role of ICTs in education or performance-based assessment have undoubtedly posed challenges to teachers, which also have an impact on their identity. In this context, multilingual education has rapidly

spread and is regarded as the educational way forward capable of meeting the demands of a globalised and multilingual society. The whole CLIL approach and its pedagogical and methodological principles are immersed in a broader understanding of education nowadays. Cohen's definition of teacher identity encompasses the importance of this fact: "how teachers view themselves as professionals in the context of changing work situations, often driven by changes in education policy" (2010, p. 473). Against this backdrop, it becomes paramount to narrow down the scope of teacher cognition to our specific context under study, being necessary to analyse the interplay of teacher beliefs and pedagogical choices at the onset of CLIL.

Thus, this section will look into the impact of CLIL on teacher cognition, particularly on beliefs and identity. This issue will be examined from the perspective of both content and language teachers, respectively.

3.4.1. CLIL teachers' views

In general terms, CLIL teachers have been reported to hold positive views towards content-based approaches when it comes to the positive outcomes on content and language learning (see McDougald, 2015; Savic, 2010). Other studies conducted in Europe have shown that teachers acknowledge the effectiveness of CLIL (see Infante et al., 2009), and they feel professionally satisfied (Czura et al., 2009). Nonetheless, Arocena et al. (2015) revealed heterogeneous attitudes towards teaching through English in The Basque Country and Friesland, both holding multilingual education, grounded on the concerns that students may face linguistic difficulties. However, these teachers also reported more positive attitudes once they saw the positive outcomes (p.183). Interestingly, while one of the main tenets of multilingualism is that a multilingual speaker should reach a functional level in communicative situations (assuming and accepting some deficiencies), this study also revealed the persistence of *monolingual views*, since many teachers still believe that pupils must attain *native-like* proficiency. Other studies have involved teachers as well as school management, such as the research conducted by Doiz and Lasagabaster (2017). Their participants, who took part in discussion groups, showed no consensus: some of them firmly believed that CLIL should be offered to all the students, while others claim that some learners do not possess enough linguistic competence so as to be taught through a foreign language. In this case, an alternative is offered, consisting in having this lower group of students enrolled in just one not academically demanding subject through English.

Despite their focus on English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), Doiz et al. (2019) report the beliefs of tertiary teachers, who also regard students' heterogeneity and lack of linguistic skills as a challenge. What is of interest for our research is that the participants point at traditional EFL methodology in pre-university courses as a negative factor. In their view, EFL is still too grammar-centred, but for these lecturers, communication and content should prevail over form. Also in Higher Education settings, some studies have examined lecturers' beliefs, which are determined by various domains such as their disciplinary background or their professional concerns (Dafouz et al.; 2016, p.126). Dafouz et al. (2018), who have investigated whether teaching through a foreign language has reshaped their identity, also argue the need to revisit these lecturers' beliefs with the eventual goal of integrating this issue in teacher education programs.

Regarding the teachers' views on content and language integration, Cammarata and Tedick (2012) studied how the attempt to balance content and language is experienced by teachers in immersion contexts. Such enterprise is reported by the authors as a complex and multi-faceted struggle which clearly emerges in Secondary Education (and equivalent levels). Their findings reveal that teachers live it as a "process of awakening, a pedagogical journey" (2012, p.257) encompassing five different constituents: identity transformation, external challenges (e.g. time constraints), sense of isolation, awareness of the content-language interconnection and difficulty recognising what language to focus on (p.257-262). Aligning with the language gap issue and CLIL teachers' prioritisation of content stated in 2.4.5., these scholars detail how teachers still regard themselves as content teachers and see language as something additional which could 'steal' time devoted to content instruction. They go on to advocate greater support, teacher education or mentoring programmes towards an understanding of the figure of immersion teachers for whom content and language are "two sides of the same coin, one not being able to function without the other" (2012, p. 258). Hence, Cammarata and Tedick claim certain transformations of the belief systems are necessary to ensure an effective implementation.

In the European CLIL scenario, Morton (2012) offers a conceptual framework to describe CLIL teachers' knowledge, thinking and teaching practices in terms of the roles of language. What ought to be highlighted is that he regards language awareness as part of teacher cognition. Following Hoare (2003), he argues that the more aware of language teachers are, the more competent in guiding learners to make appropriate meaning in the specific discipline.

The extent to which the view of integration affects choices, responsibilities and roles has also been explored (Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016). The fact that content teachers still see themselves as mainly content teachers is reaffirmed in their findings, although teachers' beliefs concerning the role of language are varied. Many of them think that language is acquired naturally in their lessons and only a small percentage of the interviewed teachers find subject-specific language as something which goes beyond technical vocabulary.

Finally, it must be noted that, as Lin (2016) argues, although PCK has traditionally addressed issues of content and language integration, research on CLIL teachers' identity transformation in terms of PCK is still very limited and not until recently has it begun to receive attention. For instance, San Isidro (2019) argues that research on views, attitudes and perceptions should also expand to aspects such as methodology, the L1 or the learning situation itself. Some scholars have gone one step further and have recently focused on how CLIL teachers experience all these transformations of identity and roles from a psychological point of view. For instance, Talbot and Gruber (2021) list aspects such as the heavier workload, or the lack of planning time and materials as new responsibilities which add more pressure. In fact, these factors, they claim, jeopardise the well-being of Secondary CLIL teachers (Talbot et al., 2021).

3.4.2. The impact of CLIL on EFL teachers' views and identity transformation

The interplay between CLIL implementation and teachers' beliefs and perspectives of integration and desired practices has been primarily studied from the perspective of content teachers for obvious reasons. Embracing the transition to CLIL has substantial impact on the identity of practitioners (Jin et al., 2021), taking them out of their comfort zones (Gierlinger, 2021).

However, language teachers appear to have been disregarded, also in this concern. Only a few and recent studies have approached the experiences and perceptions of the language experts. Focusing on language teachers within CLIL settings, we could highlight the study conducted by Hüttner et al. (2013) regarding content and language teachers' (as well as students') beliefs about CLIL in Austria. Both groups of teachers agree that CLIL is not a replacement for EFL, but a **complement**. Interestingly, CLIL teachers associated the role of English with ESP or ELF franca models whereas EFL teachers viewed the role of English as a native-like speaker model. This perspective does not align with the tenets associated with

the language aims of CLIL. According to Cenoz and Gorter (2020), this traditional monolingual view is obsolete, and language teaching ideologies are moving towards the ideal of a multilingual speaker, whose aim is not to achieve nativeness, but a multilingual competence, in which speakers make use of their multilingual repertoire according to the social context. These scholars (ibid.) also highlight that, under the umbrella of these multilingual ideologies, non-native speakers are no longer seen as deficient speakers.

One dimension affected by teacher profile in multilingual contexts is **error correction**, in particular corrective feedback. We already know that this area is tackled differently by content and language teachers (see 2.4.); but, what does it tell us about teachers' beliefs? According to Milla (2017), EFL teachers are more prone to corrective feedback practices and believe in the importance of accuracy. It has been found that, although EFL teachers' beliefs towards corrective feedback are neutral, their classroom practice indicates a higher number of corrections, as opposed to the case of content teachers (Milla & García Mayo, 2021).

Concerning the **teachers' responsibilities** in CLIL contexts, there seems to be an identity struggle because the pupils' learning of the language is now controlled by content teachers, which leads them to feel neglected (Pavón & Ellison, 2013; Halbach, 2014). *Teaching English* is no longer exclusive to their role and responsibility, which impacts their views on their professional self. The work of Dale et al. (2017), confirms this identity struggle resulting from the new scenario, in which teachers are reported to be unsure about what to teach. Drawing on the existing literature, they argue that language teachers' orientations, collaborative practices or pedagogical decisions may be influenced by their cultural and disciplinary identities. As an illustration, Dale et al. explain how a language teacher more familiar with SFL will tend to emphasise textual genres rather than teaching grammar in isolation. Thus, they conclude that “we cannot assume that all LTs²⁰ in bilingual contexts share the same disciplinary and cultural identity or that all LTs will choose a similar language or content focus” (2017, p.11).

Using their framework for language teaching (see figure 4 in the previous chapter), Dale et al. (2018a) have also investigated the position of English teachers in CLIL settings in The Netherlands with regard to what the ideal English teacher is expected to do in those contexts. It must be noted that English teachers have certain autonomy to make decisions about what to teach and that team-teaching practices are more likely to take place. Such

²⁰ Language teachers.

autonomy is perceived as an encouraging value (Dale, 2020). The participating teachers noted the following areas as part of their ideal role: teaching culture and literature, teaching general as well as academic language, teaching transferable language skills, using a wider variety of materials and strategies, coaching (supportively) the content teacher, contributing to assessment, giving feedback or designing rubrics (Dale et al., 2018a, p.187). Many of these participants adhere to communicative language teaching, which coexists with a clear transformation of the teachers' perceptions of their own role, aligning with the recommended responsibilities explored in the previous chapter. Moreover, these researchers also found that these English teachers were willing to teach subject-specific language, but they were not so enthusiastic about content, which may be due to their prevailing discipline identity (language teaching). This tendency was confirmed when contrasting this investigation with a larger online survey, by which the authors (2018b) restated the relevance of the discipline identity, owing to the fact that many of those teachers had been educated in the predominance of Communicative Language Teaching. That is, even though some transformations have taken place, they still regard themselves as foreign language teachers first.

In contrast, other studies have focused on the possibilities to **readapt teachers' beliefs**. After an experimental study in Japan, Sasajima (2013) showed the potential which CLIL has to also impact teachers' mindset. It must be noted that the CLIL context of this research was different from the European one, the English teacher being in charge of CLIL modules as well; yet through workshops, colleague observation, team-teaching or reflective feedback, teacher cognition evolved in most cases and enhanced new and different skills, activities, materials or methodological approaches. This author advocates in-service teacher education in the form of collaborative and reflective supervision (CRS) as part of the professional development of EFL teachers (see Sasajima, 2015, for an illustration of innovation in EFL).

A remarkable possibility through which EFL teachers' beliefs can evolve is by means of **teacher professional development**, whose potential has been advocated by Banegas (2019). Although his work addresses mainly Latin America contexts, where CLIL is mostly language-driven and implemented by language teachers, the implications on teachers' identity are considerable. Banegas has investigated beliefs through Teacher Professional Development courses, particularly a four-month period of workshops, seminars, planning and teaching. In this case, out of the 25 participants in Argentina, Banegas presents the case of a female English teacher who views authenticity and opportunities for interdisciplinarity as CLIL's main outcomes. In line with CLIL principles, this participant thinks that authenticity

(of language practice, tasks or materials) motivates pupils in contrast to other artificial views of language, mainly because of the authentic way in which language is presented and revised. As far as identity is concerned, she found a new role for her: material developer. This teacher is already motivated and finds in the professional development experience an opportunity to grow, to feel empowered and to develop agency. Banegas concludes that supported by these types of training, practitioners eventually develop reflective practices. Another important remark could be added: this example helps us understand the necessity to gain insights into teacher cognition during the implementation stages of CLIL (or any other educational approach). With special focus on materials, Banegas et al. (2020) have investigated the views of EFL teachers at university level during another professional development course in Colombia, which comprised workshops and group discussions. Certain beliefs are shared with the teacher in Banegas (2019) with regard to authenticity, motivation and professional development. These practitioners have a newfound belief that developing CLIL materials has helped them gain agency and recognise that they now reflect more about their own views. Thus, Banegas et al. (2020) conclude that teachers' disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge has evolved.

All in all, making sense of their perceptions should also involve the awareness and acceptance that, as human beings, teachers might hold “changeably and possibly contradictory” views (Hüttner et al.; 2013, p.270).

3.4.3. Collaboration and power relations between content and EFL teachers

The previous chapter has already addressed the centrality of teacher collaboration for the transformation of teachers' roles as well as its positive effects on CLIL implementation and learning. However, it may be necessary to look at the impact of collaboration on (perceived) power imbalances. In the end, agency is conditioned by the interplay between the individual (the teacher) and the environment, which must be also examined from dimensions such as authority, power and (im)balanced relations (Namgung et al., 2020). This section will first examine what the literature has said about the perception and value of collaboration for content and language teachers, to focus later on the power relations taking place when collaboration is enhanced.

Tan (2011) depicted the Malaysian context, in which English teaching was transformed into an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) approach in upper-secondary

schools²¹: English for Maths and Science. In trying to examine teachers' beliefs about the role of language in content learning and to explore how language teachers viewed their supportive role, this study showed interesting and somewhat contradictory results. On the one hand, language teachers showed willingness to take on a collaborative role (what they call "buddy system"), and they already acted as a resource person in charge of various activities such as supervising materials, coaching workshops or clarifying linguistic doubts. On the other hand, the integrative perspective on content and language in this academic setting did not seem to be fulfilled. The author gave the example of how sequencers (Firstly, Secondly, etc.) were explained by means of a recipe and not any other content-subject related text. This could show how beliefs do not always translate into action. In this regard, the study also reported on other pressures (e.g. curricular or time constraints) having significant impact on language lessons. Hence the author's remark that "in the absence of formal training on integrating content and language teaching, it can be argued that teacher beliefs become a crucial factor guiding their classroom pedagogical practices" (p. 328).

Lo (2014) contrasted the beliefs of content and L2 teachers in a study involving 261 participants in Hong Kong. She concluded that, even if they show willingness to cooperate (especially language teachers), both profiles hold different beliefs, which could imply potential conflicts. More importantly, Li claimed that these opposing views can have great impact on the implementation of teacher collaboration, which led the author to insist on the need to rethink teacher education as a powerful tool to promote it.

In the Netherlands, Dale (2020) has also explored the views of language teachers in CLIL contexts as regards collaboration; reporting that, apart from lacking the necessary external support in promoting collaborative practices, many teachers still enhance structure-based perspectives of language, contrary to the functional view needed for CLIL. Interestingly, the surveyed teachers were not so much interested in adopting an advisory role as much as in taking part in cross-curricular projects.

Back in Spain, Pavón and Méndez (2017) investigated 27 content teachers' and 17 language teachers' perspectives on collaboration. The participants endorse teacher collaboration in CLIL, which is a given for them, and its benefits for students; but demand institutional support for a clear distribution of roles and suitable conditions. The study concluded that "the identification of teacher' roles in CLIL may be a source of disquiet for some professionals" (p. 243), so they also called for a redefinition of teachers' roles,

²¹ As indicated in the previous chapter, this decision was later reversed.

collaboration being the central axis. As regards the specific tasks of the EFL teacher, the participants agreed that “the language studied in the language classes should support content learning, to either or both anticipate and consolidate vocabulary, linguistic structures and functions” (p.243). While investigating similar issues in EMI contexts, Doiz et al. (2019) report the positive views towards collaboration held by teachers, who believe it would be beneficial, even in team-teaching format. However, the participants also show some concern when it comes to how negatively it could affect their own content in terms of time.

Regarding the power dynamics between content and language teachers, Creese (2002) examined how teachers discursively construct their collaborative practices in an English as an Additional Language (EAL) context in England. There, content and language teachers work collaboratively in the same classrooms; but, as Creese (ibid.) reported, not all the relationships are of partnership teaching, a situation which paves the way for varied power dynamics. In her analysis, in which 12 language teachers and 14 content teachers participated, she found that the role of the language teacher was peripheral when compared to the content teacher, who was regarded as the ‘owner’ of the curriculum. Consequently, the centrality of language was disregarded, which made the author claim a policy redesign. In a later study, Creese (2005) reported that in those cases in which teachers adopted full-partnership, the subject teachers also started to show some ‘language-awareness attitudes’. However, this was not the general tendency, which was more likely to put the EAL teacher in marginalised positions. In the Australian context, Arkoudis (2006) explained that, despite the many years that mainstream and ESL teachers have been collaborating in the development of the curriculum, the language teacher is still regarded to be in a lower hierarchical position. In her words, it is a very demanding task for the ESL teachers because of the interplay of their lower status and the scarce policy and conceptualization of their role, which makes it pivotal to analyse ESL teachers’ professional knowledge in order to understand how they can gain authority (p. 417-418). Arkoudis describes the profiles of the participants as follows:

Victoria (the ESL teacher) [...] viewed support teaching as opportunities for long-term professional development. She wanted to offer Alex (the mainstream teacher) insights into language teaching that he could use to help his ESL learners now and in the future Alex had positioned himself as a science teacher who was eager for any support that would help with his communication in the classroom. For him, language assisted in the communication of the science content. He has also positioned

himself as being aware of the importance of language and the desire to help the ESL students in his classroom. (2006, p.418)

We can see that Victoria and Alex did not appear to be resistant to change, but the opposite. Despite their willingness to collaborate, Arkoudis reported some tensions, misunderstandings and power imbalances in their planning conversations, in which Alex had the ‘moral authority’ to accept or not Victoria’s proposals.

Davison (2006) also investigated issues of power imbalance between ESL and content teachers in the Asia-Pacific region. She described collaboration as problematic and explained that it is normally understood as “simply a case of another pair of hands” (p. 456). Moreover, Davison argued that it is often the case that the ESL subordinates to the content, resulting in imbalances of roles and authority.

In any case, it has been pointed out that some anxiety and resistance on the part of teachers is not unnatural, being some time needed to really develop mutual trustworthiness and truly collaborative relationships (Musanti and Pence, 2010). Even if these three contexts differ from CLIL settings, in which content and language teachers do not share teaching time, the experiences reported by Creese, Arkoudis and Davison are worth being taken into consideration. In the same way that CLIL implementation has been influenced by the extensive research on Canadian immersion, our context can learn from these pioneer experiences with content and language teacher collaboration. Particularly in the case of Davison’s, her study was conducted within teacher professional development programmes, aiming at implementing a collaboration model. Hence a framework to describe collaboration emerged (see p. 467-468), comprising five stages which describe the gradual growth of effectiveness in collaboration: passive resistance, compliance, accommodation, convergence; and, eventually, -creative co-construction. As the author explained, not all the practitioners experience the five stages, nor do they share the exact same point of departure. Yet, two particular aspects can be highlighted from this study: firstly, the conceptualization of collaboration as part of teacher development; in other words, in terms of professional growth; secondly, its immediate impact on the reshaping of teachers’ attitudes towards collaboration.

Meskill and Oliveira (2019) also point at teacher education in the form of professional development as the way forward to overcome these obstacles. They investigate the evolution of the position of Science and ESOL²² teachers through a one-year professional development pairing in New York, in which teachers attended seminars and participated in co-planning,

²² English to Speakers of Other Languages.

implementing and debriefing the recorded lessons. The results show how each teacher's focus diverged initially, but this position shifts over time and, eventually, they converge. For instance, this is evinced by the Science teacher's growing linguistic awareness. Nonetheless, Meskill and Oliveira (Ibid.) acknowledge that this level of success is not guaranteed due to many other factors such as personality. This view is also shared by Pons (2019), who claims that "not all the training has the same impact on CLIL teaching" (p. 282), highlighting the influence of teachers' beliefs. Thus, this scholar argues that the most suitable type of training should combine theory and practice as well as include classroom observation and self-assessment.

To finish this chapter, it must be noted that the notion of beliefs and identity endorsed here is understood from a contextual approach. In other words, it is assumed that beliefs and identity can be shaped according to the professional context and interaction with other members of the community, as Yazan (2018) argues: "their participation shapes their membership and socially situated identity formation because they discursively negotiate, frame, experiment, and craft their identities as they participate in the professional activities and interact with the other community members (p. 34). In the context under study, language teachers bring in their own knowledge, beliefs and identity, but these can also be reshaped by their involvement and participation in CLIL practices. As we endorse Basturkmen's advocacy that teacher development can be determined by teacher's beliefs (2012), which have the ability to promote or to hinder change, it has been argued that teacher education (also in-service education) can have the potential to contribute to the development of teachers' roles and more positive views towards the importance of teacher collaboration. To do so, once again, and with the eventual goal of improving teaching practices, it becomes essential to ascertain their own understanding of their work first (Bovellán, 2014, Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008). In the case of language teachers in CLIL, the point of departure would be to investigate how EFL teachers envisage their own role in CLIL and whether they feel that the pupils' linguistic performance and academic success is their responsibility or not. This is precisely what we will try to discern in chapter 7. Gaining insights into their mindset will help us understand better the potential extent of shifting the focus of EFL teaching towards a model which enhances academic literacies, a space from which content and language teachers can negotiate their roles and whose framework will be addressed in the next chapter.

3.5. Chapter summary

This chapter has addressed the issue of language teacher cognition, especially in CLIL settings. The literature on language teachers' beliefs has been explored, paying special attention to the effect which CLIL has had on the vision of one's teaching role and beliefs about teacher collaboration.

In short, this chapter has intended to show the relevance of teacher cognition in CLIL, following Markee's statement (2001) that for the success of educational innovation, a reconstruction of pedagogical values is necessary. After all, "beliefs can influence pedagogical practices and teachers may accept new approaches and teaching strategies to more or less extent according to their beliefs" (Arocena et al.; 2015, p.169). So far, it has been widely claimed that language teachers must adopt a more active and collaborative role in CLIL, but in order to really exploit its potential, the language teachers' beliefs about CLIL, the role of language, the EFL subject or their own identity must be deeply understood.

“It is not theoretically possible to separate content from language because originally they were never separated. We were always looking for the language but the language was always there”
(Meyer, 2020)

4. Effective content-language integration: the enhancement of disciplinary literacies in CLIL and EFL classrooms

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 2 has depicted the current CLIL scenario in which more principled attention to language was argued for. EFL teachers have been presented as highly resourceful inasmuch they can provide the language expertise which CLIL is lacking and demanding. Various actions which lead to a reshaping of EFL teacher roles in these settings have been described carefully in section 2.5. One of those new responsibilities is to use the EFL classroom as a space from which to develop the subject-specific literacies which learners are expected to command in these settings. For this reason, this chapter will deal with the different models for content-language integration and literacy development which have been put forward for multilingual education settings. Special focus will be given to the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and genre-based pedagogies, whose implementation in the EFL classroom may offer endless possibilities for the development of subject-specific literacies.

In order to fully understand what literacy means in 21st century CLIL settings and to explore how it can be developed, this chapter has been organised as follows. First of all, as CLIL does not have a single theory of language of its own, the following section will present the different conceptual frameworks which have accounted for the role of (academic) language in immersion and CLIL. Then, the recent approaches to the issue of content and language integration will be analysed in section 4.3., taking us into the notion of subject-specific literacies, starting from the assumption that only by mastering disciplinary

literacies will learners be able to navigate the discipline successfully (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). Drawing on SFL, a review of the role of school genres and literacy development in CLIL will be presented in 4.4. Finally, section 4.5. will focus on the implementation of genre-based pedagogies, also in the EFL classroom. Genre-based learning, thus, is the approach chosen for the pedagogical intervention used in this study to explore how it can be implemented by language teachers as a means to support students' development of general academic and subject-specific literacies.

4.2. Approaches to language in CLIL and immersion contexts

First and foremost, it is essential to examine the nature of language in CLIL and other similar approaches in which content is learnt through a foreign language. Thus, the most influential conceptual frameworks for content and language integration will be presented, since they are much needed to understand the most recent approaches in the field.

4.2.1. The BICS-CALP dichotomy

While trying to analyse the language challenges for English Language Learners (ELL) in Canadian schools, Cummins (1979, 1981, 1984) developed a model which distinguishes two types of language proficiency: BICS and CALP, terms which have been introduced in 2.2.2. His model has been of great importance in immersion contexts, and it has gained relevance in recent years on the outset of CLIL.

On the one hand, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refers to language arising in social interaction in everyday life, in which communication is mostly informal and face-to-face. For this reason, it is context-embedded, and interlocutors can resort to non-verbal language and other cues to ensure understanding. On the other hand, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) indicates the formal academic language proper to the school disciplines and which is, in most cases, context-reduced; that is, meaning can only be grasped by means of linguistic cues. Generally, the process of acquisition of these skills is somehow sequential and it takes about two years for a learner to be functionally communicative in BICS but up to seven years to reach proficiency in CALP (Cummins, 2008). Gibbons (1991) described this distinction with more school-related terms: playground language and classroom language. Thus, as Halbach (2012) pointed out: "It seems clear that children acquire BICS first and, building up on this communicative language proficiency, they are able to develop CALP" (p. 2). For that reason, in Pre-Primary and Primary

Education, the efforts are mainly placed on BICS over CALP, but as learners progress in the educational system towards Secondary education, the presence of CALP gradually becomes more relevant. This, however, does not mean that BICS are not present in the classroom. In fact, students need them to interact and to carry out tasks collaboratively. Similarly, it has also been claimed that CALP can be developed through social interaction (Cummins, 2008). For this reason, and in order to also promote BICS in CLIL, the nature of classroom activities plays a fundamental role. When fostering groupwork and interaction, learners are really offered effective opportunities for language learning, both for BICS (interaction between the members of the group about the task, e.g. questions and answers, negotiation, etc.) and CALP (specific disciplinary language and cognitive operations pertinent to the task). As regards EFL lessons, when following communicative approaches, they tend to be inclined towards interpersonal language as the main target.

The BICS-CALP dichotomy is paramount in CLIL and teachers should distinguish both language realms and be able to manage them in the classroom (Ball et al. 2016; Bertaux et al., 2010). On the one hand, by taking into consideration that content determines learning objectives and consequently, the language objectives as well. On the other hand, and paying particular attention to assessment practices, students must be assessed in terms of the language associated with the curricular content (Marzano, 2010). That is, those students who might be better at BICS or non-academic language because they might have had further exposure or learning opportunities outside the classroom must not have leverage in situations in which they resort to their non-academic competence in contexts in which they are expected to make use of CALP. In other words, teachers must be careful with the use of non-academic language in situations in which pupils should be using CALP (Llinares et al., 2012, p. 283). In turn, possessing good interpersonal language skills is not a guarantee of academic success in immersion and CLIL approaches. Hence, the implications of the language gap discussed in chapter 2. The possible relationship between competence in academic language and academic success has been widely argued (see Dalton-Puffer, 2013; Schleppegrell, 2001), as will be discussed later in this chapter. Although the dichotomy BICS-CALP has always been present in integrated settings, there are other models which have targeted the role of language in the school system.

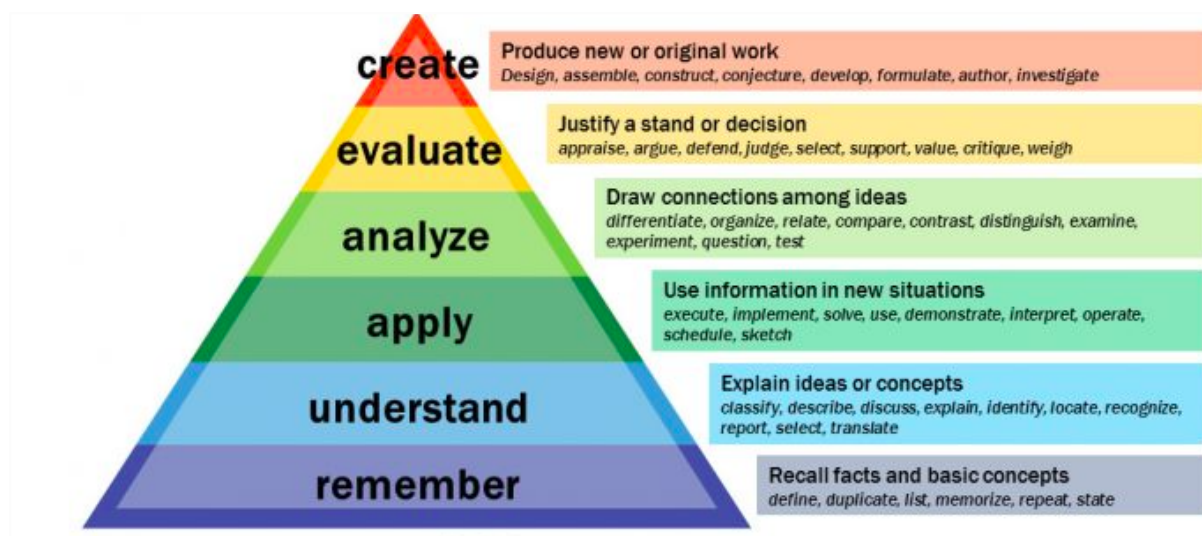
4.2.2. Bloom's Taxonomy

Academic language proficiency and thinking skills are closely interwoven because specific language proficiency is required to deal with activities in which thinking skills are involved. Bloom (1956) and other collaborators developed the Taxonomy of educational objectives, which would be known as *Bloom's taxonomy*, by which educational goals are classified according to the cognitive processes they entail, ranging from the most simple to the most complex and classified in two main dimensions. On the one hand, Lower-Order Thinking Skills (LOTS), which refer to basic thinking skills (remember, understand or apply); on the other hand, Higher-Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), referring to complex thinking skills (analyse, evaluate or create).

Two of Bloom's followers, Anderson and Krathwohl revised the taxonomy some years later, adding the title "A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessment: review of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives" (2001). This revision incorporated the nomenclature of each level of thinking of the taxonomy as verbs instead of nouns:

Figure 5

Bloom's Taxonomy revisited



Note: Retrieved from "Bloom's Taxonomy," by P. Armstrong, Vanderbilt Centre for Teaching, 2017. Available on

<<https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/>>

Since this model helps us categorise the cognitive complexity and thinking skills involved in our activities, the key verbs (see the figure above) associated with each level can make use of questions or guidelines which trigger certain cognitive skills. For instance, “Can you list...?” for “remember, or “What would happen if...?” for “evaluate” (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

As can be seen, this categorisation of thinking skills makes the connection between language and cognition visible. In this regard, the taxonomy serves as a framework which helps teachers address the language required for the classroom tasks and activities. The action verbs which trigger cognitive skills are associated with each level of thinking. For instance, “compare” and “contrast” are two typical cognitive processes belonging to the general category of “analyse”. In order to effectively “compare” and “contrast”, learners are expected to use specific linguistic patterns (e.g. comparatives, X ... while/whereas Y..., etc.). Hence, this taxonomy enables the incorporation of language as an educational goal. Each thinking skill integrates some associated language and that is why teachers should ensure that learners are equipped with the linguistic structures necessary to face the cognitive challenges that the CLIL classroom poses.

However, this model is not unproblematically straightforward and some critiques have been provided throughout the years, drawing on the premise that learning is not sequential. It has been argued that the taxonomy lacks empirical evidence and endorses an erratic vision of learning, which is not something hierarchical (Sockett, 1971).

Interestingly, despite the critiques, Bloom’s taxonomy is gaining momentum in current educational trends beyond immersion approaches. The reason for this seems to lie in the spread of competency-based models and assessment through standards of evaluation. The famous taxonomy facilitates the classification of objectives and competences and allows for a more transparent discrimination of what to assess. Thus, the centrality of the taxonomy in CLIL could be related to the success of such educational practices. In any case, other means are also available to make learners engage more often with HOTS; for instance, through group work in which they have to plan, argue, justify or value something (Llull et al, 2016, p. 56-57). As for the language classroom, a potential curricular reform of FL has been encouraged (see 2.2.3. and 2.5.4.), through which language lessons offer opportunities for learners to engage in activities which foster HOTS and deeper thinking.

Finally, what is of great interest is the intersection between the BICS/CALP model and Bloom’s Taxonomy because it evinces the role played by language in cognition. While the former helps us understand how language works in CBI contexts, the emphasis on

cognition is limited, beyond the mere acknowledgement of the C (cognition) in CALP; it is the latter which develops the framework for the complexity of cognitive operations, completing the link between (academic) language and prototypic academic cognitive operations. Thus, CALP encompasses both thought and language. As Llull et al. (2016) point out, cognitive complexity is intertwined with more elaborated, decontextualised and abstract language, which entails an additional challenge in “bilingual schools” (p. 23).

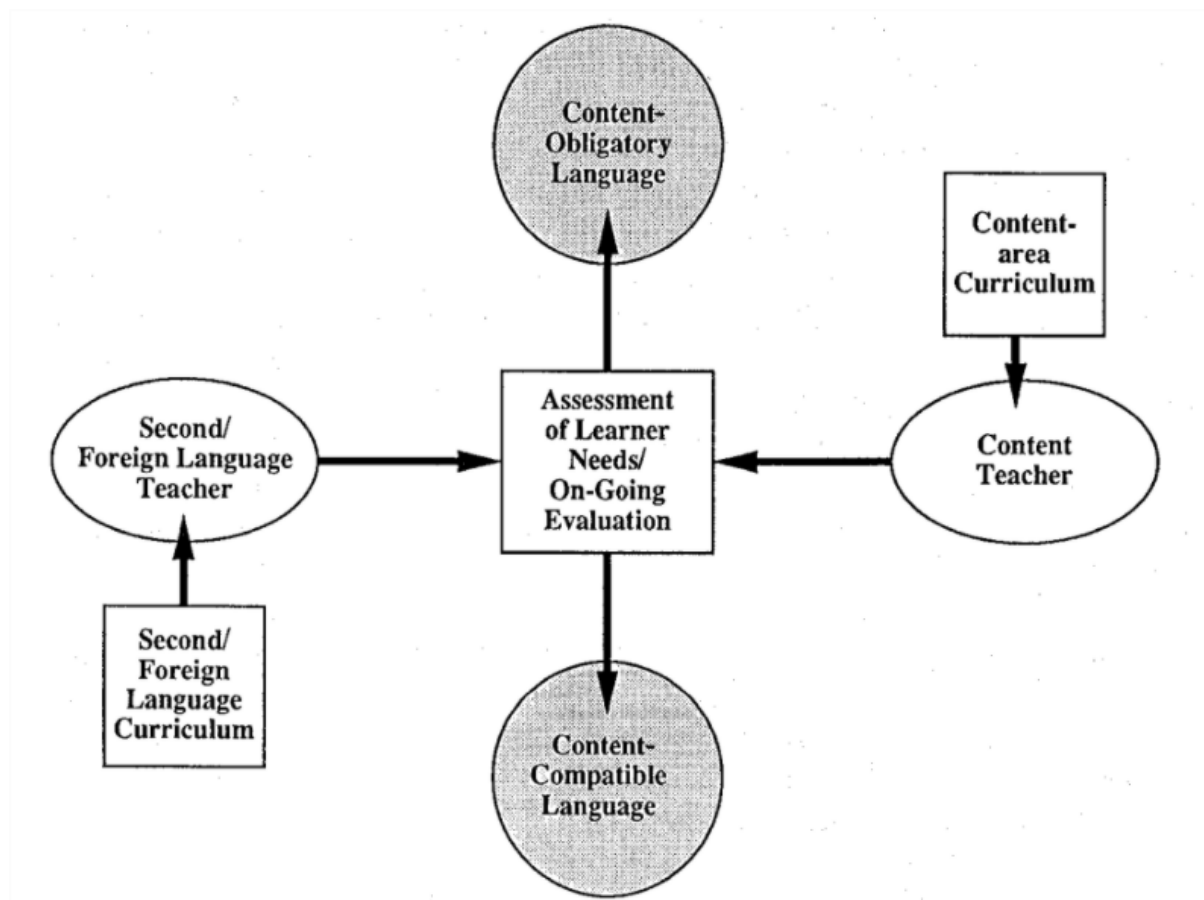
4.2.3. Other conceptual frameworks for language integration

Some scholars specialised in the field of multilingual education have proposed different conceptual frameworks for content and language integration which largely follow Cummins notion of “language to function in school” (2000, p.66).

Snow et al. (1989) put forward a model (see Figure 6) which acknowledges the language structures, skills and functions proper to each school discipline (1989, p. 203) and helps teachers identify language objectives. For them, language objectives in immersion programmes are determined by the curricula of the content areas, the FL curriculum and the communicative and academic needs detected in these settings. Hence, they suggested two types of language objectives: content-obligatory and content-compatible (p.205). The former refers to the language that is necessary to understand and talk about the content, both at structural (e.g. vocabulary) and functional level, which would refer to functions such as request information, persuade, etc. Content-compatible comprises the language skills given by the FL curriculum, which are not necessarily required in the content area (e.g. past simple). According to this model, the content lesson offers invaluable contextualised practice of content-compatible language; while, if any difficulty is detected, teachers can pay specific and explicit attention, as suggested in chapter 2.

Figure 6

Snow's et al. (1989) conceptual framework for integrating language and content instruction



Note: Retrieved from “A Conceptual Framework for the Integration of Language and Content in Second/Foreign Language Programs” (p. 205), by M. A. Snow, M. Met, & F. Genesee, 1989, *TESOL Quarterly*. 23, p. 205

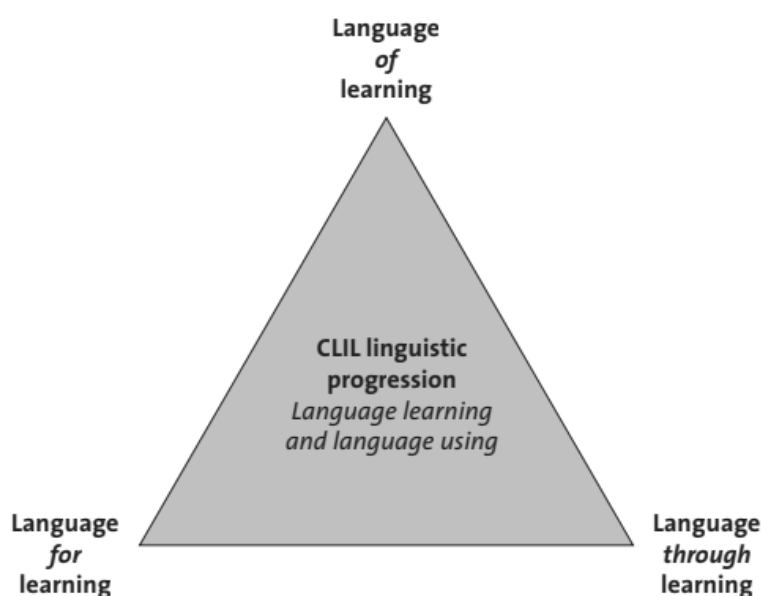
This distinction may remind of the dichotomy CALP-BICS inasmuch content-obligatory language includes the most essential, academic and less transferable language whereas content-compatible language also embraces social and transferable language found in FL instruction (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012).

Although this model of content-obligatory and content-compatible language has been widely used, another framework has prevailed and is predominant in the European scenario when it comes to helping teachers plan and develop their integrated syllabi. It is the well-known 4Cs framework by Coyle (1999, 2005). The 4Cs refer to Content, Cognition, Communication and Culture. The point of departure is Content, referring to the subject-matter, Cognition draws on Bloom’s Taxonomy, and Culture aims at developing

students' intercultural awareness and global citizenship. The C of Communication would correspond to the linguistic dimension. On the one hand, it emphasises the idea that CLIL approaches must create communicative classrooms in which interaction is fostered. On the other hand, and more importantly, this C has developed its own framework for categorising language: the language triptych (Coyle et al, 2010):

Figure 7

The language triptych



Note: Retrieved from *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning* (p.36, p.60), by D. Coyle, P. Hood & D. Marsh, 2010, CUP.

Language of learning would be the one that is subject-specific and obligatory to access the content. Language for learning would refer to the language of school activities which is transferable across subjects and necessary to operate in CLIL communicative classrooms; for instance, language to show agreement or to give reasons. Finally, language through learning would comprise all the unexpected language which may arise during instruction (e.g. doubts, language that the teacher had not planned but spontaneously required during the lessons).

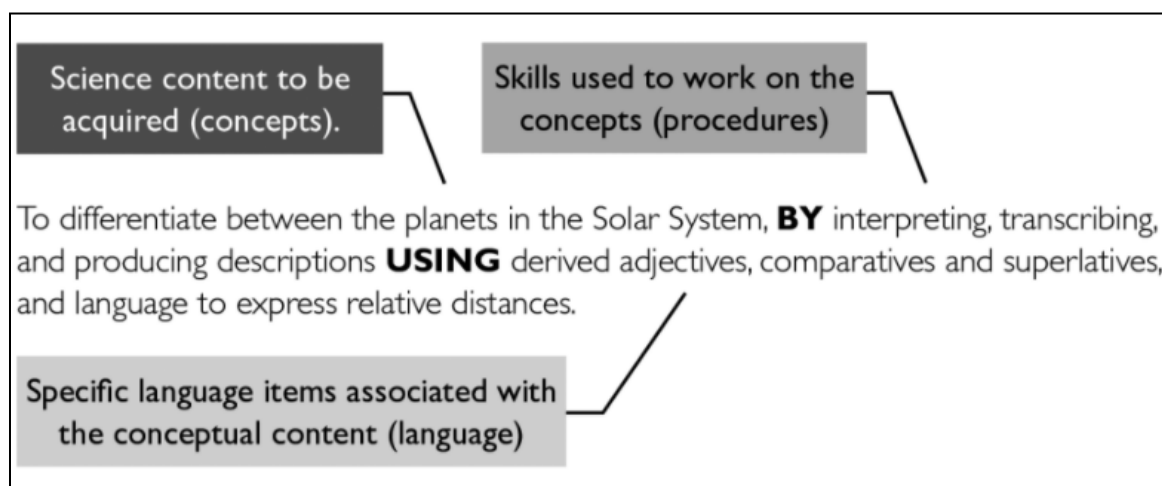
This categorisation of language builds on the content-obligatory and content-compatible distinction and is paired with the notions of language of learning and for learning: the language of each discipline “goes far beyond key items of specialised vocabulary of the subject itself (content-obligatory language) and includes an understanding

of language needed to operate successfully (report writing, carrying out laboratory experiments and so on (content-compatible language)” (Coyle et al., 2010, p.59). However, the definition of content-compatible language in the original text put forward by Snow et al. (1989) seems to generally refer to the traditional foreign language curriculum organised according to grammar progression (p. 206); whereas for Cammarata and Tedick (2012) it is more connected with social language, and in the conceptualization by Coyle et al. (2010), it comprises essential school skills, closer to the “functional” (e.g., study skills such as note taking; language functions such as requesting/giving information, narrating, persuading, etc.) which Snow et al. classified as “content-obligatory” (p. 206). From this, it can be concluded that although there is general consensus on the nature of language demands in integrated contexts, establishing strict categories for its categorization is not an easy task.

One recent framework put forward in the CLIL context is the “three dimensions of content” (Ball et al., 2015) building on the belief that the 4Cs vision of content is slightly reductionist (Ball, 2016, p. 17). According to this model, if our teaching objective, for example, is that our students differentiate two planets, they will not be able to do it without the specific language for comparison (e.g. comparatives and superlatives) because this language emerges naturally from the specific need to differentiate (Ball et al., 2015, p.51). Thus, they conceptualise content as having three (learning) dimensions: concepts, procedures (cognitive skills) and language.

Figure 8

The three dimensions of content



Note: Retrieved from “Using languages to develop subject competences in CLIL-based practice” (p. 21), by P. Ball, *Pulso*, 39.

When contrasting this to Coyle’s (1999) model, concepts here would align with the view of content in the 4Cs framework, whereas procedures would correspond with the cognitive skills. In the application of this framework, although the three dimensions coexist, the teacher can highlight one of them to prioritise it in classroom activities according to the specific teaching objective; or even alternate them in different sequences.

Irrespective of the model, what is of enormous significance here is the evolution towards models which do not divorce content from language, a move which is having major implications for the conceptualization of integration, as the subsequent sections will explore.

4.3. Towards a new understanding of content-language integration

During the first years of its implementation, the dual-nature of CLIL, following the very definition provided by Marsh (1994), was widely claimed. However, the very idea of *balancing* content and language represents them as two separate realities, two individual entities. In the light of the interplay between language and the development of thinking skills presented in 4.2., language has been more and more claimed to be central for cognitive development (Dalton-Puffer, 2016; Gierlinger, 2017a; Meyer et al., 2015) within CLIL research, turning to Vygotskian theories of learning and SFL views of language as social semiotic. This view of integration in which language is central for knowledge construction does not regard content and language as two separate phenomena (Coffin, 2017), but transcends this shift of focus from content or language (Coyle & Myer, 2021). This notion is by no means new, but it has been recently emphasised as a response to the content-language problems detected, resulting in a shift of the understanding of content and language integration.

From the assumption that “cognitive development and language development go hand in hand; language is a tool through which the child comes to understand the world” (Snow et al. 1989, p. 201), it derives that specific academic language is essential for academic success (Dalton-Puffer 2013). Met (2008) stated the interdependence between language, literacy and academic achievement, pointing out that “we need to know language in order to make meaning from the words they decode” (p.49), and although knowledge of vocabulary is

essential in developing literacy, “as student proficiency improves, performance requires the ability to link meanings with forms” (ibid.). Therefore, literacy becomes a learning tool rather than a goal:

They read for information, they store information by writing or keyboarding; they interpret what they read, and report through speaking or writing; they retrieve stored information by reading notes they have made; they display and report their academic learning by writing summaries or reports; they give oral reports based on what they have learned. (Met, 2008, p. 50)

Following Vygotskian (1978) theory that language and thought are interconnected and the notion that literacy is the key to knowledge and the way to express it, reading and writing become central. Taking into account the specific CLIL context, in which pupils are still learning the language they need to interact with knowledge, it seems sensible that they should be offered strategies to cope with this challenge. To illustrate this, let us go back to Snow, Met and Genesee (1989), who also related the low level of productive skills to the lack of supportive practices in the language classroom. Put differently, following a traditional grammar-based curriculum instead of practices set in accordance to the language needs of immersion contexts may be influencing students’ lack of success. Similar scenarios have been reported elsewhere (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008; Walker & Tedick, 2000): insufficient proficiency makes it complicated for students to deal with complex academic content. This is also the nature of the language gap, which is something that clearly happens in Secondary Education and equivalent levels. However, it must be noted that this is not an exclusive problem of integrated programmes, albeit an already existing problem in the learner’s mother tongue as well (Meyer, 2020). The lack of attention to academic language also occurs in mainstream education, where students make use of social language instead of academic language or have problems understanding specific texts because of their insufficient linguistic resources. Learners need explicit guidance to understand and cope with the linguistic specificities of recurrent text types in History and other subjects, also when the language of instruction is the mother tongue (Coyle et al., 2018; Shanahan & Shanahan; 2008). Hence, it could be said that this is a general issue which CLIL has brought to the surface.

In order to address the language problems (not only in foreign language contexts, but also in second language settings where students enrolled in mainstream education do not share the majority language), the EU has elaborated the model Languages for Education (see

Beacco 2009), which explicitly highlights the natural relation content-language. Some specificities of this model will be shown in 4.4.3., when we focus on the language of schooling. According to Coonan (2012), this model can also serve as a guide towards the integration of content and language in EFL lessons. Mohan's "Knowledge Framework for Activities" (1986) had also put language at the centre of knowledge construction, as learners need language to complete activities and the processes involved in them, e.g. explain, compare, hypothesise, and so on.

These claims and responses to the integration issue also draw on sociocultural theory because learners enact specific discursive disciplinary practice embedded in specific social contexts. The view of content and language as integrated by nature highlights the fact that the progression in the learning scale involves mastering disciplinary literacies; that is, the ability to verbalise conceptual knowledge through appropriate genres and registers and to build knowledge through language as a meaning-making tool. In this light, learners are expected to be able to verbalise conceptual knowledge in a suitable style using the pertinent genre for the specific purpose of communication. For that reason, the need for FoF asserted in chapter 2 must be ensured to link form to function. This shift of paradigm in CLIL also assumes that the original concept of CLIL was flawed because language was always part of content. Although well-known planning tools for CLIL teachers tend to separate content and language, Donato (2016) argues this is frequently done to facilitate the teachers' job, and not because they were ever two independent realities (p.29). Thus, "language needs to be reconceptualised as functions and choices that construct disciplinary texts, thinking and concept development" (Donato, 2016, p.45).

In short, the role of language in CLIL is much more than simply the medium of communication, which was highlighted at the outset of CLIL programmes. This was understandable because of its benefits in terms of developing aspects such as the much-needed fluency and communicative competence. But time and research have evinced the pivotal role of language as a vehicle for conceptual development. BICS, classroom language, language for negotiation and interaction, etc. are as necessary as CALP, general academic functions (e.g. describing) or discipline-specific discourse. If language is understood as a learning tool, "systemic functional linguistics and genre pedagogy, as usage-based approaches could offer a way forward in this" (Dale, 2020, p. 158).

Given these premises, we can conclude that a functional theory of language is much needed in CLIL. The application of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) to CLIL will be

specifically discussed in the subsequent sections, which will review the latest applications of functional models in CLIL and the possibilities of genre-based pedagogies.

4.4. A Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach to CLIL and subject-specific literacies

4.4.1. Why SFL?

Against the backdrop of the complex interaction content-language in CLIL, SFL appears to provide a helpful approach to tackle such issue (Pascual, 2017) because it provides what Halliday (1993) called a “language-based theory of learning” (p.93), arguing that acquiring language is a prerequisite and foundation of learning itself. In a strict educational sense, language acts as evidence which allows teachers to assess learning. SFL can offer an answer to the content-language relation since it sees “language, content and learning as inextricably intertwined [...] (and) views language as a social semiotic, that is, a powerful resource for enabling humans to make and develop meaning in both everyday and academic contexts” (Coffin, 2017, p. .91-92). This perspective reinforces the idea that knowledge making takes place through language and individuals’ repertoire is extended by learning subject knowledge. Thus, Educational Linguistics, and CLIL in particular, need to be informed by SFL. Although the reader may be well acquainted with SFL social semiotic theory of meaning-making, let us delve into its significance here. For SFL, language is a system of choices made by interlocutors, according to the immediate context. That is, social interaction and discourse follow different patterns according to their “context of situation” (Halliday, 1978). Those choices are determined by the three elements which constitute register or the context of situation; namely, field (the subject matter), tenor (the relation between interactants and mode (the channel of communication), which construct three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual, respectively.

According to SFL, the language system is supposed to serve some function according to contexts, which situates grammar as functional meaning-making (Halliday & Hassan, 1985). Derewianka (2001) contrasted this view of grammar with some other traditional approaches, concluding that SFL regards grammar as a resource for meaning making in which form and function are interrelated; whereas in traditional grammar, language is just seen as a set of rules in which form is disconnected from function. This has enormous

pedagogical implications pertaining to the role of grammar in language teaching, also in CLIL contexts. When language teachers endorse structuralist approaches focusing specifically on grammar rules and structure at a sentence level, and not so much on function, text and discourse, the consequence will be the inadequate language support which students demand in academic contexts such as CLIL.

To sum up, SFL provides a valuable framework to map learning progress and because of its understanding of language and learning, and which places students as agents who make lexical and grammatical choices according to the context of situation (register) and context of culture (genre). Learners interact with texts which are built and organised according to the social activity, in this case, schooling, and particularly, through a foreign language. Thus, registers and genres will inevitably be shaped by the academic context of schooling. Against this backdrop, the next sections will analyse what academic language is in the light of SFL and will focus on the notion of school genres.

4.4.2. What is academic language?

Given the relevance of the school context in which CLIL occurs, let us explore what academic language is from the perspective of functional approaches. As seen above, the BICS-CALP distinction is questioned because it disregards the role of the specific social context and practices. Thus, if language is part of knowledge and learning, attention must be paid to academic language to guarantee academic success (Zwiers, 2007) and navigation in these contexts, as the following words by Schleppegrell assert:

In school, students are expected to use language to demonstrate what they have learned and what they think in ways that can be shared, evaluated, and further challenged or supported. The texts they read and write present knowledge in ways that are different from the interactional co-construction of meaning in more informal situations. So the patterns of language chosen by students to express and share their understanding are of major importance in presenting themselves as knowers and sharers of knowledge. (Schleppegrell, 2008, p.2)

Academic language is functional for getting things done at school, varying as it is used in different subject areas and for different purposes, but requiring that children use language in new ways to learn and to display knowledge about what they have learned in ways that will be valued. (2012, p. 410)

These quotations encapsulate the essence of what academic language represents; namely, the vehicle to access, deal with, and express knowledge according to the conventions of each area or subject. Schleppregrell (2001) has actually been one of the most relevant contributors to the understanding of the language of schooling, whose features are listed as follows:

- Authoritative stance and impersonal way. We tend to hide the self, our stance (i.e. through passive voice) and emotions (i.e. by means of modal verbs of probability).
- Prevalence of declarative mood.
- Higher lexical density, that is, more presence of content words over function words.
- Nominalizations: verbs, adjectives and adverbs become nouns, resulting in more noun phrases. (NP)
- To express logical relations and linkages, we make use of more conjunctions, and elaborate nominal and verbal expressions (i.e. “is closely associated” to express cause.
- In terms of lexis, it is more technical and abstract, but there are also other non-technical phrases which may be essential in specific fields.

This refers as well to what Snow called “decontextualised language” (1983), which is explicit (more elaborate and precise lexis), distanced (fictionalised author) and complex and highly structured (complex syntax, elaborate cohesion and coherence). Although this decontextualised nature has been rejected, as seen above, these features seem to coincide with Schleppregrell’s 2001 categorization.

Understandably, this language entails some difficulties for learners (in all types of contexts) because the kind of language they use differs from what they employ outside school in everyday conversation. Having the objective of academic success in mind, some initiatives have been undertaken to help learners overcome this obstacle. For instance, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model was created in the US to help minority learners with limited language skills cope with mainstream education successfully by means of acquainting them with different linguistic and learning strategies. Also in the US, Jung and Brown (2016) follow Dutro and Moran (2003) and conceptualise academic language explicitly reconciling function and form. In their view, “function” refers to the purposes for which language is used, such as “describing”, “explaining”, “comparing and contrasting”, or “summarising” whereas “form” comprises the “language tools needed for these different functions” (2016, p. 850). They have also recently tested the Academic Language Planning Organiser (ALPO), a tool to help teachers integrate discourse, syntax or

language support. A third illustration of recent actions which give prominence to academic language is the new scale of academic language proficiency to supplement the CEFR, which lacks sufficient textual focus. The need to revisit the CEFR is based on the assumption that the current scales do not meet the CLIL demands (Jones, 2014) because academic language is scattered across other CEFR scales and tends to appear in the high end of those scales (Shaw, 2020). For instance, a student at B1 (or lower) is able to use simple and descriptive language, although this is clearly insufficient when it comes to analysing or evaluating History material, as they are required to do in CLIL. Thus, it was urgent to introduce the age dimension (the cognitive aspect had not been previously considered) and specific considerations regarding disciplinary discourse (Shaw, 2020) as well. The result, still at its infancy, is the use of academic can do-descriptors for learning outcomes which can act as linguistic and pedagogical support and guide both teachers and students (Shaw, 2020)²³. These new descriptors also intend to meet the EU requirements which have stressed the significance of (academic) literacy in the 21st century (see EU Literacy Report, 2012).

4.4.3. Language of schooling and school genres: the case of History

It must be borne in mind that not all the features of academic language listed above are valid for all the disciplines and associated genres. In order to deal with school activities and learning, learners are expected to do things at school and according to specific genre and registers, to which students have to adapt. For that reason, the particularities of each school genre must be considered. This section presents the main text types which learners have to deal with in Secondary Education, as well as a compilation of the main features of the language of schooling. Since not all the school subjects can be covered in this overview, special consideration will be given to the subject of History just for illustration purposes. Moreover, this school subject is one of the most common CLIL subjects in Secondary Education, there is plenty of research on the discourse of History in CLIL (see Lorenzo, 2017; Lorenzo & Dalton-Puffer, 2016; Lorenzo et al., 2019; Llinares & Morton, 2010; Llinares & Whittaker, 2007,2010) and will be the ultimate focus of the pedagogical intervention carried out in this study.

Macro-genres have been defined as "texts which combine more fundamental elemental genres such as recounts, narratives, explanations, and so on" (Hyland, 2002, p.

²³ Some of these contextual considerations have been taken into account in the new descriptors added to the CEFR (see Council of Europe, 2018)

123). In education, macro or major genres are understood as containers of various discourse functions or *micro-genres* (e.g. explain) and in terms of transversality (Beacco et al. 2010, p. 22); that is, some distinctive features of any given text type (e.g. report) will be present in History or Science reports. Yet some other components will be specific to each discipline. SFL has referred to “knowledge genres” or “elemental genres” to describe the school written genres which are common in educational settings; namely: stories (e.g. narrative), chronicles (e.g. historical accounts), explanations (e.g. consequential explanation), reports (e.g. classifying reports), procedures (e.g. experiments), arguments (e.g. expositions) (Christie, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2008).

Beacco et al. (2010) worked with the language of schooling, defining it as “verbal representations of forms of knowledge and modes of communication deemed appropriate in a community of practice (to explain, justify, discuss, disseminate, etc.), they take on forms that are ritualised to varying degrees depending on the particular field” (p.9). Naturally, the language of schooling in the specific disciplines may resemble the one in scientific communities but do not go as far as they do (Beacco et al., 2010). For our (upper) secondary context, these features are getting closer and closer to the expected proper text, as the progression in academic competence is much higher than in Primary Education. Therefore, at this level, the academic texts which students are exposed to and produce are preparatory for later proper texts, albeit specific for the school school context. Hence, these genres will combine some shared transversal features (i.e. discourse functions such as “explain”) and certain specificities (i.e. lexical codes).

Against this backdrop, Beacco et al. (2015) have compiled the “Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for learning/teaching (end of obligatory education)”, partly due to the Europe’s plurilingual education target of broadening learners’ discourse repertoires in all of their languages. This text makes specific reference to History, Literature, Maths and Sciences. Due to space constraints and the risk that it would broaden the scope of this paper, only the most relevant information about History and Sciences will be provided in table 1, as these are the two most common CLIL subjects in Secondary Education.

Table 1*Discourse types and cognitive operations in History and Science*

HISTORY/SCIENCES		
Discourse types	types already into the learners' repertoires	(textbook, documentary, historical film, tourist leaflets, etc.)
	types present in the learners' social environment	(periodicals: general-interest press, history monthlies; websites, political speeches, etc.)
	types to which a certain form of exposure is sought by history teaching.	i.e. academic discourse types written by specialists for specialists (articles, communications, monographs, theses and the like); educational discourse in the form of history/science textbooks, summaries for school students; the encyclopaedic discourses of dictionaries, encyclopaedias, treatises, etc.;
Cognitive-discursive operations	HISTORY	
	Describe, recount, represent (textual or factual data), matching (data and interpretation), contrasting (data and interpretation), deduce (interpretation, conclusions from data), justify (deductions), define, classify, etc.	
Cognitive-discursive operations	SCIENCES	
	Reporting /recounting (on an experiment), classifying (objects, phenomena, processes), defining (an element, an interaction between substance, a concept like energy), representing (textual or factual data), interpreting (generated or given data), matching and/or contrasting (data and interpretations), deducting (interpretations/conclusions from data), justifying (chosen procedures, deductions, ethical decisions), embedding (an observation/a finding into a larger structure), reflecting or weighing (arguments for and against ...)	

*The linguistic resources to enact them vary according to the different languages, creating transposable repertoires.

Note: Adapted from *The place of the languages of schooling in the curricula*, (p. 42-44; p..113), by J.C. Beacco; D. Coste; H. Linneweber-Lammerskitten; I. Pieper; P. van de Ven & H. Vollmer, H. , 2015, Council of Europe

This document also encompasses social communicative situations in the classroom which are not reported here because it does not fall within our scope. For all the areas, the authors recommend the establishment of thresholds and descriptors of the linguistic features which are necessary to enact the cognitive-discourse operations in each discipline.

For the rest of the section, the language of History will be dissected, for the only reason that this is the discipline chosen for the intervention carried out in this study. For a more comprehensible approach to the features of science and its genres, see Veel (1997) and Vollmer (2007).

The features of the language of History have been extensively examined by Coffin (2006b) and Christie and Derewianka (2010). As the latter point out, the discipline of History itself might be more complex due to the fact that there are normally more voices and perspectives, including the individual evaluation of learners, which constitutes a basic competence in any History curriculum. Coffin (ibid.) and Christie and Derewianka (ibid.) agree that, as learners progress through their school life, they move from mastering simple descriptive genres (childhood) to more complex interpretative texts (adolescence). That is, in the last years of their (Upper) Secondary Education²⁴, the school activities require higher interpretation competence. On this basis, Coffin (ibid.) compiles the progression in the command of History genres in Secondary Education according to the learners' age, cognitive maturity and curriculum demands:

²⁴ The reader must take into consideration that the organisation of educational systems varies across countries; yet the term Upper Secondary Education used in this thesis generally refers to the age 15-16 onwards.

Table 2*Coffin's key History genres*

GENRE FAMILY	GENRE	OVERALL PURPOSE	STRUCTURE (STAGES)
Recording (age 11-13)	Autobiographical recount	to retell events of your own life	Orientation Records of events (Reorientation) ²⁵
	Biographical recount	to retell events of a person's life	Orientation Records of events (Evaluation of person)
	Historical recount	to retell events in the past	Background Record of events (Deduction)
	Historical account	to account for why events happened in a particular sequence	Background Account of events (Deduction)
Explaining (age 14-16)	Factorial explanation	to explain the reasons or factors that contribute to a particular outcome	Outcome Factors Reinforcement of factors
	Consequential explanation	to explain the effects or consequences of a situation	Input Consequences Reinforcement of consequences
Arguing (age 16-18)	Exposition	to put forward a point of view or argument	(Background) Thesis Arguments Reinforcement of thesis
	Discussion	to argue the case for two or more points of view about an issue	(Background) Issue Arguments/Perspective Position
	Challenge	to argue against a view	(Background) Position challenged Arguments Anti-thesis

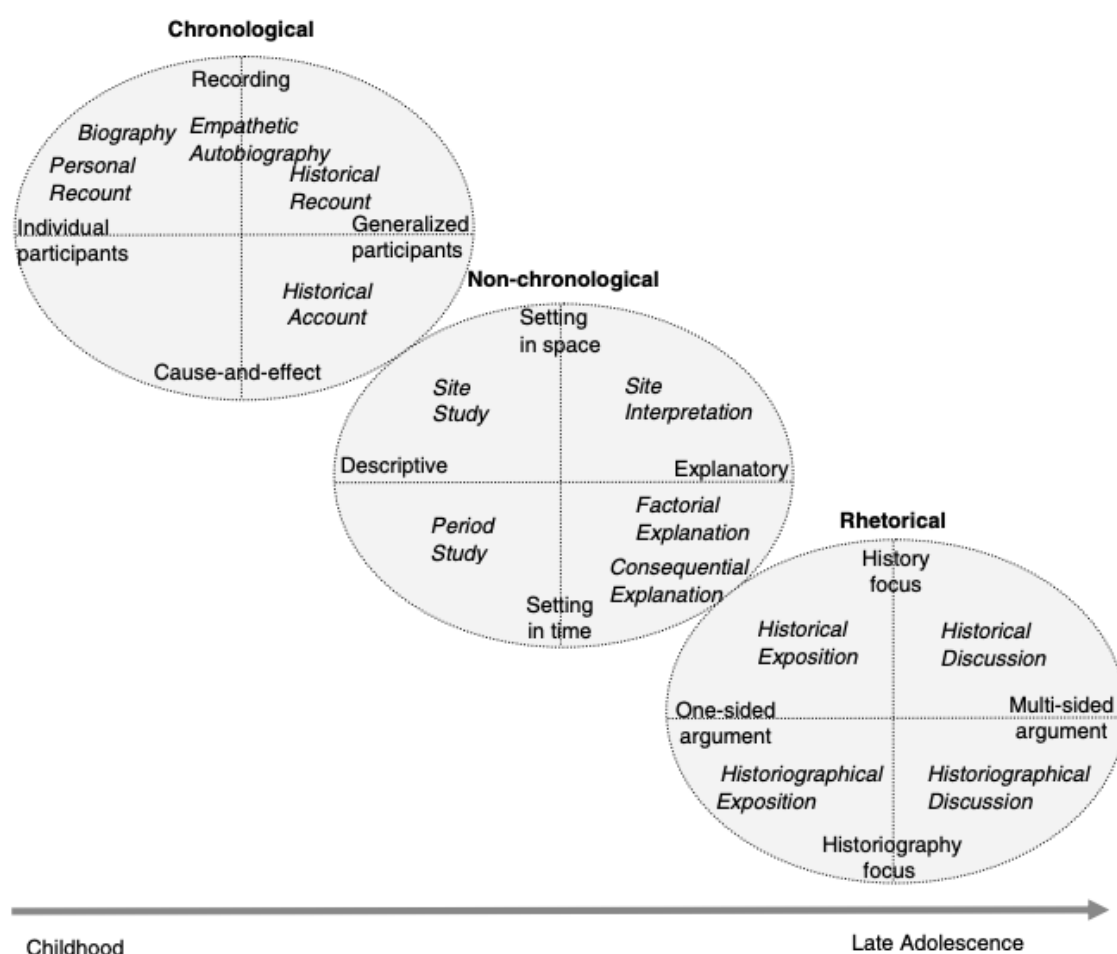
²⁵ The stages in brackets are not compulsory.

Note: Retrieved from “Learning the language of school history: the role of linguistics in mapping the writing demands of the secondary school curriculum” (p.7), by C. Coffin, 2006, *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38 (4), p.7.

In this categorization, Coffin emphasises the text structure for each of the genres, which are organised according to different stages which, in turn, enact specific micro-functions characterised by distinct lexico-grammatical patterns. Christie and Derewianka (2010) followed the same principles to categorise History genres. However, their classification is slightly different as regards the group names, and comprise Elementary Education as well:

Figure 9

Christie and Derewianka’s classification of History genres



Note: Retrieved from *School Discourse: Learning to Write across the Years of Schooling* (p. 115), by F. Christie & B. Derewianka, 2010, Continuum

In this case, the first group of genres organises information according to some kind of sequence and chronological order. In the second group, pupils are able to structure their texts according to the features of what is being described (e.g. Medieval life), but not in a chronological order. The last one, rhetorical genres, requires more complex activities such as explanations, discussions or arguments. Although both categorizations differ in the names given to the groups, it can be observed that they are rather similar. The intermediate phase of explaining genres is condensed in what Christie and Derewianka classify as non-chronological.

As regards lexico-grammatical features, whose evolution correlates with the genres they inevitably make up, the mastery of grammatical metaphor and the expression of more complex relations through subordinate clauses develop in their early adolescence (Christie and Derewianka, *ibid.*). In explaining and arguing genres, the dependance on chronology is lower, as they grow more proficient in expressing arguments in which the historical events are embedded, being also able to use more abstract noun and specialised lexis, nominalization (e.g. to express cause), and evaluative lexis (to indicate appraisal, judgement, etc.) (Coffin, 2006b).

At this level, and expressed in terms of Halliday's (1985) macrofunctions, students are capable of higher abstraction (ideational), of more subtle appraisal (interpersonal) and of producing longer and elaborated texts and of using metadiscourse strategies (textual) (Christie & Derewianka, 2010). As a consequence, the linguistic repertoire to express History (factors, influences, consequences, etc.) also becomes more varied.

Let us now examine closely one of the genres found in History and the one used for the intervention stage in this study, the historical account. It is defined as follows:

This genre is a type of historical narrative where the overall purpose is to provide a chronological account of past events whilst at the same time drawing out some of the causal connections between events. The events may then be assessed in terms of their historical significance (Coffin, 2006b, p.415).

Thus, the goal of this specific genre is "to account for why events happened in a particular sequence" (Coffin 2006a, p.64). Regarding its structure and stages, Christie and Derewianka (2008) put forward the prototypical genre moves of historical accounts:

- Background: atmosphere and any other previous relevant information.

- Account Sequence: chain of cause-and-effect relations in a chronological order over a period of time.
- Deduction (not compulsory): evaluation of the significance of the outcome.

(Christie and Derewianka, 2008, p.101)

As Llinares et al. (2012) explain, “though the text moves through time, cause is intrinsically involved in the reasons for the temporal changes” (p.139), and consequently, the text must express the logical relation in the sequence. A specific illustration of this genre can be found in Appendix A, but for exemplification purposes, one extract from a historical account is included next:

Table 3

Illustration of a historical account

BACKGROUND	<u>Plantation slavery in North America</u> The first Africans arrived in North America during the early days of the English colonisation in 1619.
ACCOUNT SEQUENCE	Slavery developed quite slowly in North America, increasing as the growth of the tobacco trade during the 17th century created a demand for workers. By the middle of the 18th century there were over 260,000 African slaves in Virginia alone. A few years later the numbers decreased as the tobacco trade reduced, only to increase again with the introduction of cotton as a plantation crop (...) [emphasis added]

Note: Adapted from Field (1995, p.11), as cited in *The roles of language in CLIL* (p.138), by A. Llinares, T. Morton & R. Whittaker, 2012, CUP

The account sequence may comprise as many paragraphs as necessary, and a *deduction stage* could be added to express the significance of slavery in the History of the US (e.g. *Slavery marked...*). Going back to this example, it can be observed how the logical relations of cause and effect are realised by means of subordinate clauses of cause (as the tobacco trade reduced) or nominalizations (the introduction of cotton), among others. According to Coffin (2006b) and Christie and Derewianka (2008, 2010), historical accounts can be mastered at early adolescence, since learners are then able to, not only organise texts chronologically, but also in terms of connected causes and outcomes. At this age, they also begin to evaluate and can offer some judgement, which would be mainly enacted in the deduction stage.

These are the demands of the History curriculum, irrespective of the language of education. However, how does all this translate into CLIL settings? According to Llinares et al. (2012) “the role hasn’t changed simply by changing the language, but what usually goes unnoticed when using a shared first language, is inevitably problematised in a second or foreign language” (p.154). Hence their interest in analysing the main lexico-grammar features of this genre from the perspective of CLIL at Secondary School, which can be summarised as follows:

- Lexis: Vocabulary proper to the topic in a formal register, with higher prominence of abstract nouns (*nationalism, alliances, treaty*, etc.).
- Material (*break out, fight, sign*), relational, mental (Germany *thought* that), verbal (Austria-Hungary declared war) and existential processes.
- Clauses indicating place, time and manner.
- Expression of logical relation through markers of cause, purpose and time.
- Past declarative forms.
- Passive voice (with or without agent) to create coherent texts.

Adapted from Llinares et al. (2012, p. 163-172)

These are some of the main features found by these researchers in historical accounts written by 15-16 year-old students. Interestingly, it is also pointed out that, on many occasions, learners make use of oral language; for instance, the use of the conjunction “and” when the meaning is “so”. (e.g. They sank a U.S.A. boat *and* the U.S.A. president, Woodrow Wilson, decided to go to war) (p.169). This reveals, once again, the significance of taking into account the distinctive features of the language of schooling in general, and of specific genres in particular. The following section will look at how a genre-based pedagogy could bring benefits to solve this issue.

4.4.4. Genre-based learning pedagogy: The teaching and learning cycle (TLC)

We have previously stated that CLIL can nurture from SFL because of its conceptualisation of language (Coffin, 2017) and its mapping of literacy development across school subjects (Polias, 2015), enabling learners to communicate knowledge through the use of the different text types, genres and associated language. Although SFL theory on school genres has been anticipated in the previous section from a theoretical and taxonomical point

of view, it is now essential to focus on the pedagogical ways which can serve the purpose to help learners progress through the mastery of school genres and subject disciplinary language. Within SFL, the school of Sydney stands out not only due to their extensive research on the issue, but also, and more importantly, because of their practical implementation of genre-based pedagogies on which they have been working since the 1980s. Their primary objective is to give access to control of the genres (of power) through educational literacy intervention (Rose, 2012) to guarantee educational success and better future prospects. Hence its relevance from a pedagogical point of view.

Let us first revisit the notion of genre in the Sydney school. As stated in the previous section, while register refers to the linguistic choices in terms of the “context of situation”, genre would respond to the language choices according to the “context of culture”, terms coined by Malinowski (1935). Culture is conceptualised as the influence of the specific social purposes, in our case the context of education and pedagogical tasks. Thus, genre has been defined by the Sydney school as “staged, goal-oriented social processes (Rose, 2012, p. 209), which can be recognised by the presence of recurrent patterns. Martin (2009) uncovers these three dimensions as follows:

- (i) staged: because it usually takes us more than one phase of meaning to work through a genre.
- (ii) goal-oriented: because unfolding phases are designed to accomplish something and we feel a sense of frustration or incompleteness if we are stopped.
- (iii) social: because we undertake genres interactively with others.

(Martin, 2009, p.13)

In our educational contexts, pupils must be able to identify and produce text types which incorporate these recurrent patterns and accomplish their social purpose within the specific discipline. After analysing plenty of texts, researchers in the Sydney school have provided a comprehensible account and taxonomies of school genres and the stages which shape them. These genres cannot be reproduced here because of space and focus constraints, but some illustrations can be found in Rose (2012).

First of all, a genre analysis is recommended as part of this pedagogy. Rose (2015) suggests carrying it out in the following top-down approach:

1. Macro-stratum: analysis of the genre’s main goal
2. Register (How does it affect language choices?)
3. Discourse-Semantics (cohesive relations, stages, phrases, etc.)

4. Lexico-grammatical level
5. Phonology-Graphology

This contrasts with the bottom-up approach that is often the case in many EFL/ESL classrooms, excessively focused on the lower levels (e.g. grammar), which, as Rose (*ibid.*) claims, does not work and bores students. In his view, the main reason why it would not be effective is that learners are not capable of applying these lower-level skills in authentic contexts of language use. That is to say, cohesive devices or grammar are usually taught, but in a rather decontextualised way, which does not originally comply with communicative approaches.

However, drawing our attention to L2 learners and linguistic minorities, as is the case of English as an Additional Language (EAL) settings in Australia, it can be easily observed that these learners will be in need of explicit work with the elements of the bottom-level skills (Yin, 2015, p. 37). With a third of the students having languages other than English as a mother tongue and in an increasingly multicultural community (Rose, 2018), a more balanced approach which could incorporate the necessary scaffolding for these bottom-level skills was much needed in Australia. Against this backdrop, the genre-based pedagogy was expanded as a means to guarantee educational success in a more egalitarian way. That is to say, in pursuit of social justice (Martin, 2009). This approach comprises pedagogical activities consisting of learning cycles, based on the assumption that learning takes place through tasks, through which they can develop their genre repertoires (Rose, 2018). “Curriculum content” is usually taught explicitly (e.g. through teacher explanations or lectures) whereas the “knowledge genres” tend to be left explicit; although fortunately, they can also be made explicit (Rose & Martin, 2012). So, in this pedagogy, language features composing the lower-level resources must be addressed explicitly, but only because they constitute meaning in context (Rose, 2018). The reader may have noticed that the motivation behind this advocacy resembles Lyster’s (2007) Counterbalanced Approach and the rest of claims for FoF practices in immersion contexts exposed in chapter 2.

To make genre-based approaches operational in classroom practice, the Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC) was designed and operationalised by Rothery, along with teachers and linguists (see Rothery; 1994, 1996, 2008). It is influenced by Vygotskian notions of scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development. As stated above (see 2.5.2.), the scaffolding metaphor refers to the support mechanisms provided by the teacher until the learners are able to do the specific task on their own. Students’ learning and development will

reach further levels if supported and guided by teachers or classmates. Evidently, this scaffolding can be withdrawn once the learner is capable of completing the task independently.

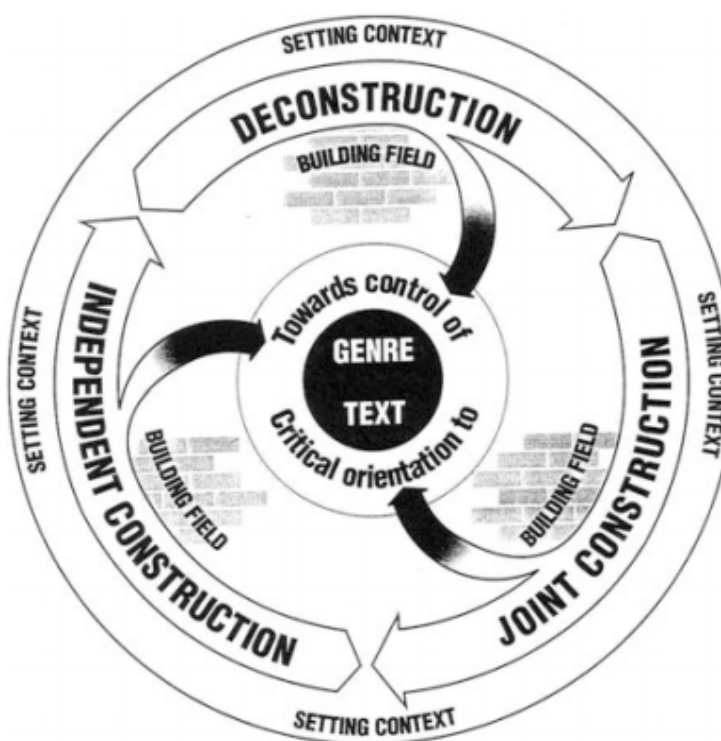
Drawing on all these premises, the TLC is an integrative (top-down and bottom-up) scaffolded approach whose point of departure must be the social purpose of the text type (Rose, 2012, p.4). This pedagogical activity is distributed in the following stages (adapted from Coffin, 2006b and Martin, 1999):

1. Deconstruction stage. The aim of this phase is to help learners read and understand the specific genre which they will be dealing with. To do so, the teacher guides them to recognise text structure, genre moves and distinctive lexico-grammatical features of the target genre. The most common strategies at this stage are:
 - a. Reading texts which exemplify the genre.
 - b. Predicting content and purpose from the title of text or key words.
 - c. Using the sample genre to answer pre reading questions.
 - d. Providing students with the labels for each stage of the genre and asking them to match the label with the stage.
 - e. Cutting a text into its stages and asking students to order and name each stage.
 - f. Asking questions about the social purpose of the genre and how its stages help to achieve its purpose/the cultural value of the genre (in this particular subject).
 - g. Erasing language features (e.g. time or cause words/phrases) from the sample text and asking students to work out the missing words.
 - h. Examining a less successful text.
2. Joint construction stage. The objective of this stage is to jointly write a text which exemplifies the organisation and linguistic features of the target genres with the teacher's guidance. Students and teachers negotiate the organisation and shaping of the text, which should be written up publicly in the classroom (e.g. on a whiteboard). The teacher role is, thus, to guide, provide scaffolding, to advise pupils on the use of strategies such as modelling and to reword students' contributions to make them more compliant with the expected genre. Some specific techniques are:
 - a. Providing an outline of the text using the structure as scaffolding.
 - b. Focusing on part of a text.
 - c. Jointly constructing the text on a computer screen.
 - d. Different groups preparing different parts of the text.

- e. Approximation of genre: accepting students' responses but rephrasing them where necessary-
 - f. After the first draft being jointly constructed, giving each student a copy and improving it.
 - g. Make final revisions.
3. Independent construction stage. The two previous phases are in preparation for independent writing. Now that learners feel confident and in control of the genre, the scaffolding is withdrawn and they are able to write their own text successfully. If necessary, this can also be carried out in small groups. Some typical strategies are listed below:
- a. students writing a draft text.
 - b. consulting with teachers/peers about the text.
 - c. revising and rewriting according to the consultations and advice.
 - d. focusing on presentation including spelling, punctuation, handwriting, etc.
 - e. giving students a checklist.

Figure 10

The Teaching and Learning Cycle



Note: Retrieved from “Modelling and mentoring: Teaching and learning from home to school” (p.149), by J.R. Martin and C.M.I. Matthiessen, in A. Mahboob & L. Barratt (Eds.), *Englishes in multilingual contexts*, 2014, Springer.

The body of research conducted involving the implementation of the TLC have demonstrated that students improve the structure and control over the target genres (see Coffin, 2006b). In the studies reported by Coffin (*ibid.*), after a term of TLC implementation, improvements were still necessary in terms of grammar, which seems to suggest that more longitudinal intervention is needed to examine the long-term effects of the TLC. As for teachers, Coffin acknowledged that teachers tend to be concerned with time constraints at the beginning, but as the implementation progressed, the evidence showed that teachers develop more explicit attention to text structure or lexico-grammatical choices. In the Australian context, this pedagogy became standardised and proved valuable for EAL settings, as was one of the initial purposes. It has even been conceived as a collaborative approach involving the L1 (in this case, English) teachers as well.

To end this section, it must be mentioned that the SFL genre pedagogy has not been the only approach to genre. In the field of ESP, Bathia's (1993) and Swales' (1990) valuable contributions have informed the field of genre in professional settings and English for Academic Purposes (EAL) in Higher Education. Moreover, the *New Rhetoric* developed in North America also focused on post-Secondary settings. In Lin's view (2016), there is a lack of “cross-fertilization” and “mutual illumination” among these three traditions which “has not helped the development of theory and practice pertinent to the work of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC), academic literacies and CLIL” (p.74). However, in the next section we will see how the most recent research on CLIL has been nurtured precisely by SFL. Therefore, because of contextual similarities and the rich and detailed approach offered by it, the SFL genre-based pedagogy is the tradition chosen for this study. Although it is acknowledged that the Australian EAL (higher presence of immigration, aboriginal population, etc.) differs greatly from our own; the parallelism is found in that the language of schooling is not the mother tongue for our CLIL students in Spain and the English Language Learners (ELL) in Australia, so both types of users (pupils) are at disadvantage if they are not offered the proper linguistic support.

4.4.5. SFL research applied to CLIL: Cognitive Discourse Functions and the Pluriliteracies Approach

Taking into consideration that recent approaches to content-language integration are based on the principles of SFL, Gierlinger points out that “research is moving towards a pedagogy of registers, text types, genres, subject-specific literacies and lexico-grammar relations in subject teaching” (2017a, p.69). This section will outline the main and most recent contributions to CLIL research from a SFL perspective. As we will argue later, they are complementary to genre-based pedagogies in CLIL and their practical applications can be combined with it.

4.4.5.1. The Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDF) construct

Building on the principle that content and language cannot be divorced, the subsequent shift of the understanding of integration in CLIL, and previous models of academic language functions, Dalton-Puffer (2013, 2016) developed the Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDF) construct. These CDFs are defined as “verbal routines that have arisen in answer to recurring demands while dealing with curricular content, knowledge items and abstract thought” (Dalton-Puffer; 2016, p. 41). This notion is very similar to the cognitive-discourse operations by Beacco et al. (2015) mentioned in section 4.4.3 and it also draws on Speech Act theory (Austin, 1962, Searle, 1969), as it assumes that actions are performed through linguistic utterances. . This CDF framework must be understood from a functional and socio-cultural perspective as well, as it concerns the linguistic patterns needed to deal with communicative needs, which in school contexts, are also tied to cognitive demands for which learners will need specific language. Although this is reminiscent of Bloom’s Taxonomy, the CDF construct represents a major breakthrough in CLIL inasmuch it makes the *language curriculum* more visible than before, also from the perspective that this language curriculum is part of “teaching the subject”. Thus, the verbal behaviour of our students will let us identify that they have accomplished a particular learning outcome. It should be noted that Dalton-Puffer is well aware of the recurrent problems cited throughout this thesis: learners may not have the ability to cope with these specific language issues and teachers may not be addressing them. Table 4 shows the classification of CDFs:

Table 4*Classification of CDFs*

CDF	Communicative Intention	Examples
CLASSIFY	I tell you how we can cut up the world according to certain ideas	Classify, compare, contrast, match, structure, categorise, subsume
DEFINE	I tell you about the extension of this object of specialist knowledge	Define, identify, characterise
DESCRIBE	I tell you details of what can be seen (also metaphorically)	Describe, label, identify, name, specify
EVALUATE	I tell you what my position is vis a vis X	Evaluate, judge, argue, justify, take a stance, critique, recommend, comment, reflect, appreciate
EXPLAIN	I give you reasons for and tell you cause/s of X	Explain, reason, express cause/effect, draw conclusions, deduce
EXPLORE	I tell you something that is potential	Explore, hypothesise, speculate, predict, guess, estimate, simulate, take other perspectives
REPORT	I tell you about sth. external to our immediate context on which I have a legitimate knowledge claim	Report, inform, recount, narrate, present, summarise, relate

Note: Adapted from “A construct of cognitive discourse functions for conceptualising content-language integration in CLIL and multilingual education”(p. 234-235), by Ch. Dalton-Puffer, 2013, *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2)

Differing from Bloom’s Taxonomy, the seven categories have not been classified according to higher or lower cognitive skills, but according to their communicative intention. Dalton-Puffer acknowledges that the boundaries between them can be blurry, depending on the specific particularities of disciplines, so one category can be central in History, but have a

micro-function in Science (as in CLASSIFY). For instance, CATEGORISE has recently been suggested as a replacement for CLASSIFY (Dalton-Puffer & Bauer-Marschallinger, 2019) because it captures better the inclusion of relevant features. Let us mention a few linguistic particularities about some of these categories. In the case of DEFINE, the element defined tends to be followed by (reduced) relative clauses, and adjectives abound. As for DESCRIBE, frequent in all disciplines because we are talking about the features of a third entity, present simple is frequently used, but so is passive voice. EVALUATE is much more present in Social Science than in Science, but in the latter EXPLAIN is more common when talking about phenomena due to the nature of the different disciplines. EXPLORE, which is entirely HOTS is verbalised through “modal verbs (e.g. may, will, can), modal adverbs (e.g. maybe, perhaps, possibly), and dependent clauses with conditional conjunctions (mostly if)” (Dalton-Puffer, 2016, p.60). As far as REPORT is concerned, it appears as the final step in pedagogical tasks²⁶, and is connected with some specific genres (lab reports, historical recounts, etc.).

In the last few years, some studies have been conducted with a focus on CDFs in the classroom. Dalton-Puffer et al. (2016) compile the results and findings of various studies investigating the occurrence of CDFs in Secondary Education in Austria in different disciplines: Physics, Biology, Business and Economics, History and also EFL. In each of the subjects, lessons were observed in order to identify CDFs in classroom discourse, looking into how the learning goals were connected to the performance of CDFs. The results show that all of them occur but to a different extent. Generally speaking, DESCRIBE, EXPLAIN AND DEFINE are the most frequent, being DESCRIBE the prevailing one. In contrast, REPORT is the most common in the discipline of Economics. EVALUATE AND EXPLORE are the least frequent. Interestingly, although their occurrence is slightly lower in EFL, it is the subject in which students participate more in the co-construction of CDFs. One remark deserves our attention when it comes to EXPLORE. The authors point out that pupils perform this function by means of markers such as “maybe” or “I think” whereas modal auxiliaries are not part of their repertoire, even if they have been extensively covered in the EFL curriculum and modelled by teachers through recasts and elicitation (p. 24). This finding has clear implications for our research, as they manifest, once again, the mismatch between the contents of the EFL curriculum, the learners' linguistic realisations, the content lessons and the need for coordinated explicit correction (see chapter 2). Finally, it should be noted that the

²⁶ In fact, this step is a requirement in the structure of Task-Based Learning approaches (TBL).

researchers acknowledge that the presence, absence or prevalence of CDF may be determined by the features of each subject, but also by the different teachers' pedagogical style. As suggestions for further research, they recommend analysing the connection between CDF episodes and classroom genres.

To the best of our knowledge, little research has been conducted on this construct at Secondary Education in Spain. But two studies stand out in Higher Education. Breeze and Dafouz (2017), analysed the answers to two exam questions in which a combination of (1) DESCRIBE-CLASSIFY, (2) DESCRIBE-EXPLAIN was required. These questions were similar in the participating L1 and EMI groups because both groups share the same teacher. The answers analysed belonged to what the teacher considered high- and low-level answers according to the marking criteria. For question (1) in the high level, the realisation of the CDF was more successful in Spanish, whereas the attempts in English were not always successful. In the case of the low level, they fail in both languages, even in the use of specific terminology. As for (2), similar results were obtained in the high level in both groups, whereas the realisation of CDF was more problematic in the low level in both languages. What these results seem to suggest is that sometimes certain literacy issues do not differ in L1 and CBI, so the authors suggest that teachers "in both EMI and L1 settings should pay greater attention to disciplinary literacies in general, and within this, to making the cognitive and discursive requirements of the tasks they set more explicit" (p. 89). Hence, Breeze and Dafouz (*ibid.*) highlight the utility of the CDF as a model which can help both teachers support writing development and students understand task requirements, which can be done by means of practices such as providing students with rubrics, models or writing frames.

Doiz and Lasagabaster (2021) have also analysed the occurrence of CDF in six History lessons in an EMI context, with a particular focus on how they contribute to the attainment of the competences associated with the university degree. Confirming the findings in Breeze and Dafouz', the seven categories were somehow present, being DESCRIBE the most frequent, once again. Due to the specific particularities of the Social Science area, EVALUATE is rather used and also serves for one of the basic competences in this degree (recognize the existence of different perspectives in the account of historical processes and events). On the contrary, CATEGORISE (the former CLASSIFY) and EXPLORE occur to a much lesser extent. The authors conclude that some CDFs would have to be adapted to the specific features of each discipline, in this case History.

To conclude, although this construct will not be explicitly used in the pedagogical intervention of the present study (see chapters 5 and 8), its significance must not be

disregarded. Firstly, because these CDF parallel with the concept of micro-genres which may be part of larger genres and basic units for structuring those texts. Moreover, they provide a visible “zone of convergence between content and language pedagogies” (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, p. 216) and which ultimately makes the integration of content and language learning aims easier.

4.4.5.2. The Pluriliteracies Approach

As stated earlier, attention to academic language is not an exclusive problem of CLIL or immersion, but of L1 mainstream content lessons as well (Ting, 2012), particularly because of the wrong understanding that academic language is simply key phrases or technical vocabulary (Scarcella, 2003).

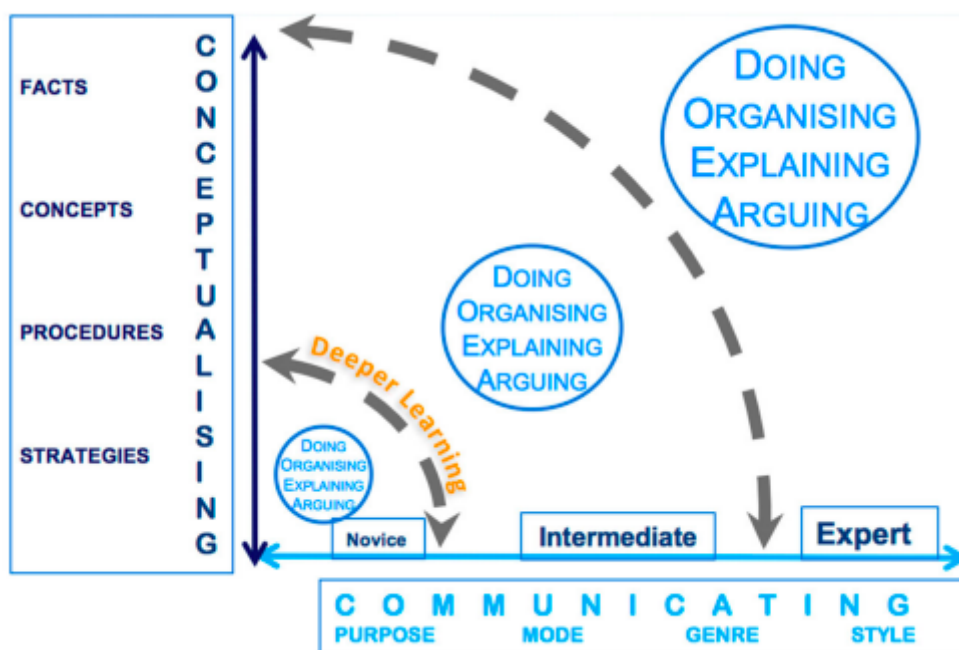
Drawing on this, the *Pluriliteracies approach to Teaching for Learning (PTL)* has been developed by a group of international researchers across different European settings. Literacy has become a goal for the European Union in general, not only for understanding the notion as the ability to read and write, but also as being literate in different social and cultural contexts, challenges and demands of the 21st century which teachers must prepare learners for (Coyle, 2020). The prefix pluri-, adapted to our educational contexts, also makes reference to being literate across languages and disciplines. The notion of *linguaging* as “the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (Swain, 2006, p. 98) becomes central for the pluriliteracies model, since linguaging refers to how we verbalise our thinking for others. As argued above, we really internalise knowledge when we are able to “express knowledge”. Coyle (2020) posits that this process becomes gradually complex and develops simultaneously with subject literacies. So, as Coyle and Meyer argue, there is “a need for education systems to develop pedagogies which equip citizens to construct, critically analyse and communicate knowledge adequately and successfully across cultures, languages and disciplines” (2021, p.36). Against this backdrop, pluriliteracies development can be synthesised as:

The growing ability to ‘express/verbalise’ subject-specific concepts or conceptual knowledge in an appropriate style using the appropriate genre and genre moves for the specific purpose of the communication in a wide variety of modes. In other words, students make meaning by strengthening the connections between the conceptual continuum and the communication continuum. (Meyer et al., 2015, p.50)

Such conceptualisation also builds on functional views of language inasmuch those verbalizations are contextually-bound, must consider the purpose of communication and comply with expected genres and register. Moreover, students make meaning and learn as they progress both from the conceptual and communication perspectives, which, as we know now, cannot be divorced. This way, subject-literacies become essential for deep learning (Meyer, 2016), which refers to the development of knowledge and skills which we are able to apply to new situations. On a practical note for teachers, the learners' ability to communicate knowledge constitutes a powerful clue to grasp where our students are in terms of learning progression.

Figure 11

Pluriliteracies approach to Teaching for Learning (PTL)



Note: Retrieved from “Knowledge ecology for conceptual growth: teachers as active agents in developing a pluriliteracies approach to teaching for learning (PTL)” (p.361), by D. Coyle, A. Halbach, O. Meyer & K. Schuch, 2018, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(3), p.361

According to Meyer et al. (2015), progressing in the “conceptualising continuum” must be accompanied by a simultaneously gradual mastery of disciplinary literacy (“communicating continuum”), because the latter are “the tools which enable meaning-making and knowledge construction” (2015, p. 49). Thus, deep learning will depend

on the proficiency in disciplinary discourse. This progression is represented by means of four activities domains: doing-organising-explaining and arguing, which Coyle (2020) defines as: “knowledge pathways consist of four major activity domains common to learning across all disciplines” (p. 195). The Graz Group has also developed a series of principles to guide teachers in the application of this approach (Coyle et al., 2018; Meyer, 2016):

1. Conceptualising learner progression: As learners progress towards more abstract domains (doing-organising-explaining-arguing), their language also becomes more sophisticated. In terms of genres, they are able to progressively incorporate more genre moves. The researchers also include one suggestion for teachers: to work with multiple drafts so that learners can improve their writing and task performance.
2. Focusing on the learner: the pathway towards deep learning is not guaranteed by the mere transmission of facts, so rushing through the curriculum will not lead to long-term learning. Therefore, practitioners should pay more attention to task-performance.
3. Language for understanding: Drawing on the notion of languaging, CDFs help build knowledge because they are embedded in the four milestones: doing-organising-explaining-arguing. Thus, teachers must be familiar with this construct (e.g. what features an appropriate explanation has, etc.) Indeed, macro-genres (e.g. lab report) can be broken up into smaller pieces or micro-genres, composed by CDF (e.g. describing) (Meyer, 2020).
4. Realising cultural embeddedness: pupils must learn to deal with and extract information from the specific text types proper to each discipline (e.g. maps, charts, graphs, etc) and to express their understanding into the prototypical genres.
5. Rethinking scaffolding for learner development: choosing and designing materials and tasks which enable knowledge construction, meaning making, opportunities for practice opportunities and teacher/peer feedback.

These scholars have also provided templates to help teachers plan their CLIL units according to this pluriliteracies focus (see Appendix B), which also situate teachers as designers of teaching units which incorporate deep learning and “personal growth across languages, disciplines and cultures” (Coyle, 2020, p.192). In doing so, teachers-as-designers become the key element for the needed curricular and classroom transformation.

The Pluriliteracies model differs from the BICS and CALP dichotomy in one key aspect, namely the (de)contextualization of academic language. As seen above, one of the

difficulties for the development of CALP has to do with the supposedly decontextualised nature of academic language, while BICS is normally embedded in a specific social context. In contrast, functional orientation of Pluriliteracies assumes that language is never decontextualised, as it is always determined by the social purpose of communication, the mode and interlocutors. Hence, this model challenges the BICS-CALP dichotomy inasmuch as it views subject-specific language, general academic language and colloquial language as components of the language of schooling, being the latter useful to express and negotiate meaning in easier ways (see Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.77).

The framework which the Pluriliteracies model clearly draws on is Coyle's 4Cs. However, the Pluriliteracies approach goes one step further in the enriched integration of Content, Cognition and Communication. Moreover, according to Coyle et al. (2018), it works even better because it not only captures the "what" but the "how" (p.354), highlighting a process-oriented teaching.

Despite not being born directly from the Pluriliteracies model, other pedagogical approaches have been put forward which build on the same principles. The first one, the SALT (Gierlinger, 2017b), is a language-aware teaching model for CLIL which has been used as part of content teachers' training. This model emphasises Strategic languaging, All-language practices (multilingualism, cross-linguistic comparisons, etc.), multimodal Literacies (digital, multimedia, etc.) and Topic relevant language (genre, task-obligatory register, etc.).

As Pluriliteracies refers to subject-specific literacy across languages (Meyer, 2016), another broader approach which also nurtures from the centrality of transferable knowledge and skills is Languages across the curriculum (LAC). This approach is being implemented in the monolingual region of Andalusia²⁷ aiming at developing pluriliteracies or "a better use of linguistic competence across all languages" (Pavón & Pérez, 2018, p.112). It has been devised as a whole-school project²⁸ whose point of departure is the identification of linguistic competences, for which the collaboration of language teachers and coordination are key. In their Integrated Curriculum for Languages, a map of textual and discursive genres has been developed according to the different levels of competence and academic demands of each discipline (Lorenzo, 2013).

²⁷ Similar projects are also implemented in other traditional bilingual areas.

²⁸ Named as Proyecto Lingüístico de Centro (School Language Project)

Table 5

Example of integrated textual genres maps for the first course of “Bachillerato”

Sciences	Spanish	Philosophy	English	German	Latin	French	Greek
The Human Species ST: scientific chronicle TT: field-work notes	The human being and the need for communication ST: informative documentary film TT: journalistic report	Logical thinking structure and physical reality ST: virtual conference TT: haiku or brief poetic composition	Getting a position in the hi-tech job market ST: a news item TT: a job interview	Man's needs for communication ST: informative scientific text TT: opinion article	The need to communicate ST: adapted Latin mythological texts TT: tourist brochure	The need to communicate: social networks ST: informative video report TT: survey report	We need to communicate ST: historical Greek texts TT: encyclopaedia entry

ST: Source text

TT: Target text

Note: Retrieved from “Enhancing disciplinary literacies: languages of schooling and whole-school language projects in Spain” (p. 121), by V. Pavón & A. Pérez, 2018, *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6 (1).

This LAC approach presupposed the coordinated work with teachers of other languages, including the L1 in order to deal with shared language structures and functions or common textual genres and discourse types (Pavón & García, 2017). Moreover, this model incorporates some specific actions to be undertaken in these contexts, such as style manuals, lesson plans (designed by content and language teachers), rubrics, interdisciplinary projects, etc. (Pavón & Pérez, 2018, p.122).

The models presented in this section embody the directions CLIL research is moving towards and, in turn, the ideal classroom practices. Although they will not be strictly followed in the application of a genre-based approach model, their principles and tenets are shared, particularly because of the textual focus which enables guiding learners towards textual fluency through disciplinary literacies (Coyle & Meyer; 2021, p.41) and genres become the “central guiding principle to map subject-specific literacies progressions” (p.69). Moreover, the CDFs become the minimum block from which larger genres can be built. The last section of this chapter will make these SFL principles and guidelines for CLIL converge

with the ultimate focus of this dissertation: the role of the EFL teacher in all this transformation.

4.5. Genre-based pedagogies in CLIL and EFL settings

Genre-based approaches in general have proved successful in a variety of contexts (see de Oliveira and Schleppegrell, 2015, who focus on the improvement of History writing in an ESL educational setting). The previous sections have offered an overview of the main tenets of SFL and the benefits of applying this framework to CLIL research and practice in pursuit of better access to school genres and deep learning. In this final section, we will look at previous research on genre-based learning in CLIL settings so as to be able to move towards its application to the EFL classroom as well.

In this respect, Lin (2016) provides numerous suggestions and sample materials for teachers willing to implement the TLC in their CLIL lessons. To make it more effective, she reports the “experiment” with two teachers in Hong Kong, Science and English teacher, in a collaborative and coordinated pedagogy aiming at integrating language demands. Also in Hong Kong, Lo and Jeong (2018) have carried out an intervention together with a Humanities Secondary teacher applying the TLC to one specific genre in that subject. Pre- and post-test, observation, analysis of the students’ production and interviews with the teacher and students composed their data. Their promising results reveal that their written production improved in the post-test. Nonetheless, no reference concerning the duration of the intervention and the number of lessons was provided. Furthermore, the participating teacher finds this approach valuable, but she admits that doing this with all the discipline genres would entail certain time obstacles. To overcome this, Lin (2016) suggests a LAC approach, organised at a curricular and institutional level, with both horizontal language curriculum (different subjects, same school grade) and vertical language curriculum (same subject across grades) as a solution for more time efficiency.

Back in Spain, Morton (2010) explored the potential of this pedagogy in two Secondary History settings in which the textbook activities clearly require the use of specific genres (e.g. write a biography) but it provides no guidance on how to do so. Although some classroom episodes are shown in this study, it is only suggestions that are offered for potential genre-based learning. In spite of this, Morton concluded that a genre-based approach is compatible with the well-established 4Cs model or Lyster’s counterbalanced approach, which has enormous potential and implications for CLIL. Also in Spain, McCabe and Whittaker

(2017) have applied SFL and the genre framework to explore the evolution of appraisal features in History writing in Secondary education.

Some proposals made elsewhere (see Coyle et al., 2018; Meyer, 2016) suggest that the ideal practice to develop appropriate genre use would be by working with multiple drafts, allowing pupils to write improved versions of their texts. Despite its proven benefits, writing of multiple drafts may not be feasible to implement due to the following:

CLIL teachers are faced with three fundamental challenges when supporting learners to become domain-literate. Firstly, they must identify the domain's favoured text types or genres with their typical registers to help learners cope with the lexico-grammatical language demands involved. Secondly, they must provide scaffolding techniques for the decoding and awareness of register variations. Thirdly, they need to lead students into the overall genre of scholarly register (Gierlinger; 2017a, p.79).

However, it is the collaborative effort of content and language teachers that can facilitate the additional resources and time requested. What might be a challenge for content teachers can become a success when involving the language teacher. If content teachers are neither specifically trained nor have additional time to cope with this, supplementary help must come from the EFL space. In doing so, the question posed by Coyle et al. (2018) can be answered: "How do we make language awareness visible in terms of appropriate genre and register use?" (2018, p.355). The answer could be: by having language teachers implement genre-based learning in their EFL subject.

On a different note, a rather pertinent question would be whether the English subject is ready to undertake such a transformation. According to Gierlinger (2017), traditional approaches to EFL content and form are being inevitably questioned. In fact, in the framework of the pluriliteracies approach discussed above, Coyle (2015) refers to the role of grammar in the following terms:

This approach challenges the dominating language learning model based on grammatical chronology and instead takes an alternative pathway for identifying the kind of language which learners will need in their CLIL context. However, this does not mean that grammar has no role to play, but that grammar is no longer the filter through which language is selected for learning. (p.98)

This suggests that grammar progression as an organising principle be reverted in the wake of the greatest possible adaptation for CLIL. As seen above, CDFs constitute microfunctions within larger genres. For instance, the frequent CDFs in historical writing include REPORT, DESCRIBE or EXPLORE, functions requiring command of verbal tenses, their backshifting in reported speech, conditionals or modal verbs of speculation (Zydatið, 2013). According to the curriculum organisation, learners are taught these grammatical aspects during Secondary Education, which means that they are familiar with them. However, are they able to apply them to History school genres properly?

Against this backdrop, let us review what previous studies have concluded regarding the implementation of genre-based and other close approaches in multilingual education which specifically involve the expertise of the language teacher. In Australia, the proposal for collaboration of Coffin (2006b), part of a larger ethnographic project aiming at exploring the role of Linguistics in mapping curriculum writing demands, joined the efforts of History and language specialists in the creation of genre-based materials which made use of the TLC for History school genres. The implementation of those materials during a one-term intervention revealed that the pupils improved significantly in text organisation but an extended intervention proved necessary to see the effects at the grammatical level (p.15). Teacher collaboration was the base for the success of the genre-based approach, although it appears to be restricted to the planning stage, not at the classroom level. In Austria, the Writing in the Academic Subject Pedagogy (WASP) model has recently implemented a genre-based CLIL methodology through a collaborative approach involving both the content and language teacher to develop CLIL units which incorporate a focus on genres. This practice has run alongside a study on its effectiveness and participants' attitudes, concluding that students feel that they understand the content better through these writings and that their writing skills definitely improve (Weiss & Hütter, 2020).

Other studies and proposals have expanded the application of genre-based approaches to the FL curriculum. That is, the language teacher is not only an advisor on genres who helps the content teacher identify the key linguistic features of text types but an active agent in direct contact with learners. Assuming that literacy, pluriliteracy and multiliteracy are among the basic skills of the 21st century, Goldoni (2008) advocated a shift in foreign language curricula to make literacy development a cornerstone. The proponents of the Pluriliteracies approach also advocate for repositioning the EFL curricular space to make it indispensable for the development of disciplinary literacies through a more critical use of text types which

can favour progression in literacies (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). The gradual development of these textual skills could be then transferred to other texts and disciplines.

In Asia, Yasuda's (2012, 2015) and Nagao's (2019) work with genre pedagogy have shown positive results in EFL learners' genre awareness. Although these studies have made use of more macro-genres (e.g. discussion essay), the reported benefits could be replicated if implemented with more specific school genres. Likewise, Melissourgou and Frantzi (2017, 2018) have carried out a contrastive analysis of recurrent specific genres in language official examinations with the aim of providing a helpful framework so that language teachers can use it to favour genre awareness practices. Interestingly, these researchers are critical of the tendency to correlate text types (e.g. letters) with specific genres (e.g. complaint letter). While this proposal does not directly relate to CLIL, their concern in terms of genre treatment in EFL may be valuable if implemented with school genres.

Notwithstanding, the application of literacy pedagogies concerning CLIL school genres in EFL classrooms is still scarce. Only recently has this generated interest among linguists and CLIL and researchers in the field of multilingual education. For Rhysina-Pankova (2016), the potential of genre-driven approaches lies in its response to the challenges to systematise and sequence linguistic progression from congruent to incongruent, encompassing them with communicative goals or materials within a sociocultural perspective which, simultaneously, connects these aspects with discourse practices and social activity. Moreover, working with genre models enables a "gradual approximation toward the meaning potential" (p.54), desirable in all forms of multilingual education. The author presents the positive results and teachers' testimony after 265 hours of instruction in a German foreign language course. Halbach (2018) depicts the transformation in the learners' profile in CLIL programmes, in possession of a greater communicative competence and claims that a grammar-based curriculum does no longer suit their needs. This is one of the reasons which makes this scholar argue that texts should be the "overarching guiding principle" (p. 209), moving away from the traditional focus at a sentence level. Opposed to this, Halbach suggests a literacy approach which puts students in contact with the lexico-grammatical and structural features of text-types which they will encounter in their content lessons. The eventual aim of this approach is to improve "students' ability to produce texts which adhere to the conventions specific to each text type or genre, to its social purpose and to its context of use" (p. 211). Close resemblance can be found between her model and the TLC, since Halbach structures the work with texts in two phases: Firstly, reception (understanding and analysing the text); secondly, guided and free production. The first step would correspond to

the deconstruction stage whereas the second one would comprise the joint and independent construction stages²⁹.

Although genre-based pedagogies are becoming more frequent in ESL in general and in academic literacy programmes (Rose, 2012), more research on its potential is yet needed in this field (Martin, 2009) to explore how pluriliteracies can be developed and supported actively by the language teacher in the foreign language classroom.

In conclusion, this section has portrayed the implementation of some genre-based practices across varied contexts. These experiences can bring valuable knowledge for further applications in contexts such as CLIL. For instance, common practices found in EAL contexts (e.g. focus on nominalizations) could be carried out here by the language teacher. All in all, the language gap discussed in chapter 2 can be bridged with a transformation of the EFL subject, enabling it to incorporate genre-based practices to scaffold learning for the content subjects. Thus, drawing on the assumption that the EFL curricular space can become the ideal resource for decoding genres, this thesis constitutes an attempt to explore the potential of these practices and to offer some guiding principles (RQ3). To explore this and the rest of the research questions of this study, the next chapter will provide a thorough account of the methodology followed.

4.6. Chapter summary

This chapter has offered an account of different approaches and models of language conceptualization in CLIL, with a focus on genre-based pedagogies and pluriliteracies. The evolution in the conceptualization of language not just as a vehicle for communication but as a tool for conceptual development and learning has been outlined. Although somehow it has always been there, the idea that content and language are not separate dimensions has been emphasised in the last years. The combination of both realities highlights the real and profound nature of the language gap: the use of proper academic language is a requisite for academic success. This has led to a higher presence of the foundations of SFL in current CLIL research and guidelines for ideal practices. Drawing on this, various models for the effective treatment of content-language integration have been detailed in this chapter, alongside an approach to school genres, assuming that putting genres at the centre can become the way forward. The end of the chapter has argued that one of the decisive new roles which EFL teachers can take is to put into practice genre-based pedagogies in their own

²⁹ See Halbach (2018) for a sample lesson plan.

subject, focusing on those recurrent genres appearing in the content subjects taught through English.

5. Methodology

5.1. Introduction and research questions

The previous chapters have presented the conceptual frameworks relevant for the implementation of the current research study. Chapter 2 offered an account of the issue of claims for Focus-on-Form (FoF) and Language Awareness (LA) to address the Language Gap in CLIL. Then, the variable of teacher cognition was detailed in chapter 3, while chapter 4 versed upon the conceptualization of language in CLIL and the potential of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), specifically of genre-based approaches, to address the Language Gap in CLIL. This chapter aims at describing the methodological approach, specifying the research design and the steps followed in the study.

First of all, the research questions derived from the general objectives presented in the introductory section will be established. The chapter continues with the description of participants and the data gathering process. Special attention deserved the description of the research design, which can be found in 5.4. Finally, a methodological chapter would be incomplete without discussion on validity, reliability and ethical issues, addressed at the end.

Given the premises established in the theoretical chapters, it was necessary to investigate the changing roles of the EFL teacher in CLIL Secondary settings and their contribution to the improvement of this type of programmes. Because of the deficiencies reported in chapters two and four and the general lack of involvement of the EFL teacher, the research questions posed had to encompass the interplay of the current role of the EFL teacher, the language gap dimension and the effect of teacher cognition. Thus, the resulting research questions driving this study are:

- 1a. Are the roles of the EFL teacher within CLIL Secondary settings changing since the implementation of CLIL programmes in the Madrid Region?

1b. If so, are these roles shifting to support language awareness practices and the development of subject-specific literacies in CLIL?

2a. How do EFL teachers perceive their own ideal roles in CLIL programmes?

2b. To what extent can teachers' beliefs influence desired practices in CLIL Secondary scenarios?

3a. Can genre-based learning/teaching be an effective pedagogy for EFL teachers to support academic skills development and disciplinary language learning and use?

3b. How do they view the potential implementation of this genre-based pedagogy?

As stated in the introduction, each of the research questions is connected with each of the three chapters wherein the theoretical frameworks are covered. Thus, RQ1 relates to how the effects of the Language Gap in CLIL may be reshaping the responsibilities of language teachers. Subsequently, RQ2 intends to find out whether the variable of teaching beliefs determines how far teachers might go in content-language integration. Finally, RQ3 tries to answer whether the application of a genre-based approach in language lessons may be suitable to address the linguistic deficiencies detected in current CLIL programmes.

5.2. The setting: the Madrid Region, the schools and the participants

In terms of education, the Madrid region is divided into five territorial administrations: Centre, North, South, East and West³⁰. These five areas depend on a central regional office³¹ and they all share a common educational policy.

The first attempt to make *bilingual education* part of public education dates back to 1996, when an agreement was signed by the Spanish Ministry of Education and the British Council, establishing an integrated curriculum (British-Spanish) in some selected schools and high schools in Spain. This national project, known as the MECD-BC project, is considered a precedent of the official programme running nowadays. As an illustration, it still counts with 10 schools following the MECD-BC in Madrid. Despite the rapid spread of regional bilingual programmes in the last years, both types of projects are operating simultaneously.

³⁰ Madrid Capital, Norte, Sur, Este y Oeste.

³¹ Consejería de Educación.

In the last two decades, the phenomenon of bilingual education has been given priority by the educational authorities in the monolingual region of Madrid, which firstly implemented the programme in the academic year 2004-2005, with 26 Primary schools. In 2019-2020, this figure had increased to up to 796 state Primary and Secondary schools: 399 State Primary schools, 181 Secondary State schools and 216 state-subsidary schools³². Some general guidelines and regulations have been provided in relation to the programme³³ (see Order 972/2017):

- The minimum teaching time through the foreign language is a third of the total teaching time.
- In order to be accredited as a ‘bilingual teacher’, a C1 level according to the CEFR must be certified by content teachers.
- Any subject can be potentially taught through the foreign language except for the two instrumental areas: Mathematics and Spanish. Each school can choose which subjects will be part of the project according to the human resources available.
- There are no differences in terms of curricula. The official curriculum must be followed.
- Bilingual schools and high schools count with the presence of language assistants, who are usually native speakers of English. They are expected to support students’ language learning and to act as cultural ambassadors of their countries.

Two types of programmes are offered in high/Secondary schools: “Sección” and “Programa”³⁴. To avoid confusion, the two options must be explained. The former refers to the proper CLIL programme, by which any subject except from the two mentioned above can be taught through the foreign language. Moreover, one session a day will be devoted to the subject of EFL, whose curriculum differs from the one in mainstream education, as will be further detailed. Regarding the learners, they must come from CLIL programmes in Primary Education and have passed a compulsory English exam at the end of Primary (A2 or B1 level). As of recently, learners coming from mainstream education can also be enrolled in the “Sección” Programme provided they certify a B1 in 1st ESO³⁵ and B2 in 3rd and 4th ESO³⁶

³² Data obtained from *Madrid, comunidad bilingüe*. (2020) Dirección General de Bilingüismo y Calidad de la Enseñanza

³³ *ORDEN 972/2017, de 7 de abril, de la Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte, por la que se regulan los institutos bilingües español-inglés de la Comunidad de Madrid*

³⁴ “Section” and “Programme”

³⁵ 1st Year of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE).

³⁶ The last two years of CSE.

(CEFR). As for the “Programa”, it also consists of five EFL lessons a week but only one content subject through English to be chosen among Technology, Music, Ethics and other elective subjects, but never core disciplines such as Biology or History. In this particular investigation, it must be noted that any reference to CLIL programmes in Secondary Education will be restricted to the “Sección” type.

Interestingly enough, other state-subsidiary schools³⁷ belonging to broader educational institutions have implemented their own bilingual programmes. Such are the cases of the BEDA³⁸ programme, followed in most of the Catholic schools, or CBC³⁹, part of the UCETAM⁴⁰ schools. Each of these associations recruit their own language assistants.

Regarding the schools participating in this study, the sample is constituted by three high schools set in the Madrid Region (aka the CAM⁴¹) and have implemented the official bilingual programme designed by Madrid’s educational authorities. Two Secondary EFL teachers have been selected from each school setting. The six teachers have diverse professional experience (see Table 7), which will prove interesting when analysing the results obtained. The representativeness of this sample is guaranteed, since participants are all English teachers, their professional experience (and age in general) is varied and there is an equal distribution in terms of sex (see below for demographic details).

The first school, hereafter School A⁴², is a state-subsidiary school belonging to the aforementioned CBC programme and located in Madrid-South. Interestingly, this institution has also progressively implemented the official bilingual programme in the CAM, first at Secondary level in 2015-2016 1st ESO⁴³ and finishing in 2018-2019 in 4th ESO. As part of the CBC programme, a so-called ‘bicultural project’ is held, focusing on American culture, Geography or History. This bicultural project is carried out within the EFL subject (one hour a week). Therefore, it can be considered a type of soft CLIL (topic-based but language-oriented) which coexists with the hard CLIL; that is, the content subjects taught through a FL, carried out through the official programme. These soft CLIL lessons take place once a week and they are conducted by the language assistant with the supervision of the language teacher. In terms of the EFL subject, students take five lessons a week. Moreover,

³⁷ Colegios concertados: this term refers to a type of school which is run by private companies but subsidised by the regional government. It has also been translated as “charter schools”.

³⁸ English Bilingual Development & Assessment.

³⁹ Colegios Bilingües Cooperativos (Cooperative Bilingual Schools).

⁴⁰ Unión de Cooperativas de Enseñanza de Trabajo Asociado de Madrid.

⁴¹ CAM stands for Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid.

⁴² The author has decided to anonymise the name of the schools to preserve the identity of the participants and thus avoid any possible judgement.

⁴³ 1st year of Secondary Education.

they get two sessions a week in order to obtain training for official Cambridge exams. At the end of Secondary Education, most students tend to certify B2 or even a C1 level. In 4th ESO, all the students are required to take History as a ‘bilingual subject’ together with another subject corresponding to their itinerary. That is, Biology for the Science-oriented curriculum and Economics for the Art/Social Science option.

The second school, hereafter School B, has a short history, as it was founded in 2014-2015. It is located in Madrid-North. As it is a state high school, it holds both bilingual ‘section’ and ‘programme’. Twenty-four of the groups (Secondary Education and Bachillerato⁴⁴) belong to the bilingual sections. In fact, four of the five groups in 4th ESO are taught under this modality. All of the students in Secondary Education come from close bilingual Primary schools, which is supposed to ensure a homogeneous competence in the FL at the beginning of Secondary Education. Students coming from other types of high schools tend to enrol in this high school in Bachillerato. As was the case of the previous high school, School B also has five weekly sessions of EFL and counts with the help of language assistants. The level of learners leaving Secondary Education is also upper-intermediate (B2). What is particularly interesting about these learners is that they take part in the ‘Global classrooms project’, by which pupils in 3rd ESO prepare a ‘United Nations’ speech about a given topic every year (e.g. eradication of poverty, sustainable energy for all, etc.). Various high schools in Madrid participate in this event, which is celebrated in the Madrid Region Assembly and the winners are given the opportunity to travel to the United Nations Headquarters in New York.

The third school, hereafter School C, is also a state high school and is located in Madrid-East. Therefore, it is also organised in bilingual sections and programmes. In fact, most of its features are shared with the previous school, including the level of students, the presence of language assistants or the participation in the Global Classrooms project. The range of content subjects taught through English includes Natural Science, Social Sciences: Geography and History, Technologies, Visual Arts, Music y Biology and Geology. Even the ‘Tutoría’ space is expected to be followed through the FL.

⁴⁴ Not compulsory stage after Secondary Education and preparatory for Higher Education. It has been translated as Baccalaureate.

Table 6*Main features of the participating schools*

	School A	School B	School C
Type of school/ownership	State-subsidary	State	State
Educational levels offered	Pre-Primary to Secondary Education	Secondary Education + Bachillerato	Secondary Education + Bachillerato
Location	Madrid-South	Madrid-North	Madrid-East
Bilingual Project	CBC, since 2000-2001 + CAM, since 2015-2016	CAM, since 2014-2015	CAM since 2012-2013
Entry level required in 1st ESO	No	B1	B1
Average language level at the end of Secondary Ed.	B2	B2	B2

Regarding the teacher profile in School A, the two teachers who agreed to take part in the study were, on the one hand, the most experienced EFL teacher, who is actually the head of the department, and, on the other, the most recent incorporation – a female and a male respectively. Both the participants in School B are female and middle-aged. One of them has not always worked as a teacher, but she has some experience in tertiary education. As for school C, both participants are male and also middle-aged. One of them is also the head of the English department⁴⁵. Table 7 displays these demographic features:

⁴⁵ The head of the English department is also the coordinator of the CLIL programme.

Table 7*Participant demographic details*

	School A		School B		School C	
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
Gender	Female	Male	Female	Female	Male	Male
Age	50	27	50	43	50	50
Experience as EFL teacher	26	2	10	15	28	27
Experience in ‘bilingual’ education	9	2	5	9	6	6
Studies	English Studies-Philology	BA in English Studies + MA in TESL	English Studies-Philology + MA	English Studies-Philology	English Studies-Philology	English Studies-Philology
Knowledge of CLIL	Courses and conferences	Within the MA	None	Content courses for ESL (Literature, History, etc.)	None	None
Head of the department	✓				✓	

Only the subjects taught through English in 4th ESO have been mentioned because the focus of this study will be in this course. That is, the second criteria for the selection of teachers (apart from the requirement of working in a ‘bilingual school’) was to teach in 4th ESO. This decision was made due to the role of the genre-approach in this study. In order to examine its effects and possibilities for implementation, it was considered essential to put it into practice with 4th ESO students because of age and cognitive development reasons. In other words, a higher maturity level is expected from older students in order to deal with the implications of being instructed through this approach (if put into practice all of a sudden). It

could be eventually implemented in a structural way from younger levels on, but for this study's purpose, it was pertinent to test it with older students. Another factor was the cognitive progression developed in the official curriculum for Secondary Education whereby upper-secondary pupils become engaged in more complex genres. This is supported by the genre classification and progression (see 4.4.3) established by Coffin (2006b), who claims that students at that age are required to evaluate phenomena and situations and the writing demands increase⁴⁶, which marks the beginning of their 'academic flourishing'.

5.3 Data gathering process

Although section 5.4. will provide specific information about how each of the instruments was designed, some information about the research tools will be anticipated here in order to offer a chronological overview of the data gathering process. At this stage and in order to confirm the validity of this project and to obtain the schools' confidence, it was necessary to establish some personal contact with the participants. The researcher was required to send a cover letter and hold a personal interview with the school principals to secure permission, gain the approval of the institution (Creswell, 2014) as well as to explain that the school participation could benefit the whole institution, as findings would be shared and would open a space for reflection. The management of the three schools showed interest in the research and willingness to cooperate.

First of all, the researcher met with each of the teachers who had volunteered to take part so as to talk about the reasons for this study and the possible implications. The main goal of this initial meeting was to establish some personal connection and rapport. Additionally, a summary of the investigation was given to participants so that they could read it and consult it any time. Once teachers had confirmed their participation and given their informed consent (see Appendix C), they were administered the questionnaire, which had to be filled in before moving on to the next stages. After that, they were provided with the materials they would need for the genre-based approach intervention. They were given a few days, weekend included, to familiarise with the approach, the materials, and they were also given the GenRe instrument (further detailed in 5.5.3.) so that they could fill it in at their own pace during the pedagogical intervention stage.

⁴⁶ The reader should note that these factors are not exclusive to CLIL settings but shared by mainstream education as well.

Then, the dates for the intervention were fixed with each of the teachers. They took place during the second term⁴⁷ of 2019. It must be noted that it was not agreed on a specific number of sessions as if it were the case of simple observation. That is, as this was a pedagogical intervention, the criterion for its duration is completeness, rather than a set number of sessions. In other words, the pedagogical intervention would last as much as necessary until the whole process was complete. In the six cases, it never extended more than a week. It was not considered decisive to video-record the sessions observed for the purpose of this study because the observation itself is not part of the data set. The aim of the intervention was to give the teachers the opportunity to put the genre-based approach into practice so that they could later reflect on its potential outcomes and application.

In order to test the instruments (Gall et al., 2003) that were going to be used in this study, a pilot study was conducted in late September 2018 with Teacher 1 (T1). In doing so, any potential obstacle could be detected and any complicated, redundant, subjective and misleading question and prompt could be redesigned. This would contribute to making the questionnaire, the GenRe instrument and interview comprehensible. As a result of piloting with T1, the second part of the GenRe instrument designed originally was considered less relevant as it was observed it would not provide significant results. Concerning the interview, only the questions addressing RQ1 and RQ2 were included in this pilot study, but not the questions related to the genre-based pedagogy because it was thought that precisely this step would probably deserve more rethinking after the pilot study. In addition, those questions could trigger some bias which could alter the rest of the participation of this participant.

As with the three instruments, the pedagogical intervention was also piloted with T1. That is, lessons with two of her 4th ESO groups were observed, being the first one part of the pilot study in September. For that reason, this specific group which took part in the pilot study was video-recorded; in contrast to the rest of the participating groups. Needless to say, special parent consent was requested for the video-recordings.

A few days later, once the researcher had had some time to examine the students' written production, a date was arranged for the interview. Apart from other questions, the collected written pieces were discussed. The GenRe instrument was also gathered at this stage, so any remark about it could be part of the interview as well. Moreover, access to the syllabi for the subject of English as a Foreign Language (4th ESO) was given to the researcher at all times.

⁴⁷ January-April.

5.4. Research design

In order to accurately answer the research questions which guide this study, a thorough research procedure was to be adopted. This study was designed as a multi-case-study research. Multi-case studies (*aka* multiple case study) have been adopted advantageously in the field of SLA and language teaching for decades because of the possibilities for great understanding and theory development. Yin (2014) defined case-studies as an “empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-world context” (2014, p.16). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) narrowed down those contextual factors to others such as geographical parameters and the role of functions of the participants.

Hence, this research methodology qualifies as appropriate for this investigation, which complies with these features of case studies. On the one hand, the CLIL phenomenon is of recent implementation: it has been enacted for just a decade in Secondary Education, bringing about substantial transformations in the institutions involved. One of those dimensions affects the linguistic demands and language teaching directly, these being the phenomena under investigation. On the other hand, this situation cannot be divorced from its setting, being the relevance of contextual factors undeniable. In this case, some of the determinant factors are the special circumstances and features surrounding the community of practice, namely the CLIL programme in Madrid and in particular of the participating institutions, as well as each individual cognition of each of the teachers.

For Duff and Anderson (2015), multi-case studies have currently become a benchmark due to the opportunity they offer to access various examples of the phenomenon under research and the possibility to ascertain shared features and contextual variation. Here, the six teachers involved share a common reality and position as EFL teachers in bilingual education settings which follow the CAM official programme. However, they teach in three different schools, so there might be certain contextual factors which may shape their experience and understanding of the programme.

Certainly, a single-case study would not have been sufficient when trying to scrutinise whether a transformation of teacher roles is actually taking place. As Duff and Anderson claim (2015), “multiple cases allow for a multiplicity of voices (perspectives) to be heard and enable the researcher to subsequently draw on multiple data sources during analysis and

writing” (p.116). When compared to single-case study, a multi-case study allows for more valuable insights into the phenomenon in question, as it facilitates the identification of common features and patterns occurring in the three contexts. Due to the considerable amount of data obtained and managed for analysis, the extension to a higher number of participants would have been unfeasible. To make it extensible to a larger scale sample of EFL teachers in bilingual schools only in Madrid would imply losing a profound, deep and triangulated understanding of the subject under research.

As Yin (2018) discusses, it could be argued that the intervention stage of this study should not truly be considered ‘case study’, drawing on the argument that the researcher has had certain control in an experimental way. However, it must be taken into account that this intervention is solely one stage of the whole study, which has a global purpose clearly framed within a case study. As Scholz and Tietje (2002) argue, experimental design can also be part of case studies.

Furthermore, this research can be classified as an embedded case study because of its different levels of analysis. For instance, the current roles of the EFL teachers are defined in the syllabus, but also inferred from what the participants express in the interviews. Case studies, and embedded case studies in particular, can incorporate both quantitative and qualitative evidence (Yin, 2018). This study follows a mixed-methods approach, but it is qualitative dominant (QUAL+quant). In contrast to the outcome-oriented approach (Nunan, 1992) of quantitative approaches, this study is mostly qualitative because of the nature of the phenomenon addressed, as it is assumed that human nature is multifaceted and complex. Following Creswell classification of what makes up qualitative research (2014, p. 234-235), the present study fits into this category, because, among other reasons, data have been collected in their “natural setting”, using the “researcher as the key instrument” in the data gathering, “multiple sources of data” (e.g. documents or interviews) and mainly inductive but also some deductive data analysis (see 5.5.5.), and also focusing on the participants’ meaning about the matter.

Although it is mostly qualitative, it makes use of a questionnaire, which contains close-ended questions. In addition, it is quantitative because it draws on some numerical evidence, mainly in terms of the amount of shared experiences, which can be indicative of tangible tendencies shared by the participants. The higher the number, the more stable the tendency.

There is no agreement concerning the exact definition of ‘mixed-methods’. For illustrative purposes, Johnson et al. (2007) carried out an analysis of up to a total of 19

definitions. John Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) describe it as “a research design (or methodology) in which the researcher collects, analyzes, and mixes (integrates or connects) both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a multiphase program of inquiry” (p.119). This notion primarily refers to the nature of the data. In contrast, Greene (2006) widens the scope, including the analysis and the purpose: “more than one methodological tradition and thus more than one way of knowing, along with more than one kind of technique for gathering, analysing, and representing human phenomena, all for the purpose of better understanding” (as cited in Johnson et al., 2007, p 119). As it can be observed, her emphasis is on the understanding objective. However, one of the definitions that encompasses all the dimensions and reflects the stance adopted in this research is the following:

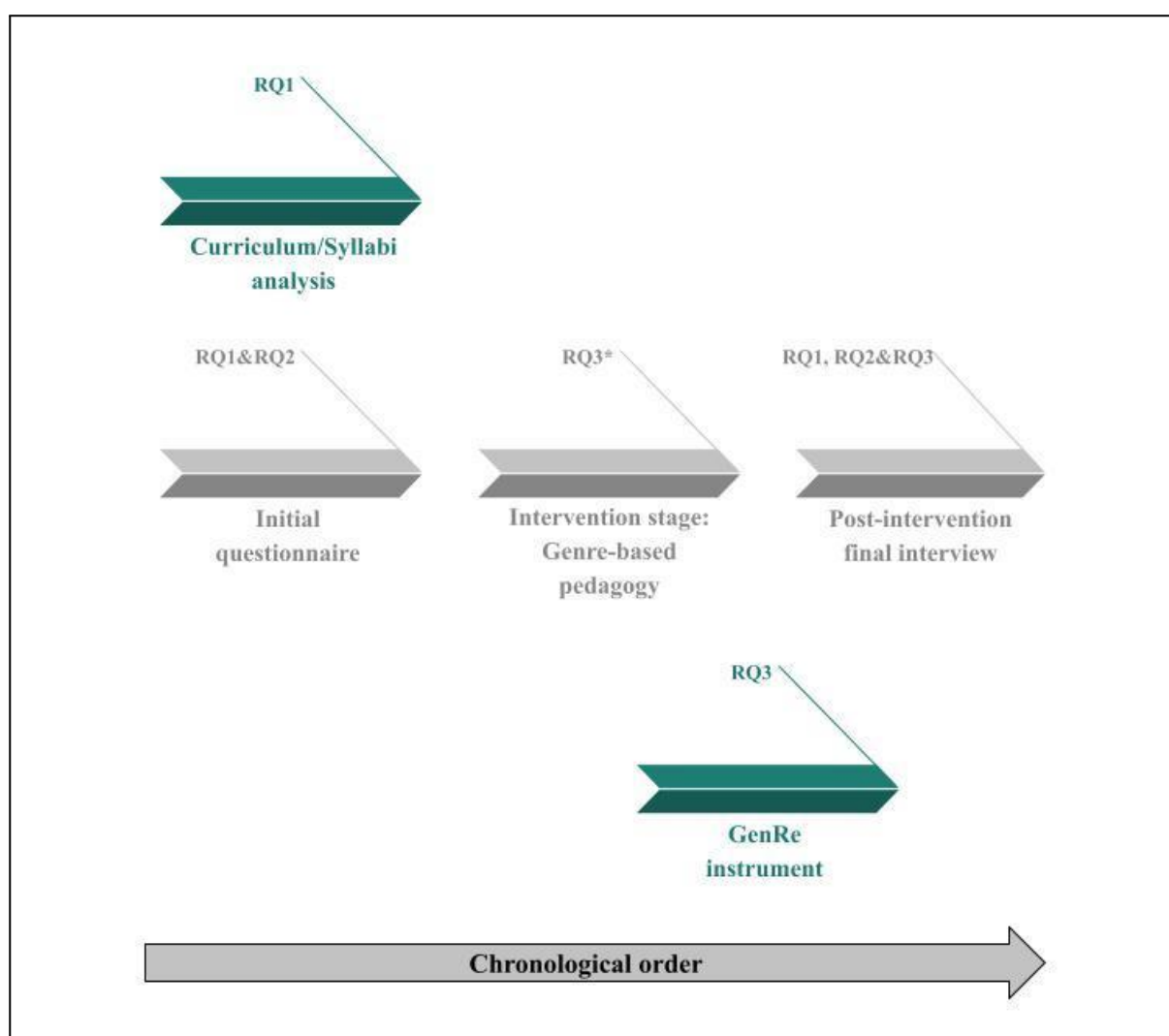
Mixed methods means the combination of different qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and data analysis in one empirical research project. This combination can serve for two different purposes: it can help to discover and to handle threats for validity arising from the use of qualitative or quantitative research by applying methods from the alternative methodological tradition and can thus ensure good scientific practice by enhancing the validity of methods and research findings. Or it can be used to gain a fuller picture and deeper understanding of the investigated phenomenon by relating complementary findings to each other which result from the use of methods from the different methodological traditions of qualitative and quantitative research. (Udo Kelle, n.d. as cited in Johnson et al. 2007, p.120)

Nonetheless, it is Yin (2006) who specifies that mixed-methods can be used to answer the same research question, as it has occurred in this study. Moreover, following the same scholar (2018), case studies encompass various sources of evidence which need to be triangulated. Our study has precisely dealt with different and complementary types of data, aiming at gaining profound understanding of the question and validity of interpretation of results. Denzin’s (1978) conceptualization of triangulation encompasses the use of both data and methodology triangulation. Taking his typology, this study also follows methodological triangulation as not solely does it rely on multiple sources of data but it also applies different methods. In doing so, triangulation helps to construct validity. The confidence in the results is reassured and in the event of contradiction, it can be caused by the nature of the phenomenon under investigation itself rather than by the method. In short, mixed-methods enable triangulation and complementarity.

The previous section has accounted for the data gathering process from a chronological point of view. Figure 12 shows how the different sets of data relate to each of the three research questions. In grey we can see the three sets of data which require a strict chronological order. In phase 1, the interviews were collected. In phase 2, the pedagogical intervention was conducted, followed by phase 3, which corresponds to the interviews. Highlighted in green we can find the data sets which are not contingent on a strict chronological factor. On the one hand, the curriculum and syllabi, which could be analysed any time. On the other hand, the GenRe instrument, which was given to teachers at the beginning of the process with the instruction that it had to be completed parallel to the intervention and handed back to the researcher at the moment of the interview.

Figure 12

Data collection procedure and relation with RQs



The following subsections will present the research procedure involving the multiple sources of data deployed in the various stages of the research and the analysis procedures in each case. The chronological order has been used as the principle to organise the subsection. First, the analysis procedures of the EFL curriculum and syllabi will be detailed, as it is independent of the rest of the data sets. It will be followed by the initial questionnaire. After that, the pedagogical intervention (and its associated tools) will be explained, together with the GenRe instrument. Then, the interview, which was the last stage, will be detailed. Because of the complexity of the interview analysis, a special section will be devoted to the analysis procedures of this set of data in 5.5.5.

5.5.1. Content Analysis of the EFL curriculum and syllabus (RQ1)

The role of EFL Secondary teachers in ‘bilingual schools’ is to be examined first from the perspective of the official curriculum and the school syllabus, based on the assumption that the current functions performed by language teachers will be somehow determined by the guidelines compiled in these documents.

The concepts and terms “curriculum” and “syllabus” are often referred to interchangeably. It may be convenient then to review both concepts. A definition of curriculum could be the academic plan prescribed by the authorities holding responsibility as policy makers. Objectively, any contemporary curriculum should prescribe the core curriculum areas and their basic contents, skills and processes according to specific school grades and stages (Deng & Luke, 2008). Moreover, in the last years, much salience has been given to the so-called ‘twenty-first century skills’ and competences. In a globalised and technological world where we can find any information with just one click, the focus has shifted from the mere transmission of knowledge to practices favouring the development of abilities such as critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork, collaboration, oral and written communication, creativity or social responsibility, among others (OECD, 2008). In line with this, recent curricular reforms in Europe and worldwide have advocated for a competency-based model by which curricula are “usually designed around a set of key competences/competencies that can be cross-curricular and/or subject-bound” (UNESCO, n.d.). The European Parliament (2006) categorised the key competences to be attained by all citizens and described any competence as an applied knowledge, that is, a knowledge of how to do something.

On the other hand, a “syllabus” can be defined as “a bid to shape and set the parameters of the curriculum, in a particular place and time” (Luke et al., 2010, p. 7). That is, the notion of syllabus refers to the application and implementation of the curriculum in a specific educational setting by a given teacher or a given group of teachers. Thus, the stakeholders, in this case the school and the group of EFL teachers, play a prominent role in the way the curriculum guidelines are devised in the syllabus design.

The EFL syllabus limits teacher roles in the sense that this document establishes the fundamental elements guiding teaching practice: content, objectives, learning outcomes, assessment or methodology. Furthermore, syllabi tend to capture the philosophy of school policy and regulations regarding other aspects such as teacher collaboration or spaces allocated for department meetings. It goes without saying that these considerations may be bound to influence teacher roles inasmuch they may become paramount in successful implementation of bilingual programmes, as argued in chapter 2. Consequently, it was only necessary to examine these documents with the purpose of identifying the possible shift of roles that teachers working in bilingual schools might have experienced with respect to the official curricula and syllabi followed. In doing so, we aim at mainly answering RQ1.

To examine these documents, the approach that was followed is Qualitative Document Analysis (QDA), a research method suitable particularly for case studies which try to offer a richer account of the phenomenon under inquiry. More specifically, a content analysis of the aforementioned documents was carried out. Content analysis is a widely used method in educational research and it enables the researcher to infer solid information from a text (Krippendorff, 2004; Weber, 1990). It can be applied to any written text ranging from interview transcriptions to documents, however their length (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore, content analysis serves the purposes of this data set and will also be employed in the analysis of the subsequent interviews.

When examining the EFL curriculum, it must be noted that this study will make reference mainly to the regional curriculum of the CAM, but the state document is embedded in the regional one. In this sense, the regional authorities are not allowed to remove anything from the state curriculum. Since the curricular elements sections are the same in both documents, only the introduction (justification) part of the state curriculum for 4th ESO (p. 422-423) was examined, along with the entire regional curriculum. In both cases, an inductive approach was followed.

For both sets of data, the curriculum and the three EFL syllabi, the large amount of data had to be condensed and the key areas for analysis had to be determined. Thus, the

categories to be employed were arranged prior to examining the documents in a deductive approach. The choice of such categories derives from the set of theoretical principles presented in chapter 2; namely the evolution of EFL teacher roles in light of CLIL implementation (see section 2.5.). These categories are rather similar in both cases, with slight differences attending to the particularities and purpose of each set of data described above:

Table 8

Categories of analysis of EFL curriculum and syllabi

STATE/REGIONAL EFL CURRICULUM
- EFL curriculum principles - The role of academic competence - The role of the EFL subject in CLIL settings - Any relevant didactic orientation (for EFL teachers within these settings)
EFL SYLLABI
- References to CLIL programmes/bilingual education - Purpose of the EFL subject within CLIL programmes/bilingual education - Specific actions and measures related to teacher collaboration (e.g. regular meetings) - Academic skills and genres in EFL

As previously mentioned, the results of the analysis of the ‘written documents’ was triangulated with the information obtained from the rest of the data, which takes us to the next stage and set of data.

5.5.2. Initial Teacher Questionnaire (RQ1&RQ2)

The second set of data was gathered through a teacher questionnaire (see Appendix D), which had to be filled in before moving on to the pedagogical intervention phase. Its aim was to identify the current roles of EFL teachers and teachers’ understanding of them. In doing so, we specifically target RQ1 and RQ2.

Because of the highly contextualised nature of the phenomenon under study, there were no previous instruments which proved valid for this research. Therefore, a special questionnaire consisting of 20 questions was designed for the purpose of this research. The choice of items stems from the theoretical principles and results from previous research which have been extensively addressed in chapter 2, particularly in section 2.5. (e.g. the reshaping of the EFL discipline and teacher roles which has taken place or the teacher collaboration dimension), and in chapter 3, involving the theoretical framework of teacher cognition applied to the context under investigation here. Naturally, the draft evolved in the sequence of questions and the phrasing of some items after various revisions and its piloting with a non-participant EFL teacher.

This instrument was carefully designed so as to eliminate any possibility of bias, ambiguity or misunderstanding. For its operationalization, none of the responses were in the form of short nor open answers, as opposed to the interview, consisting of open-ended questions. The incorporation of short and open answers was unnecessary inasmuch as the interviews would cater teachers for the chance to respond in that form later. In other words, a structured questionnaire was designed, taking into consideration that it would be triangulated with the subsequent interview.

The items were conceived as closed questions so that a more numerical and quantitative approach could be applied. As argued above, quantitative methods fit into case studies (Yin, 2018). A multi-case study encompassing three different educational settings could benefit from a mixed-method approach, especially when trying to obtain factual information such as the frequency of teacher collaboration or the number of guidelines on it. In that sense, closed questions are “directly to the point and deliberately more focused than open-ended questions” (Cohen et al. 2007, p.321).

Concerning the sequencing, the questions were guided by two organising principles. The first one is thematic organisation, which groups the same broad topics together. Secondly, it was decided that questions which have been classified as ‘behavioural’ (Dörnyei; 2009, p.5) or ‘event’ (Richards; 2009, p.188) were to be placed first⁴⁸. These prompts with a factual orientation included items about the specific tasks and responsibilities of EFL teachers within the bilingual programme as well as about the extent of collaboration with the content teacher. In order to reduce internal bias, the ‘perception’ prompts were placed later, which also contributes to a smooth transition from mild to sensitive or potentially threatening topics

⁴⁸ After the demographic questions.

(Dörnyei, 2009, p.47). Otherwise, participants could conclude that those actions describe what is expected from them. These questions, also called ‘perspective’ questions (Richards; 2009, p.188), belong to the ‘attitudinal’ type in Dörnyei classification, as they encompass beliefs, values, opinion or attitudes (2009, p.5). These are more concerned with RQ2 and include items regarding how teachers perceived the relevance of their subject or the content-language interplay. Table 9 relates the variables or issues considered with the RQ and the corresponding questionnaire items.

Table 9

Distribution of questions in the questionnaire

ISSUE	RQ	ITEMS
Actions taken	RQ1	1.1.,1.2.,1.3.,1.4.,2.1,2.2.,2.3., 2.4.,3.,3.1.
Teacher cognition: perceptions about CLIL	RQ2	5, 6, 7, 8
Teacher cognition: perception about own role	RQ2	4, 9,10,11,12

As for the types of prompts, 14 out of the 20 questions⁴⁹ (there are actually 13 questions but 3 of them contain subquestions) are rating scales, enabling us to access information with a higher degree of distinction, accuracy and objectivity. The vast majority of them contain agreement (Likert scale) or frequency scales (Likert-type scale questions). We opted for a 4-point scale instead of a 5-point scale. The reason for such decision lies in the anticipation that respondents might stick to the neutral tendency (e.g. neither *agree* or *disagree*) to avoid making a choice. This would result in irrelevant responses, and in line with Dörnyei’s view that “neutral items do not work well on a Likert scale because they do not evoke salient evaluative reactions” (2009, p.28). Only one of the items comprise a semantic differential scale, which makes respondents choose from a continuum having two bipolar or opposite adjectives in the extremes:

6. Do you think that your EFL subject (as it is described in the official curriculum) is relevant for your current students? *Totally irrelevant --- totally relevant.*

⁴⁹ Demographic questions not included.

The six remaining items are dichotomous questions (yes/no) questions of the type:

3. Does your school have specific guidelines which regulate your cooperation with the content teacher?

In some items, the dichotomous questions led to contingency questions whose aim was to specify the frequency of occurrence (Likert-type scale):

2.1. Have you ever helped content teachers to correct one of their exams/activities?

2.2. If so, how often have you done it?

Finally, some of the issues and themes addressed in the questionnaire will be further explored from a qualitative perspective from the interview data (see 5.5.4.).

5.5.3. Implementing a genre-based approach: the pedagogical intervention and the GenRe instrument (RQ3)

As one of the aims of this study is to explore how EFL teachers can provide guidance on the acquisition of discipline-specific language, particularly by means of a genre-based approach, the pedagogical intervention intended to put into practice this proposal. As mentioned in the previous section, it is time to put into practice suggestions such as this one for the involvement and collaboration of the language teacher. To the best of the author's knowledge, such suggestions have remained as proposals. That is, they have not been tested in order to assess their impact and to standardise them.

Despite being considered at first, natural classroom observation was soon discarded for data gathering. In the case of the rest of the suggestions for new roles, finding out whether they are actually being implemented is accessible thanks to the questionnaires, documents or interviews. On the contrary, as for how the teacher supports discipline literacy, we could have been observing for weeks and yet the sessions observed would not have offered the results to answer our research questions. We could have even attempted to analyse the occurrence of CDFs in English lessons as a means of finding out the role of academic language in EFL as Lechner did (2016). This is surely interesting and a valuable idea for parallel research. Still, it would be insufficient to meet our objective of exploring the possibilities and effects of dealing with a shared pedagogy as we intend with this study.

Against this backdrop, a pedagogical intervention was selected as the most suitable procedure for this research. This intervention methodology falls within the scope of

educational design research (EDR). According to Eri (2013), this methodology aims at “conducting interventions and experimentations in institutions and work-based settings founded on theoretical standards, and thereby revise and develop theory through an iterative process of projection and reflection” (2013, p. 2460). In Collins et al.’s view (2004), “this approach of progressive refinement in design involves putting a first version of a design into the world to see how it works” (p.18). This is precisely what our intervention intends. Following Eri’s (2013) classification of types of intervention, the one designed here would fit into the category of linear intervention:

- The researcher seeks control of all the variables
- The contents and goals of the intervention are known ahead of time by the researchers
- The subjects, typically teachers and students in school, are expected to execute the intervention without resistance or arguments.
- The aim is to control all the variables and to achieve a standardised solution module,

(2013, p.2464)

Feature 3 might be considered rather extreme as it seems to suggest that teachers may be reluctant to test the approach under research. In our context, participants were given the model and materials but they were explained that they could do any modifications they may consider relevant. After all, they are experts in foreign language teaching. In any case, this intervention does not fit into the subtype of formative intervention because our intervention does not pursue, at this point, a transformation of the participants and their teaching practices. It simply aims at testing specific pedagogies to explore its possibilities.

The following lines will be devoted to the account of how the genre-based pedagogy and its associated methodology was implemented in this intervention. The Sydney School Teaching Learning Cycle described in section 4.4.4. was adapted so as to design lessons following a genre-based pedagogy in 4th ESO (age 15-16). More specifically, these lessons aimed at putting into practice one of the most common genres in the discipline of History at secondary levels: a historical account. The main features of this genre have been detailed in 4.4.3.

The justification for choosing 4th ESO has already been exposed above, and the choice of History and the specific genre responds to various reasons which were intrinsically linked. Firstly, the subject of History is one of the most frequent in bilingual programmes at Secondary level. Secondly, as explained by Coffin (2006b) these types of explaining genres

become more and more frequent in the ages 14-16, also because this is when they begin to evaluate (appraise) with a growing soundness, in terms of cognition and maturity. It was more suitable to put it into practice with older students in Secondary Education who could have a certain degree of maturity when exposed to this pedagogy. Indeed, as Christie and Derewianka (2008) argue, when pupils are in their early adolescence “they become more detached, able to produce some sustained sequences of events, while reflecting on causes and effects in history” (2008, p. 88). Moreover, historical accounts are connected with curriculum requirements, since are associated with the content and learning outcomes which secondary students are expected to attain⁵⁰. Last but not least, historical accounts are surely demanding but not as much as other historical genres such as historical expositions or discussions, which require deeper personal interpretation. For all these reasons, the students in 4thESO are well-equipped to deal with this genre.

Moving on to the research procedure, after commenting on the genre-based learning approach with them, teachers were provided with the Powerpoint Presentation (PPT) and materials and given a few days to get familiar with it, ask any queries or make any necessary modification to suit their teaching style. The intervention was not designed according to a certain number of lessons but according to the three stages of the Teaching and Learning Circle. In that sense, it was estimated that the entire intervention would take up at least three lessons but this was not mandatory as it could vary from one teacher to another. Anyhow, the length of the intervention is not decisive; it is the inclusion of the three stages that is a determining factor.

Let us now present the structure and stages of the intervention. The first day, and previous to stage 1 of the Teaching Learning Circle per se, students were asked to write about the causes that led to the French Revolution on a separate piece of paper, using the information projected on the whiteboard and all their knowledge of English. For privacy reasons, they were asked not to write their names but only their initials. Once they had finished, the pieces of papers were collected and stage 1 started. Table 10 offers a summary of the activities done in class, chosen from all the range of activities available for all of the stages (see 4.4.1. for an account of these possible activities). All the materials can be found Appendix E.

⁵⁰ For more information about the LOMCE curriculum for 4th ESO in Madrid, see BOCM (2015), pages 58-71.

Table 10*The intervention stages*

Stage 1: Deconstruction stage	-Brainstorming about the genre and its purpose for his History subject - Read sample model with focus on the genre moves - Read a longer model with focus on linking words of cause and effect - Explain the linguistic features of the genre - Puzzle to reorder a text - Guess the cause/effect expressions erased from samples - Word-formation with verbs and abstract nouns (to exemplify nominalizations)
Stage 2: Joint construction stage	-The whole class, with the help and guidance of the teacher, writes one historical account about the increase of population in England during the Industrial Revolution. The information about the background and account sequence is provided to the students as well. - As indicated in the model, teacher accepts students responses but rewords them when necessary. -Once they have finished, students copy the final product to keep the text they have constructed collaboratively as a good instance of a historical account.
Stage 3: Independent construction stage	- Now students write the text about the French Revolution again. They can use the handouts (see Appendix F) and ask the teacher when necessary. - They are provided with a checklist at all times in order to help them remember all the requirements.

Students were told to write only their initials in the final text as well. The reason for giving them such instructions is that these texts were collected in order to be compared to the first version of the same text prior to stage 1. Five of the collected texts were chosen randomly to be analysed. The items used for the comparison were mainly the features of historical accounts presented to students (see Appendix G), namely:

- Paragraphs
- Length
- Transition words
- Cause and effect vocabulary

- Other vocabulary to express 'change'
- Subject specific terminology
- Genre movements: background + account sequence + (deduction)
- Other remarks (passive voice, nominalizations, word transformation, etc)

It must be taken into consideration that as it is teachers and not students who are under study, such written activities were not collected as study data but rather to be used later in the interview phase in order to comment on them with the teachers. However interesting the results could be, this would imply shifting the focus to the students' production and improvement, which would make up a different study. In contrast, our aim was to expose teachers to this suggested pedagogy so that they could make informed judgements about its potential applicability.

The lessons were conducted and taught by the participant teacher. Although the role of the researcher during those days was very limited, she helped with other tasks such as passing materials on and she interacted with teachers and students. For that reason, it can be considered a participant observation (Cowie, 2009, p. 167). An observation tool specially designed for this intervention was deployed. This tool consisted of a checklist which was adapted from the Teaching and Learning Circle with the aim of identifying the target behaviours; namely, whether the teacher performed the different moves and stages in the genre-based pedagogy and its methodological considerations, for instance (see Appendix H for complete tool):

- Does the teacher make explicit the importance of learning this?
- Explicit references to the school subject this genre is practised.
- Explains the text structure specific to the school genre.

Each item of the checklist was accompanied by a space for any additional field note to register any critical episode that could be later discussed during the interview phase.

It must be noted that this tool was not devised to assess whether the participants implemented the genre-based correctly, but simply to keep track of whether and how they complied with the different stages and to annotate any relevant information or episode worth being discussed in the interviews. It must be borne in mind that the main objective of the intervention was to expose the teachers to this pedagogy so that they could later evaluate its strengths, weaknesses and possibilities for further implementation.

It should be taken into consideration that due to time constraints and the impossibility of taking over multiple EFL lessons, only one pedagogical intervention like this was feasible. If we were to focus on the students' competence and its progression, a follow-up study could be carried out as further research, in which teachers implemented the model throughout an extended period of time. At any rate, this intervention process meets the objective of our research as it follows Reeves' model (2006, as cited in Eri, 2013), being the third and fourth elements the basis for further research:

- Identification of the problem: EFL lessons need to support content lessons.
- Development of prototype solution based on theory: genre-based pedagogy as means of addressing the problem.
- Cycles of testing and reflection: this intervention could serve as a point of departure.
- Reflection to produce 'design principles': Having analysed the potential effects of a longitudinal implementation of the approach, it could be systematised.

To accompany this rather exploratory phase of the research, teachers were administered the GenRe instrument so that they could reflect on the application and feasibility of the genre-based approach and fill this table alone, at their own pace and with no time pressure. They had more space and time for this, based on the assumption that only after some days involved in the dynamics of the genre-based pedagogy, would they reach a level of understanding that would eventually lead them to make a judgement based on their (ongoing) experience. The GenRe instrument used is an adaptation made from another instrument called CoRe, which was created by Loughran, Mulhall and Berry (2004) to access teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. It was precisely when trying to represent teachers' PCK on specific content areas that Loughran, Mulhall and Berry (2012) developed the Content Representation (CoRe) device, whose aim is to enable teachers to reflect their conceptualization of contents by means of providing prompts to be completed by them. Starting with the 'big ideas/concepts', the rest of the prompts were formulated as follows:

- Why you intend your students to learn this idea.
- Why it is important for students to know this.
- What else you might know about this idea (that you don't want students to know yet).
- Difficulties/Limitations connected with teaching this idea.
- Knowledge about students' thinking which influences your teaching of this idea.
- Teacher procedures (and particular reasons for using these to engage with this idea).

- Specific ways of ascertaining students' understanding or confusion around this idea.

Loughran, Mulhall and Berry (2012, p.17-19)

Not only has the use of this instrument been validated by these scholars' research, but it has also been deployed in other studies. For instance, Bertram (2010) made use of the CoRe instrument as part of his research for his doctoral thesis. In his longitudinal study of six teachers' PCK, this device proved to be helpful in ascertaining professional knowledge. Moreover, it was observed that it creates opportunity for reflection among participants. Similarly, in his attempt to ascertain CLIL practitioners' language awareness and its interplay with teacher cognition, Thomas Morton (2012) adapted the CoRe instrument and made it operational for CLIL by adding the linguistic component (2012, p 124), aiming at investigating CLIL teachers' language awareness (TLA), also in relation to their PCK. In that sense, he devised a second column in which teachers had to specify the linguistic elements related to the topic (What Loughran, Mulhall and Berry called 'big ideas'). Each prompt appearing in the second column was formulated according to the eight prompts in the original instrument:

- What language you intend the students to learn/use in order to talk/write about this topic.
- Why it is important for students to learn/use this particular language.
- What other language related to this topic that might be important for the future but can be introduced later.
- Language difficulties/limitations students are likely to have connected with this topic.
- Knowledge of how students use language which influences your teaching of this topic.
- Other factors related to the fact that the teaching is in a L2 which influence your teaching in this topic.
- How you might adapt (if necessary) teaching procedures to take into account the fact that students are studying this topic in L2. Are there any language-teaching procedures which could be used?
- How you might use language/interaction in ascertaining students' understanding or confusion in this topic.

(Morton; 2012, p.125)

Furthermore, he used the CoRe as an interview tool prior to classroom observation. In fact, the sixteen prompts (eight per column) became the questions guiding this pre-teaching interview.

For the purpose of this study, the CoRe instrument was re-adapted to suit our research and was then called GenRe. It nurtures from Morton's perspectives on language awareness, and ultimately, the notion of language being at the core of content acquisition previously discussed. As for our adaptation (see appendix I for the extended version) the language component is not so much connected with teachers PCK of the English discipline as it is with the genre-based approach. In other words, the linguistic component here is related to the type of language awareness which may be necessary in EFL if a genre-based approach were implemented as a means of providing support in developing students' academic skills. That is, participants had to complete the prompts as if they were implementing the genre-based approach in their lessons.

It should be noted that it is not the purpose of the instrument to examine teachers' PCK in terms of content and/or language, but of subject-specific genres. For this purpose, it is unnecessary to keep the two columns of content and language separated. Current approaches to teaching draw on competence-based models, focusing on the skills which students are to attain; and which, in the particular case of language teaching, adopt a functional perspective. Following a genre-based approach aligns with this view, so its vision with regard to language is integrative. In other words, to follow this model implies to teach students a specific competence. In this case, it tallies with the competence of meeting the specific purpose and goal of communication, sticking to the discipline-specific genre requirements. Hence, the application of this approach allies with the current competences approach extended in education. The skill to stick to any given genre requirement is a competence. Against this backdrop, where the original CoRe inserted 'idea' (referring to content), we have inserted the term 'competence' and to make it easier for participants, they were always provided with the example of '(teaching how to write) historical accounts. Morton's CoRe has 'language' on a separate column, but adopting the genre-based approach's integrative vision of language, we have combined them into one entity. The eight prompts have been formulated as follows:

Table 11*The GenRe instrument*

1.What you intend your students to learn/ What language you intend your students to learn/use in order to carry out this task.	
2.Why it is important for students to learn this/acquire this competence. (Why it is important for students to learn/use this particular language.	
3.What else you know about this competence and you don't intend your students to know yet. /What other language related to the writing of a (insert genre, i.e. historical account) that might be important but can be introduced later.	
4.Difficulties/limitations connected with teaching this competence. / Language limitations and difficulties that students are likely to have when dealing with this task (the task of writing a -insert genre-i.e. historical account).	
5. Knowledge about students' thinking and use of language which could influence your teaching of this competence. / Knowledge of students' use of language that will influence your teaching of this (insert genre-i.e. historical account).	
6. Other factors that influence your teaching of this competence. Other factors related to your setting (bilingual school) which will influence your teaching of this.	
7. Teaching procedures and particular reasons for using these to engage them with the learning of this competence./ How you might adapt teaching procedures taking into account your specific setting	
8. Specific ways of ascertaining/verifying students' understanding or confusion around this competence. The extent to which language (proper to i.e. historical accounts) may make difficult to carry out this particular task and how you will make sure that your students use the language effectively.	

The layout of this adaptation was modified after the pilot study. Despite its integrative vision, it was originally designed in two separate tables to help participants understand the questions. However, it was detected that splitting it in two tables actually presented more difficulties and they could be complemented in just one grid. Furthermore, it was judged necessary to include a short explanation in some of the grids.

As stated earlier, content analysis was judged as the most appropriate procedure for data analysis. A preliminary manual analysis was complemented by the software MAXQDA. As the process of codification was similar to the one conducted in the interviews and to avoid repetition, the specificities of the content analysis procedures will be detailed in 5.5.5.

5.5.4. Teacher interviews (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3)

The last stage in the research design corresponds to teacher interviews. The triangulation of data pursued is completed with this set of data. It is for this reason that the interviews were devised to answer the three research questions.

As far as the particular domain of teacher cognition is concerned, conducting interviews with the participants was considered a suitable method of gaining insights into teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards their practice and the nature of EFL lessons in CLIL contexts. Securing information on the respondents' perceptions, attitudes and beliefs is precisely one of the main advantages of interviews (Litosseliti, 2003), which allows for deeper insights into participants' views.

More specifically, they were semi-structured interviews in order to not limit participants' views. This type of interviews also favours the construction of positive rapport between the interviewer and the interviewee. Even though there is a fixed sequence and grouping of questions which enables data comprehensiveness comparisons among participants; the use of open-ended questions and inquiry derived from participant responses makes participants feel at ease as in a natural discussion with colleagues. Furthermore, the fact the interviewer is an EFL teacher in the same context facilitates natural interaction instead of a rigid manufactured interview. As a result, interviewees feel engaged in the interview as if they were discussing professional issues with their colleagues. In that sense, our interview meets the condition to be "understood as interactional events" (Edley & Litosseliti 2010, p. 175) and as a social encounter (Walford, 2001). In this regard, the social nature of interviews must be acknowledged since they are spaces of social interaction in which ideas are often co-constructed (Mann, 2011). In this case, this fact affects the data

collection inasmuch the participants felt safe in discussing their professional role with a colleague.

The use of open questions, as opposed to the closed questions in the initial questionnaire, facilitates the contrast and triangulation of the different sets of data. That was the purpose of deploying both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews) data collection procedures, which also counteracts and minimises the potential limitations of each technique. Interviews with each of the participants took place within a week after the intervention, once the texts collected had been analysed. They were audio recorded and later transcribed, following the transcription conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (see Jefferson, 2004). Even though our purpose is not doing Conversation Analysis (CA), his code allows us to register pauses, intonation and emphasis, which may play a significant role when ascertaining respondents' views.

Overall, the interview was divided into two major parts according to the interest and objectives of research. The first one addressed RQ1 and RQ2 and encompasses questions concerning the transformation of teacher roles, collaboration, the focus of the EFL subject or the role of language in CLIL. The second part revolves around the potential implementation of the genre-based approach and consequently, addresses RQ3. Participants summarised their experience during the intervention and explained their point of view about the strengths, feasibility and limitations of the approach. Then, they were presented the students' historical accounts and a table comparing how learners' writings had evolved and the results were discussed with them. As these were semi-structured interviews, divergences between interviews appeared, but the general script can be found in Appendix J.

5.5.5. Developing a coding framework

The previous section has already outlined the analysis procedures in the case of the rest of the data. However, the complexity of the interviews and the amount of data generated by them when compared with the other sets, deem necessary a detailed explanation of the steps followed in the design of the coding framework.

The procedure chosen to examine the large amount of data obtained in this stage of the research process was qualitative content analysis. This allows for an inductive scrutiny of the data, enabling the inference of themes and patterns. However, deductive reasoning is not necessarily rejected in content analysis (Patton, 2002). In Kuckartz's words (2019), "[categories] can be defined in advance or formed directly from the material itself, where

mixed forms are of course possible” (2019, p. 13) The interview was shaped by various block of questions, each of them intending to answer one particular research question. In this case, the major topics which shape the interviews will serve as a point of departure for the analysis, which could be considered a deductive starting point. For this reason, some initial macro categories were suggested in relation with those broad topics covered during the interviews, as Table 12 displays:

Table 12

Distribution of initial categories and research questions

RESEARCH QUESTION	INITIAL CATEGORY	STANDING FOR
RQ1	PRA	Teacher practice
RQ1-RQ2	TRA	Role transformation
RQ1-RQ2	SUP	Support
RQ1-RQ2	COL	Teacher collaboration
RQ1-RQ2	GAP	Language gap
RQ1	COO	Common objectives
RQ1-RQ2	CUR	Curriculum
RQ2	VIS	Vision of CLIL
RQ2	PUR	Current purpose of EFL
RQ2	STs	Students’ perception
RQ2	CAL	CALP
RQ3	UTI/ADV	Utility and advantages of the genre-based pedagogy
RQ3	FEA	Feasibility of the genre-based pedagogy

In five cases, the same broad category covers RQ1 and RQ2. This results from participants distinguishing between transformations which have already taken place (RQ1) and those which, in their view, should occur according to their ideal practices (RQ2). The

initial categories shown above enabled a preliminary classification of extracts which served as smaller units of analysis from which new codes and themes emerged.

Utterances were discarded as units of analysis, as this would generate an excessive number of similar and overlapping codes which could eventually obscure the analysis. Thus, it was judged appropriate to choose longer extracts or whole responses, looking for segments which could be “conceptually meaningful; for example, a block of sentences that organically elaborate one cohesive idea” (O’Connor & Hoffe, 2020, p.6). The risk of using larger segments is the emergence of other themes in the same segment. However, the coding strategy used in this current analysis considers the possibility of assigning more than one code to the same unit (Saldaña, 2009).

From this point on, the rest of the analysis process was inductive; that is, themes emerge from the examination of the interview transcriptions. Having determined the units of analysis, the process of coding took place. Following Saldaña (2009), a code is understood as “a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (p.3). This way, we can organise coded data into broader categories according to the features which they share. We must take into account that sometimes, *codification* and *categorization* are used interchangeably, but they are not. As Kvale (2008/2011) puts it, codifying involves assigning keywords to a segment whereas categorization entails a more systematic conceptualization (p. 139).

In the course of the analysis, several codes emerged. On a more micro-level, let us illustrate this process by presenting an example of code appearing in this study:

Table 13

Illustration of a code

CODE	Useful approach
EXTRACT	Al final yo creo que es un formato muy útil y que se puede aplicar en muchas cosas. Ehh Escribía ahí que también se puede aplicar si estamos en Lengua y Literatura o dentro de la asignatura de inglés estudiáramos la prosa o la poesía, al final podrías decir, tipos de expresiones que se utilizan en en la poesía o en la prosa, ¿qué estructura tiene? Al final se puede aplicar. Yo creo que es un formato muy válido (T2)
RQ	3

All the codes were assembled in a codebook (see Appendix K); namely a compilation of codes which includes a short description of its content and a short data example for reference (Saldaña; 2009, p.21). Here we can observe the record associated with the example shown above:

Table 14

Extract from the codebook

CODE	Useful approach
DEFINITION	The genre-based approach is useful
WHEN TO USE	When the teacher states that the genre-based approach is useful, giving reasons for that.
EXAMPLE	Y creo que es un formato muy útil, que se debería aplicar más y nada más. Creo que, en mi experiencia, yo creo que ha funcionado. Al final ellos han aplicado lo que les hemos enseñado, las estructuras, las transiciones, el vocabulario, expresiones que tienen que utilizar.

Following Sadaña's (2009), manual coding was initially conducted for the First Cycle coding, given the small-scale nature of this study. In doing so, the coder gets "more control over and ownership of the work" (2009, p.22). Getting familiar with the data this way offers the coder more comprehensible knowledge of the issues under research. In this sense, the cyclical nature of coding also benefits a better understanding, as the process of coding is not presupposed to be perfect the first time.

Once the codes had been gone through and revised, a Second Cycle coding method was applied. Its purpose was to find out more accurate wording for the codes, to merge the similar ones from a conceptual point of view or even to discard those codes which may be redundant or irrelevant (Lewins & Silver, 2007, p. 100). This process also facilitated a more precise organisation from a categorical, thematic or conceptual perspective (Saldaña, 2009, p.149). This happened here, some code names changed, they were grouped in a more accurate way or even they were reorganised into major categories. The specific method chosen was Pattern Coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994), found suitable for the identification of major themes from the data as well as for the finding of causes or explanations. In short, this coding groups similar codes with shared features so as to find a pattern. In order to do so, the

researcher kept various Google sheets⁵¹ to register the categories as well as the number of instances and participants. These categories were associated with the information found in the codebook. These tables favoured a visual representation of the emerging themes.

Following Saldaña's advice (2009), once the researcher is familiar with the basics of this type of analysis, we can take advantage of the possibilities which Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) offer. Particularly, using QDA is advantageous mainly because "the codes will automatically be recorded into a code system [...] The codes remain linked with the individual text passages so that you can jump back and forth between the analysis and the actual data" (Kuckartz, 2014, p. 133). Although Google Sheets also allows the creation of links between different files with one click, the specific software does it automatically. An added advantage is that the process of finding concepts to create thematic categories is simplified because of the overview the software offers. Once again, this was done first with Google Sheets, but demanded more time and effort on the part of the researcher. Moreover, QDA can be used in case studies; that is, even if there are just a few participants (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). For all of the above, the qualitative software chosen for this part of study was MAXQDA, a programme that the University of Vienna provided for free to all its staff and students, including visiting students as it was the case of the author of this study. The analysis procedures explained above in detail were repeated at a later stage using MAXQDA. This enabled going over the data again and refining the analysis.

5.5.6. Ensuring validity and reliability

One important feature of qualitative research is to ensure the validity and reliability of the research procedures, the data, and consequently, the results obtained. It is pertinent to point at the distinction between validity and reliability. According to Gibbs (2007), whereas validity denotes the accuracy of the methods to measure the reality under investigation; reliability refers to whether different researchers using the same methods would obtain consistent results. However, it must be taken into consideration that the notion of reliability may vary in quantitative and qualitative approaches (Cohen et al., 2007). While quantitative approaches tend to rely on replicability, qualitative research associates reliability with 'credibility', 'confirmability', 'dependability', 'consistency', 'applicability' or 'trustworthiness' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, as cited in Cohen et al, 2007, p. 148).

⁵¹ The Excel version for Google.

As Creswell (2014) states, the very same research process should confirm validation if meticulous and detailed steps are followed (Creswell, 2014, p.251). Moreover, in this study's case, a double process has occurred: manual and software-assisted coding. This multiple processing of the data, together with the various revisions of the coding tests secures its validity. Creswell also argues that being honest about the potential bias together with a detailed disclosure of the whole research process contributes to confirming its validity (see next section for ethical considerations). Such is the philosophy endorsed in this study.

Various sources of data are deployed to answer the same research questions, which contributes to ensuring the credibility of the results. As Yin (2018) claims, the use of multiple sources of evidence in the data gathering phase favours the construction of validity. The aim of this triangulation is precisely to secure the accuracy and veracity of the data, and ultimately, the rigour of the results. Moreover, this process of documentation minimises the possibilities of making speculative inferences which could threaten internal validity.

It is also noteworthy to mention that presentations of this research project to other researchers and their ensuing feedback (e.g. EduLing seminar in University of Vienna) have resulted in excellent peer/expert debriefing opportunities which have favoured the fine-tuning of the analysis procedures.

Yin insists that reliability is about "the same case over again, not just replicating the results of the original case study by studying another case" (2018, p. 46). This is motivated by the need to reduce to a minimum any bias or errors. Focusing on replicability, as the same instruments are applied to three different schools, combining state and subsidiary schools in different socio-economic areas of Madrid, it could somehow be considered a replication. In any case, the nature of this particular study and its aims cannot be dissociated from contextual factors, which means that the variable of replicability is subject to other factors. Given the dominant qualitative nature of this research, the replicability issue is not an essential property as it may be in quantitative research; so, as Rallis and Rossman (2009) note: "the purpose of qualitative research is not to replicate what has gone before; in fact, such replication is impossible, given the dynamic nature of the social world (2009, p. 266). Thus, as they go on to say, "rather than judging whether replication would yield the same results, this standard for practice is concerned with whether an outsider would agree with your findings, given the data you have collected and written up" (p. 267), which takes us to the next concern.

This study is not part of any larger research project, so there is only one researcher in charge of assigning codes. Thus, Inter-coder (ICR) reliability was applied to address the issue of reliability in the qualitative analysis of the interviews. It must be noted that, in this

particular research, introducing ICR was motivated by the need to ensure trustworthiness, stability of codes and to avoid any kind of bias. For this reason, another researcher with experience in qualitative research and also working in the field of multilingual education acted as an inter-coder of the interviews so that we could address the issue of reliability and offer transparency. The desirable amount of data to calculate ICR is estimated between 10%-25% (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020), so the independent and external coder was given one of the six interviews (16.66%), from which any personal data were removed for ethical and data protection reasons. The result was an ICR of 0.91, which shows an adequate reliability (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

To end this section, it must be acknowledged that some inconsistencies have been found in the data. These inconsistencies have not been avoided or eliminated, since we adhere to the belief that contradictions are part of our life. This research deals with human beings, their experiences and their perceptions, which are by definition not always fully coherent. Some of these contradictions will be further discussed in the analysis chapters.

5.5.7. Ethical considerations

This study is mostly framed within qualitative research. Such nature itself poses some challenges which must be acknowledged by the researcher. On the one hand, ethical issues concern primarily the treatment given to the participants. This involves different realms. The first one would be the informing phase. Naturally, informed consent was necessary, so the participants were given information about the nature of research and, more importantly, what it would entail for them if they decided that they wanted to participate in the study. Such decisions must always be taken freely. In this light, the participants were always treated with honesty about the extra work this would involve. Not only does this effort concern the interview and the time devoted to fill the forms in; but also the process of getting familiar with the genre-based pedagogy and the learning cycle, the planning and preparation for the intervention, etc. Needless to mention the sessions that this would 'steal' from their teaching plan. For those reasons, total transparency was essential so that they could take an informed decision about their participation in this project. However, getting this consent may also pose certain risks, as the excessive information given to participants could lead to some bias. This definitely had to be weighed, and so it was.

Moreover, the object of this study concerns one specific profession: the (English) teacher. More specifically, daily practices, values, beliefs, problems, etc. These are sensitive

topics, so the researcher has to mitigate the potential threats perceived by the participants. As Cohen et al. (2007) put it, they may consider this as “as an intrusion into private worlds, or the interviewer might be regarded as someone who can impose sanctions on the interviewee” (2007, p. 150). These ‘sanctions’ may be interpreted as ‘judgement’ in this particular case. In simpler words, participants could sense that it is their good (or bad) job as teachers that is being judged, when it is not. In that sense, another topic which was discussed with the principals and the teachers was how participating in this study could be beneficial to all parties, not just the researcher.

One further risk, also closely interwoven with the previous one is the effect that the perception of unbalanced power relations may have. That is, participants may regard themselves as inferior compared to the researcher. As a result, they might end up answering what they think the researcher wants to hear in order to please them. Thus, it is the researcher’s duty to engage respondents in conversation to make them feel comfortable. In Kitwood’s view (1977, as cited in Cohen, 2007), this also affects validity, since the more the human element is present, the more the respondent will see it as a friendly transaction. On the contrary, if the interviewee feels detached from the researcher, the possibilities that their responses be deliberately calculated will increase. In our case, it was always intended to create a safe environment. Also, the initial conversations aimed at creating some rapport between both parties. It was explicitly mentioned that the genre-based pedagogy was not imposed but simply tested; and that positive results were neither assumed nor expected. Another strategy to secure respect and correct treatment was to ensure that within the structure of the interview, the questions were mostly open-ended (Silverman, 2015). In this regard, the interviewees were given the space to answer these open questions and to talk freely about topics of certain relevance in their profession. Moreover, the days spent together in the classroom contributed to creating such a rapport that when the time of the interview came, the teachers did not feel it as a threat. It was rather the opposite, they regarded that space as an opportunity to discuss some topics overtly with another colleague in a relaxed atmosphere. It must be noted that the fact that the author of this dissertation is also an EFL teacher could be a variable to consider, as it is likely that, at that point, the participants had forgotten about the researcher role and just felt that they were discussing topics of common ground and interest with another English teacher. These conditions that favour the answering of a question freely is also understood as openness (Kuckart, 2019), also from an ethical point of view.

This role as an equal teacher takes us to another relevant point, the role of the researcher, due to the ethical issues which may arise from the type of relationship between those involved in the research. Having solved the problem of the potential asymmetry felt by the participants, the matter is now the researcher's role. In this case, this issue is twofold. On the one hand, because of the intense time that the researcher and the participants spent together. On the other hand, because of the researcher's previous experience as an English teacher in one of the schools participating in this study. Originally, what triggered the researcher's interest in this research topic was the conversations with colleagues worried about the future of English teaching and her own daily experiences and observations in her job. At the time the data collection took place, the researcher was no longer part of the staff, but still the connection with the school was direct. For that reason, it could be argued that the information was easy to collect, which does not necessarily imply less accuracy of the data. In fact, it should be noted that of the two participants in that setting, only one had worked together with the researcher. As for the other two schools, the first contact was initiated through acquaintances, but no personal relation existed between the researcher and the participants.

Going back to the risks posed by that situation, the data collection process was not compromised inasmuch as it followed the same steps as in the other two institutions. When it came to the analysis stage, special care was taken not to overinterpret the data and to make conclusions based on the researcher's knowledge of the setting. The supervisor's advice in this regard proved priceless, together with the review of the second coder and the validation strategies (see above).

As for the author's previous background as an English teacher herself and the potential inclination towards certain themes or evidence, it must be noted that this dissertation's point of departure was not a hypothesis but a series of research questions. The objective is not to look for evidence which confirms a theory but to explore some scenarios. Kuckartz (2019) discusses the role of researchers in terms of their previous knowledge, questioning whether inquirers can really undertake research like a *tabula rasa* as if they were not conditioned by the existing literature and theories. In any case, in such situations, researchers must leave their own opinions aside and avoid seeing themselves in the respondent's position (Cohen et al. 2007).

Other ethical issues arise from the methods. The previous section has already discussed its rigour and trustworthiness. The concept of trustworthiness cannot be disassociated from ethics. Our position is that an unethical study is not a trustworthy study

and we maintain Rallis and Rossman (2009) stance that trustworthiness involves both rigorous procedures and ethical practices. Although full disclosure of the research design and steps has been presented in the previous section, it must be highlighted that during the analysis steps, it has been considered that participants must be respectfully treated and their statements approached with academic integrity, as it has been assumed that each individual is entitled to see reality in their particular way.

Another area influencing research ethics has to do with privacy and confidentiality. None of the participants or the stakeholders explicitly requested anonymity, but it was judged sensible to protect their identities and privacy. This decision was made not only on the grounds of the new data protection act⁵², but also on the basis of the nature of the information revealed (professional practices, personal opinions and values, etc.). Thus, the names of the schools and participants are not disclosed but replaced with a series of letters and numbers respectively. These codes have been used at all times, even in the files and in the information provided to the second coder.

Confidentiality also relates to any material read during the data gathering process. One of the data sets is precisely the annual teaching programme written by the department, which contains information about the institution and its students. For that reason, any extract included for illustration in the analysis chapters as well as the materials found in the annexes have been carefully revised with the intention of removing any information which might not preserve privacy. Furthermore, the researcher took on the commitment of not revealing any of those details nor using the information she had access to for purposes other than those derived from this study.

To end this section and regarding the students, it must be taken into consideration that they were not directly involved in the study, as the focus is largely on the teachers. Students just took part in the intervention phase, from which no data were analysed. In that sense, there were no major ethical risks related to the pupils. Particular care was taken during the pilot study, because those particular sessions were recorded. In that case, the researcher and the headteacher asked for explicit written parental consent. In the classroom, all the students were explained the purpose of the change in the planning and the presence of the researcher. Regarding their written products, they were required to write their initials to preserve their identity, both from the teacher (for research purposes) and the general public.

⁵² Ley Orgánica 3/2018, de 5 de diciembre, de Protección de Datos Personales y garantía de los derechos digitales. See <https://www.boe.es/buscar/pdf/2018/BOE-A-2018-16673-consolidado.pdf>

5.6. Chapter summary

This chapter has versed upon the methodology of this study. The point of departure was the establishment of the three RQs which constantly guide this research. Then, the most relevant features of the schools and participants have been described in 5.2., highlighting the particularities of CLIL programmes in Madrid. The data gathering process has been outlined next, although a more complete account of its process has been provided in the extensive description of the research design in 5.4., paying special attention to the research tools and the guiding principles for the content analysis used. The chapter has finished by discussing the validity, reliability and ethical considerations which affect the present study.

6. The undergoing transformation of EFL roles (RQ1): Analysis and discussion I

6.1. Introduction

As detailed in the previous chapter, three research questions have been formulated to guide this study. With the aim of offering a triangulated view of the issue upon investigation, various sets of data and research methods were devised to answer the three research questions. To display the findings in an organised manner, the next three chapters (6, 7 and 8) will address in turn each of the research questions formulated while aligning them with the theoretical foundations explained in chapters 2, 3 and 4. Thus, this chapter intends to offer a thorough analysis of the data concerning RQ1, displayed here again for the reader's convenience:

- 1a. Are the roles of the EFL teacher within CLIL Secondary settings changing since the implementation of CLIL programmes in the Madrid Region?
- 1b. If so, are these roles shifting to support language awareness practices and the development of subject-specific literacies in CLIL?

Specifically, three sets of data were involved in answering this research question from a multi-layered perspective. Firstly, the analysis of the curriculum and its embodiment in the EFL subjects' curriculum and school syllabi, which offers some insights into the policy guidelines affecting the role of English teachers. Secondly, the questionnaires, which allow us to find out whether the actions endorsed by the existing research (see chapter 2) have already been adopted by the EFL teachers and their settings. Finally, the interviews constitute an adequate tool for more open and qualitative descriptions of the undergoing transformations which the participants may be experiencing when it comes to their practice. Overall, this

chapter deals with the findings concerning the transformations which may have already taken place when it comes to the roles of the English teacher in CLIL settings.

Because of the complex nature of the object of the study and the multiple variables affecting it, from curricular, to pedagogical and affective, it is of utmost importance to go beyond the scope of those transformations and to also discuss other aspects of language teaching in general which also occur in these settings (e.g. the role of grammar or methodological aspects).

Thus, this chapter will first present the analysis of the regional curriculum and the three schools' syllabi for the EFL subject. Then, section 6.3 will focus on the results obtained from the questionnaires, showing the findings in general to later contrast each school and participants. Section 6.4. will be devoted to the teacher interviews, followed by section 6.5., where a final overall discussion resulting from the triangulation of the three different sets of data (the policy documents, the questionnaires and the interviews) and the resulting analyses will be provided.

6.2. The EFL subject and teacher roles in the official curriculum and the school subject syllabi

Since the syllabus for the school subject is determined by the official curriculum designed by policy makers, it seems sensible to analyse first some features of the EFL curriculum in order to later understand how it is implemented in each of the schools taking part in this study. We must first address the curriculum prescribed for the school subject of English (EFL) at a state and regional level. Then, and based on the understanding of a syllabus as an application of the curriculum in a specific setting, the syllabi of the English subject functioning in the three participating schools will be examined. As stated in 5.5.1., regional curricula are not allowed to remove any content from the state curricula, so both documents will generally be very similar. Thus, only the introductory section (the justification of curriculum principles and guidelines) from the state curriculum has been considered for the analysis, whereas a thorough examination has been conducted on the regional document. To guide the analysis, the categories used to narrow down our focus are:

- EFL curriculum principles.
- The role of academic competence.
- The role of the EFL subject in CLIL settings.

- Any relevant didactic orientation (for EFL teachers within these settings).

However, because of the nature and scope of each document, not all the categories were found in both documents. Therefore, and in order to make the analysis more efficient, the final distribution of categories applied to the examination of both documents was the following:

- **EFL curriculum principles:** mainly appearing in the state curriculum but are duplicated in the regional one.
- **The role of academic competences:** appearing in both sets of data.
- **The role of the EFL subject in CLIL settings:** because of the general character of the state curriculum, there is no specific reference to this. It is mostly found in the regional policy.
- Any relevant **didactic orientation** for EFL teachers within these settings: as in the previous category and for the same reason, this can be found in the regional curriculum.

6.2.1. The state EFL curriculum

Any field of knowledge as well as the practices for its teaching and learning turn into a school subject when they are defined institutionally (Deng, 2007). In the case of EFL, *Lengua Extranjera: Inglés* is the preferred foreign language chosen to occupy the space for the subject of *Primera Lengua Extranjera* in Spain.

Regarding **the EFL curriculum principles**, the most prominent feature of the state curriculum is, without question, the fact that its principles are primarily based on the CEFR (2001). The Spanish curriculum for EFL explains this as follows:

En contextos y situaciones de comunicación real, la lengua se utiliza para realizar o acompañar acciones con diversos propósitos, por lo que el currículo básico incorpora el enfoque orientado a la acción recogido en el “Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas” y describe, en términos de actuación y tomando este Marco como base de dicha descripción, lo que los estudiantes deberán ser capaces de hacer en el idioma extranjero en diversos contextos comunicativos reales. (BOE, 2015, p.422)⁵³

⁵³ Author’s own translation: The (foreign) language is used to carry out or accompany actions with different purposes in real communicative contexts and situations, for which the basic curriculum incorporates the action-oriented approach envisaged in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and describes, in terms of performance and what is established in this Framework, what learners will be able to do in the foreign language in diverse real communicative contexts.

Assuming the principles of the CEFR has multiple implications for the curriculum development. The main one is that the state curriculum endorses a functional view of the target language, the emphasis being placed on what the speaker is able to do and the actions we perform through language, always in a real context and with the aim to attain communicative competence. Thus, communicative competence is understood as the ability to use language effectively according to the communicative context in a given discourse community. As widely known, this term coined by Hymes (1972) was later extended by Canale and Swain, who listed the following four components of communicative competence (1980): grammatical, sociocultural, discourse and pragmatic competences. The CEFR follows this notion of communicative competence, although they call it “communicative language competence” (2001, p.13). Even if it follows a different classification, its components remain the same in the CEFR: linguistic (lexical, phonological, syntactical, etc), sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Our state curriculum for foreign languages tallies with this understanding of communicative competence as well.

Another consequence is that the contents, criteria and standards for evaluation are organised in four big blocks: comprehension of oral texts, production of oral text (expression and interaction), comprehension of written texts and production of written texts (expressing and interacting). This also follows the “language activities” devised in the CEFR; namely reception, production, interaction or mediation and through which the user’s communicative language competence is activated.

Moreover, the action-oriented approach advocated in the CEFR and in the curriculum implies a learner-centred perspective, which situates the student as a decision-maker able to regulate himself/herself, mediate with interlocutors, use repairing strategies, etc, which aim at accomplishing the communicative purpose. Also, the official curriculum views competence in foreign languages as an asset in a society becoming more and more intercultural and multilingual.

Concerning the **role of academic competences**, it must be pointed out that, first of all, the state EFL curriculum goes a step further than the CEFR when it comes to the contexts or *domains* in which the language activities occur. The latter considers the public domain, consisting of social interactions related to public services, business, etc; the personal domain, involving private interaction with family and acquaintances; and the occupational domain, which refers to activities having to do with one person’s occupation. The state curriculum reorganises them, deletes the occupational one, and adds two other domains on their own right, both referring to education:

- Personal relations domain
- Educational domain
- Academic domain
- Public domain
- Social media domain

Thus, it can be seen that the state curriculum embraces the development of academic competences as one of the five basic domains which students must master in Secondary Education and *Bachillerato*. More specifically, the legal document points out the following academic competences which pupils in 4th ESO are expected to attain:

- Producción oral: Toma parte en conversaciones formales de carácter académico.
- Comprensión escrita: Entiende información específica sobre temas concretos en materiales de referencia/consulta claramente estructurados de materias académicas relacionadas con su especialidad.
- Producción escrita: Escribe en un formato tradicional informes sencillos dando información esencial sobre temas académicos, describiendo situaciones, narrando acontecimientos en una clara secuencia lineal y explicando de manera sencilla los motivos de ciertas acciones. (BOE, 2015:430-433)⁵⁴

We can observe that pupils finishing compulsory education in Spain are not only expected to be able to use the target language in more personal domains, and therefore, closer to BICS, but are also required to deal with more complex academic language (CALP). Indeed, the official curriculum distinctly links this skill with “topics related to school subjects” (see above). Thus, we can see that the mastery of academic competences is not expected to be disregarded in the subject of English. However, except for this, no further references are made to CLIL and the role of EFL in the mainstream state curriculum.

⁵⁴ Author’s own translation, adapted from the original text:

-Oral production: (The student) takes part in formal conversations on academic topics.

-Written comprehension: Understands specific and essential information on clearly structured reference materials about topics related to school subjects of their specialisation.

-Written production: Writes simple reports in traditional formats, giving essential information about academic topics, describing situations, narrating events in a clear linear sequence and explaining the causes of certain actions in a simple way.

6.2.2. The regional curriculum: the case of “Advanced English”

Due to the decentralised educational system existing in Spain, each region⁵⁵ is allowed to make further specifications and to extend the curriculum. In the case of Madrid region, it is the Decree 48/2015, May 14th, the legal document which establishes the curriculum for Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE). As for the EFL curriculum (p. 132), the principles governing the state document are maintained and so are the contents, criteria and learning standards⁵⁶. However, the educational authorities in this region through the years have developed further stipulations directly concerning bilingual education:

- Order 972/2017, April 7th, by the Education, Youth and Sport Office, by which state Spanish-English bilingual high-schools in Madrid are regulated⁵⁷.
- Order 2876/2018, July 27th, by the Education and Research Office, by which the curriculum for “Advanced English” in Spanish-English bilingual CSE high-schools and subsidiary schools in Madrid is set⁵⁸.

The passing of the second document is of special significance to our investigation, since it implies the acknowledgment and consideration of special skills and particular objectives and contents involved in Bilingual Education. This area is what is known as *Inglés Avanzado* (hereafter “Advanced English”) and thus, it has certain features which differ from the regular curriculum applying to non-bilingual schools. This new curriculum replaced the previous one for the Advanced English area, progressively passed between the years 2010-2014 for Secondary Education and *Bachillerato*. Therefore, the new Advanced English curriculum was in force when the data gathering process for this study took place.

As described in the title of the Order 2876/2018, this particular curriculum is followed in both state and subsidiary bilingual schools. Therefore, the three schools participating in this study should theoretically comply with it. At this point, let us analyse the characteristics of “Advanced English”. In order to do so, we must offer a general description of its main tenets and examine it from the perspective of CLIL, pertinent to our research.

⁵⁵ Comunidad Autónoma.

⁵⁶ In Spanish, “estándares de aprendizaje evaluables”. These are decomposed assessment criteria which work as the minimum benchmark for evaluation.

⁵⁷ Orden 972/2017, de 7 de abril, de la Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte, por la que se regulan los institutos bilingües español-inglés de la Comunidad de Madrid.

⁵⁸ Orden 2876/2018, de 27 de julio, de la Consejería de Educación e Investigación, por la que se establece el currículo de inglés avanzado de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria en institutos y centros privados concertados bilingües español-inglés de la Comunidad de Madrid.

Looking at the categories of analysis, and as far as the **curriculum principles** are concerned, this curriculum transforms the subject of “First Foreign Language: English” into “Advanced English”, yet it maintains the principles described in the CEFR which sustain the regular curriculum designed for mainstream education. For this reason, the contents are also organised in the same four blocks corresponding to the four skills. With regard to the level of competence, it is explicitly mentioned that the first year of CSE should correspond to B1 level and the last year students should attain B2+ level. Furthermore, a list of recommended literary works is provided for each level, as well as the recognition of literary elements and literary analysis. Along with this, the EFL subject is considered a space in which the learners’ critical thinking, thinking skills and learning strategies can be developed.

The document states that “Las competencias y contenidos recogidos en el Decreto 48/2015, de 14 de mayo, se amplían en el presente currículo para dar respuesta a las capacidades y necesidades específicas de los alumnos que cursan enseñanzas en las secciones bilingües de español-inglés de los institutos bilingües de la Comunidad de Madrid⁵⁹” (BOCM, 2018, p. 57). This is particularly noteworthy for the purpose of this study. Having this fact as a driving force necessarily implies that bilingual education involves specific needs which are not to be disregarded in terms of the target language and the area of the curriculum specifically devoted to it. Consequently, the subject of EFL is expected to contribute to the development of the necessary linguistic resources which can ensure the learners’ academic success in the content areas.

Concerning **the role of EFL subject in relation to CLIL**, it is stated that it is the space that contributes to the learners’ academic success in the content subject because of the specific linguistic resources and learning strategies which are fostered in the language classroom (2018, p. 57-58). Interestingly enough, a great emphasis is placed on textual genres, which are regarded as “integrating axis for the curriculum” (2018, p.58). Four or five types of texts are expected to be selected for learners to work with, paying attention to their formal features, communicative function, structure and distinctive language. Indeed, texts and topics related to the content subject are encouraged. Furthermore, it is explicitly mentioned that this type of curriculum revolving around textual genres offers opportunities for collaboration among content teachers and language teachers, including the first language (see page 58). However, no further suggestions nor considerations are provided in this sense.

⁵⁹ Author’s own translation: regular competences and contents [...] are expanded in this current curriculum so as to meet the specific skills and needs of the learners enrolled in Spanish-English groups.

Regarding the differences found between the mainstream curriculum and “Advanced English”, specific contents are added for each of the grades. Appendix L comprises these contents in the case of ESO 4th, the one which our investigation focuses on. From the reading and examination of these contents, it is noticeable that the curriculum is rather ambitious and adapted for an upper-intermediate or even an advanced level of English. We can observe that the communicative situations and contexts as well as the types of texts are much more specific than in the mainstream EFL curriculum: debates, data summary in research or graph description, as well as literary texts, which are to be analysed. Also, the repertoire of strategies ranges from the identification of implicit opinions to paraphrasing or using the mechanisms to organise a text at an advanced level. Furthermore, we can observe the emphasis on the discrimination between formal and informal registers, which learners are expected to identify and use; and even between standard and non-standard varieties of English which they may come across in the media.

As far as **academic competence**⁶⁰ is concerned, the “grammatical elements” and the “lexis” sections clearly show the relevance of the development of this skill. The former includes the grammar constructions proper to academic registers such as nominalisation, technical terms or complex passive voice constructions. The latter explicitly mentions knowing and using academic expressions appearing in the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), and including a wide range of examples. More significantly, this Advanced English curriculum also specifies knowing lexis and expressions related to the curriculum content as part of the EFL content. This way, the connection with the subjects taught through English is explicitly made.

Furthermore, on pages 99-100 (see Appendix M) we can find a table suggesting different genres (i.e. consequential explanations, argumentative essay, etc.), as well as what learners are expected to do with such genres according to the four skills, their connection with thinking skills and where they can occur (magazines, talks, etc.). Interestingly, the text structure for each of them is also provided. For instance, in the case of “consequential explanation”, its organisation is described as follows:

- 1) background information: topic and thesis statement
- 2) state effect, enumerate and explore causes and cause groups
- 3) conclusion: restate thesis, consider implications

⁶⁰ The order of the categories of analysis has been altered here because ‘the role of academic competences’ in the Advanced Curriculum clearly stems from a new conceptualisation of ‘the role of the EFL subject in CLIL settings.

If we look at the specific description of the school genre used in the intervention stage of this study (see 4.4.3.), certain similarities can be easily observed. First, the background information and prior knowledge necessary to understand the situation; then, the set of causes involved; and finally, a conclusion with possible implications. One may consider the “historical account” to be more precise and refined, for the context in which a historical account will be produced is also much more specific. This is just an illustration, but some other connections can be made with the rest of the text types included in the table and other school genres across subjects. Therefore, this could suggest that using these macro-genres adopting the perspective presented here has the potential to contribute to the accomplishment of the linguistic support which language teachers are recommended to offer.

Due to the special circumstances revolving around this scenario, some **didactic orientations** and methodological principles are suggested for EFL teachers within these particular settings. In fact, it is stated that, because of the role of English as a vehicular language, a shift of focus in the EFL subject is required (BOCM, 2018, p.57). For that reason, this document acknowledges a higher level of motivation and linguistic competence in these settings. According to the curriculum designers, one way of helping students cope with the complex communicative situations given in bilingual education is by means of scaffolding, understood as linguistic support and the training in thinking strategies.

In this respect, language is seen not only as the vehicular language, but also as a means to access knowledge and cognitive development. This view of the language mirrors the current conceptualisation of language depicted in detail in chapter 4. This shared understanding of language may have enormous implications on the functioning of bilingual education in general and on the tenets and practices of the EFL subject in particular.

All these top-down prescriptions may be implemented differently across CLIL Secondary schools. For this reason, the following sections of this chapter will examine the different implementations of the curriculum from the perspective of the school syllabi, the teacher questionnaires and the interviews.

6.2.3. Analysis of the EFL school syllabi

Having analysed the prescribed curriculum, this section will look at the extent to which each language department complies with it through their EFL syllabus, paying special attention to references to the CLIL programme. Moreover, these syllabi will help us identify the following aspects:

- 1) Whether those modifications taking place as a result of CLIL implementation are actually taken into consideration in the EFL syllabus.
- 2) Whether any other further specification, lines of actions, plan or teacher-collaboration schemes are implemented by the three schools under scrutiny.

As mentioned earlier, the school syllabi object of study here correspond to the ones in place when the data gathering took place, in the school year 2018-2019. The analysis of these documents has been framed in four categories created *ad hoc* in order to align with the research questions (see 5.5.1.):

- 1) (Overt) references **to the CLIL programme and CLIL**. This allows us to get a broad understanding of the extent to which the progression towards bilingual education has a real impact on the language teachers' planning for the school year.
- 2) The **purpose of the EFL subject**, in general, but particularly focused on the special circumstances surrounding these CLIL settings.
- 3) **Specific actions and measures related to teacher collaboration**, such as meetings between content and language teachers.
- 4) References to the **academic skills and genres** and their presence in the EFL subject.

The following subsection will offer the results after analysing the three school syllabi according to these four categories.

6.2.3.1. School A

The description of this subsidiary school (see 5.2.) already addressed its particularities when compared to the other two state schools participating in this study. The most salient and visible finding is that it has not been designed according to the “Advanced English curriculum”. On the contrary, it is based on the mainstream one. As stated above, the “Advanced English curriculum” applies to both state and subsidiary schools holding the official bilingual programme implemented in Madrid but this school has not implemented it.

Regarding the four dimensions framing the analysis of these documents, we can observe that there are **no references to the bilingual programme nor CLIL** in the entire document. That is, this syllabus has not been apparently designed within the special framework of these settings. The particularities resulting from being a “bilingual school” are not taken into account, or at least not in this policy. As for the context and **purpose of EFL**, which may help us understand this school's approach to language teaching and learning, this

document's introduction literally uses the conceptualisation of the Royal Decree 1105/2014, which fosters plurilingual and intercultural citizens, being the EFL subject the space to promote the development of the necessary skills in the five domains listed above, including the academic one. In this respect, this school uses one of the five weekly English sessions to what they call "English for life", which complements the English subject within the framework of these five domains. Thus, some of the contents include, among others:

- Intercultural awareness and society issues: Halloween, the US basic political structure or immigration.
- Educational domain: differences between American and Spanish universities, studying abroad, preparing for university interviews in English.
- Academic and occupational domains: how to write a CV in English, its writing conventions and contrast between formal and informal language.

As we can observe, this part of the English subject makes use of current society issues and common situations encountered in a globalised world. To have a broader perspective, this session is distributed as follows in the rest of Secondary Education⁶¹:

- ESO 1st: American Geography
- ESO 2nd: American History
- ESO 3rd: American Literature

Against this backdrop, it can be concluded that this space within the EFL subject uses "content" in what could be defined as Content-Enriched Instruction (CEI) or Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT). Focusing on teacher roles, it must be added that the teacher is not the main figure involved, but the language assistant (LA). The LA has the leading role and is the person involved in the syllabus design for this space. During this time, the EFL teacher is the one who assists the LA.

Concerning **teaching collaboration**, as there are no explicit references to the CLIL programme, nor further remarks about potential content and language teaching collaboration, meetings, etc. are made. The term "collaboration" only appears to foster cooperation among all the didactic departments with the aim of promoting reading comprehension in general.

As for the fourth category, no references to the development of **academic skills or school genres** have been found. The fact that the "Advanced English curriculum" has not been endorsed in this school might have multiple implications for this category, being the

⁶¹ See chapter 5 - schools description for more details about School A's organisation.

most important one the impossibility to offer appropriate linguistic support. As we know, the communicative situations faced by these students are more specific and the mainstream curriculum does not go as far as that in this regard. Therefore, and focusing exclusively on the syllabus, students might not be offered specific guidance in the development of the necessary linguistic skills according to their level of competence and expectations.

Needless to say, school syllabi do not necessarily go hand in hand with actual teaching practices. For that reason, and despite the adherence to the mainstream curriculum, this school could be providing other compensation mechanisms which could partially serve the same purposes. Indeed, the contents section of this syllabus is based on the textbook used in ESO 4th, *The Big Picture*, by Richmond, is designed for the C1 level. This stage is much more academic and many of the linguistic contents described in the “Advanced English curriculum” are covered in this textbook. For instance, the complex passive constructions or clefting. Moreover, turning to the contents description, we can see that the syllabus distinguishes between the contents appearing in the mainstream curriculum and those “taught in this school” (p.10). These contents seem to coincide with those described in the textbook. Therefore, these specificities partially comply with the linguistic expectations described in the Advanced English curriculum. Here are some examples:

- Unit 3: hedging, clefting and fronting.
- Unit 4: complex passive voice constructions.
- Writing unit 4: describing data.
- Lexis: Some of the areas cover more general topics such as the community, school and work, cinema or feelings. However, other units are much more specific and focus on business and economy (unit 4) or advertising (unit 7).
- Throughout the book, we can also find some strategies. For example, unit 1 covers cohesion mechanisms such as referring back and substitution. At the interaction level, other strategies such as how to manage interruptions and misunderstanding or how to criticise politely are also covered.

Interestingly, when it comes to relating the contents, the assessment criteria and learning standards, this department presents a combination of both the mainstream curriculum and the contents from this textbook. In other words, they are mainly governed by the mainstream assessment criteria, but they have designed their own criteria and learning standards for those new contents taken from the textbook.

However, the particular mechanisms described above may compensate for a lack of language awareness. As we have seen, following the C1 level may be providing learners with the necessary CALP. Moreover, those spaces devoted to American Geography, History or Literature may be beneficial in terms of linguistic support inasmuch they serve as a tool to bridge the gap with the content subjects.

6.2.3.2. School B

First and foremost, it must be mentioned that the syllabi for the four CSE levels are contained in one single document at School B. This is noteworthy because it affects the first category of analysis, the **references to the CLIL programme**, in that it offers an introductory section in which a description of the special circumstances surrounding this type of education is presented. This introduction is followed by a chapter devoted to the teaching objectives, and the aims of “Advanced English curriculum” in particular. Such a way to approach this document gives us valuable insights into the influence of CLIL implementation on the development of this EFL syllabus. Since it is mostly based on that Order 2876/2018, it reinforces the approach described in 6.2.2., which is replicated here: “an approach to teaching English in bilingual education contexts must be characterised by the continuous attention to the learners’ communicative needs and cognitive development” (BOCM, 2018, p. 58). As a consequence, the second category, concerning the **purpose of EFL**, is also to ensure academic success in the content subjects (see page 11). This reference is taken literally from the Order BOCM 2876/2018.

As far as organisational decisions are concerned, school B include some “departmental objectives”, which also involve **teacher collaboration**:

Las enseñanzas bilingües requieren un alto grado de cooperación entre los profesores de las distintas materias. La reunión semanal que mantenemos los profesores implicados nos proporciona un espacio para compartir ideas y programar el trabajo del aula entre las distintas materias, intentando conseguir la mayor interdisciplinariedad posible. (p.9)⁶²

This extract shows this department's awareness of the benefits of teacher collaboration and consequently, a weekly meeting is allocated within the schedule to foster cooperation

⁶² Author 's own translation: Bilingual education requires a high level of cooperation among the teachers of different subjects. The weekly meeting held by the teachers involved encourages a space to share ideas and to plan the classroom work among the different disciplines, trying to attain as much interdisciplinarity as possible.

practices. In fact, the incorporation of interdisciplinary projects with other didactic departments is listed as a proposal for improvement. Regarding content, it talks about “encompassing topics” with the non-linguistic areas.

Concerning **academic skills and genres**, as this syllabus is mostly based on the Order BOCM 2876/2018, we can find multiple references to this aspect. Therefore, and according to the syllabus, textual genres are at the core of the planning and the course. This document also suggests encompassing topics connected with the content subject as a means to cultivate some taste for communication in the target language. Pages 72-79 of the syllabus present the macro-genres which this teaching programme revolves around as well as the subgenres and resulting communicative learning outcomes. Following the regulations of the “Advanced English curriculum”, which recommended working with 4-5 genres, those are the macro-genres chosen by this institution: articles, literary reviews (analytical); report, biography (informative); editorials, argumentative essays (persuasive), or poetry (literary). To give a more specific example of what learners are expected to deal with, when working with informative texts in the third term, it is specified that students are to understand the cause-effect relation in complex texts as well as to identify the organisation and structure of academic texts.

Finally, this English department also shares the vision that working with textual genres offers opportunities for collaboration among teachers. As mentioned above, this idea was also included in the prescribed curriculum for “Advanced English curriculum”.

6.2.3.3.School C

Contrary to the previous school, this one does have separate documents for each of the syllabi of the four years of CSE. Concerning the **references to the CLIL programme**, a section is devoted to listing the features of bilingual schools, according to the Decree 48/2015. This seems to indicate that the rest of the syllabus has been designed taking this factor into consideration.

Regarding the **purpose of English** teaching, apart from the cognitive, social and personal dimensions, it is specified that the EFL subject prepares learners for further education and future professional development. Moreover, the role of English as a global language, entailing further cultural openness, is explicitly acknowledged.

Surprisingly, this syllabus does not entirely adopt the “Advanced English curriculum” in force, but its previous version, passed in 2012, and which highlighted literature and culture but textual genres were not given a prominent role yet. A possible explanation for this could

be that the current Advanced English curriculum was passed over the summer and the school might not have incorporated it on time.⁶³ However, the specific linguistic contents which were added in the new curriculum in 2018 are included on pages 24 and 25 (language functions, grammatical elements, lexis and phonetics)⁶⁴. In any case, their objectives explicitly intend to bridge the gap with the content subjects:

“Comprender textos de naturaleza histórica, científica, y de otras materias susceptibles de ser impartidas en inglés. Reforzar las habilidades de producción escrita y oral, y los contenidos propios de las mismas. (p.5)⁶⁵.”

According to this extract, it is the EFL teacher’s responsibility to contribute to the students’ development of subject-specific literacies. This role is described as one of the teaching objectives. However, no further specifications concerning how teachers are expected to pursue this goal are provided. Similarly, when it comes to **teacher collaboration**, no information is given about the establishment of mechanisms in this regard. Schedules for departmental meetings with content teachers are not explicitly mentioned in this document.

As for the last category, no further references have been found concerning **academic skills** focused on textual genres. School C sees the EFL subject as a means to help access “biological or historical texts”, their syllabi do not make any further specifications. However, as mentioned above, some specific linguistic aspects from the new curriculum are included. For that reason, some “general academic language” and CALP are listed: use of academic register, complex passive constructions, nominalisations, etc (grammatical elements) or analyse, justify, explain cause and effect, etc (language functions). Anyhow, it should be noted that all these elements are presented out of context, devoid of context, due to the lack of presence of textual genres.

6.2.4. Comparison of policy across schools: Main findings

Having analysed the prescriptions of the curriculum and each school’s specifications, some conclusions can be drawn with regard to what extent the implementation of these policy

⁶³ The author had access to the EFL syllabus in April 2019.

⁶⁴ The textbook (B2+ level) is not used entirely, as teachers start the school year with unit 5. This may indicate that the students’ competence is above the textbook level, so there is no need to cover units 1-4 . This opens up opportunities when it comes to teaching time. The elimination of four of the units frees about 40% of the time, allowing teachers to select how to complement it.

⁶⁵ Author’s own translation: Understand historical and scientific texts, as well as other disciplines liable to be taught through English. Reinforce the written and oral production skills, as well as the contents proper to them (the disciplines)”.

documents reflect the impact of CLIL programmes in the EFL subject and in the responsibilities of the language teacher.

Concerning the curriculum principles, the analysis of the state and regional curricula has shown that the state curriculum goes hand in hand with the European recommendations inasmuch it follows the CEFR and the prominent role of communicative functions. Additionally, it promotes thinking skills, views multilingualism as an asset and fosters a competency-based model and a learner-centred approach.

More pertinent to our particular objective, the state curriculum specifically recognises the academic dimension. The mere fact of designing a specific “Advanced English curriculum” for the EFL subject in CLIL Secondary schools acknowledges that a transformation has actually occurred. In other words, CLIL implies a unique setting which makes the EFL subject special, subsequently implying a different methodological focus. The textual analyses shown above reveal that the EFL subject is conceptualised as the space in which the linguistic support needed to face the content subjects should be provided. To do so, text-based learning as well as literature-based learning are recommended. Moreover, the 2012 curriculum was modified in 2018 towards a more textual approach, assuming that this focus is even more efficient when offering linguistic support. In order to foster the effects of this approach, teacher collaboration is advised, although the curriculum does not provide any further regulation in this regard. In short, the “Advanced English curriculum” has been apparently designed to meet the demands described in chapter 2.

In the application of the curriculum through the school syllabi, both School B and C comply with the Advanced English curriculum, although School C does not follow the updated version. A more exhaustive analysis of School A was necessary, since the “Advanced English curriculum” is not apparently followed in this setting. Their alternative proposal has shown that other operating mechanisms indirectly pursue the same goal as the “Advanced English curriculum”, although not so explicitly. Somehow, this school is much more comprehensive in the content description, as it is the only one organising and dividing the contents, criteria and standards in teaching units.

The adherence to the mainstream or the Advanced English curriculum results in varied references to the acknowledgement of CLIL programmes. School A policy does not consider CLIL as a determining factor, whereas the conceptualisation and organisation of the EFL subject is governed by it in Schools B and C. According to their syllabi, the EFL subject in these particular settings must serve the purposes of the CLIL programme in which the subject is embedded.

Regarding the transformations in terms of content and objectives of the subject, the main finding reveals the emphasis placed on the practice of academic registers in the 2018 curriculum. This suggests that the curriculum transformation has considered the academic linguistic demands in these particular educational settings. This coincides with the propaedeutic scenario for EFL being part of CLIL (Coonan, 2012). However, what the new curriculum does not seem to acknowledge is the concurrent scenario (Coonan, 2012) by which the EFL teacher would scaffold the language problems found in content lessons.

In line with the conceptualisation of language as a means of accessing knowledge (see 4.3.), working with textual genres strengthens the connections between content and linguistic subjects. The findings here show that School B policy reflects careful planning of the different textual genres worked with throughout the school year. On the contrary, school C includes the necessary linguistic elements for academic discourse but it does not relate them to their corresponding textual genres. Probably unaware of it, school A partially complies with these demands due to two main reasons: the C1 textbook and the weekly session devoted to English for life or American History.

Even if the purpose of the curriculum is to help students understand their “content texts”, it can be noticed that the suggestion for the EFL subject is to work with macro-genres. This focus enables schools to work with genres repeatedly throughout the year and consequently, to introduce subgenres which may be more directly related to the content subject. However, the “advanced curriculum” offers quite a generic perspective in this regard. In other words, we could say that its focus stays in developing general academic language but fails to move towards a more profound level in which the subject-specific literacy can be attained. Schools are given guidelines on how to work with genres, but are free enough to specify through which subgenres and how to organise it throughout the year. This may result in big differences across schools in the actual implementation. As an illustration, School B offers in-depth planning whereas School C does not even consider it.

It can also be concluded that the introduction of “content” in the EFL subject as a new responsibility is also taken into consideration in the curriculum. This shift aligns with the recommendations to transform EFL to make the subject more content-based language teaching (Leaton-Gray et al., 2018). In this regard, the Advanced English curriculum welcomes this suggestion, but not with the CLIL subjects’ content, but with Literature from English-speaking countries. This response is in accordance with the framework presented by Dale et al. (2017) which reports that one of the options for EFL subjects is to implement some kind of message-driven approach having Literature as content. Such approach was first

devised in the 2012 curriculum. Although quite relegated by the focus on textual genres in 2018, it is still part of the curriculum. The analysis has shown that the introduction of content is part of the school syllabi in the three cases, but to a different extent.

As the analysis of the curriculum and syllabi are not sufficient to understand the actual transformations which may be taking place in each school setting with the advent of CLIL programmes, the use of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews will help us gain more insight into the transformations mentioned above.

6.3. Teacher questionnaire: transformation of roles

The analysis of the policy documents lets us know to what extent new teacher duties, functions or responsibilities are prescribed by the educational authorities. However, the daily experiences and realities of any educational institution may bring about emerging needs derived from its particular context. It is for this reason that examining bottom-up actions which may not be directly prescribed by the curricular guidelines is crucial in this project. In this sense, questionnaires allow us to identify and quantify specific initiatives undertaken by EFL teachers as a response to the implementation of CLIL in their workplaces.

As displayed in Table 9, the first part of the questionnaire was designed with the aim of answering RQ1. To present the results obtained, we will first examine the responses given to each question separately, grouping them for more quantitative purposes. Finally, we will have a closer look at the same results, relating them to each school setting for further findings which may reveal a recurrent pattern.

6.3.1. Individual responses to questionnaires

This section comprises the results obtained from asking the six participants about their specific activities and duties. Firstly, they were enquired whether they are responsible for the actions presented below and how often they perform them, followed by questions regarding collaborative practices with their colleagues. Although some of these situations will be further discussed in the interviews, the questionnaire also required teachers to answer whether they feel they have a proactive role in the bilingual education project.

6.3.1.1. Individual responsibilities related to language and content (section 1)

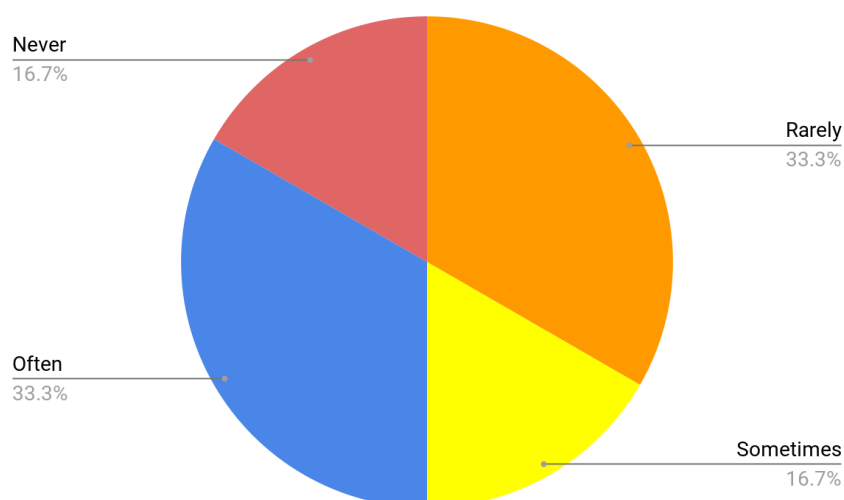
This subsection presents the findings related to specific initiatives that EFL teachers may have undertaken in CLIL contexts.

- *Identifying and establishing language objectives for content subjects (1.1.)*

This question was intended to get to know whether teachers are in charge of identifying specific linguistic objectives present in the content subjects or establishing them so that content teachers can work with them.

Figure 13

Identification of language objectives



With the exception of T4, all the participants acknowledged being in contact with the language of the content subjects somehow through the identification of linguistic objectives needed for those areas, yet to a different extent. Two of them indicated this is something that they rarely do whereas two of the participants often do it and this frequency drops to “sometimes” in one case. Therefore, it can be assumed that this is far from being an extended practice. Even so, the responses may be inconclusive and the results from the interviews will be needed to clarify this reality.

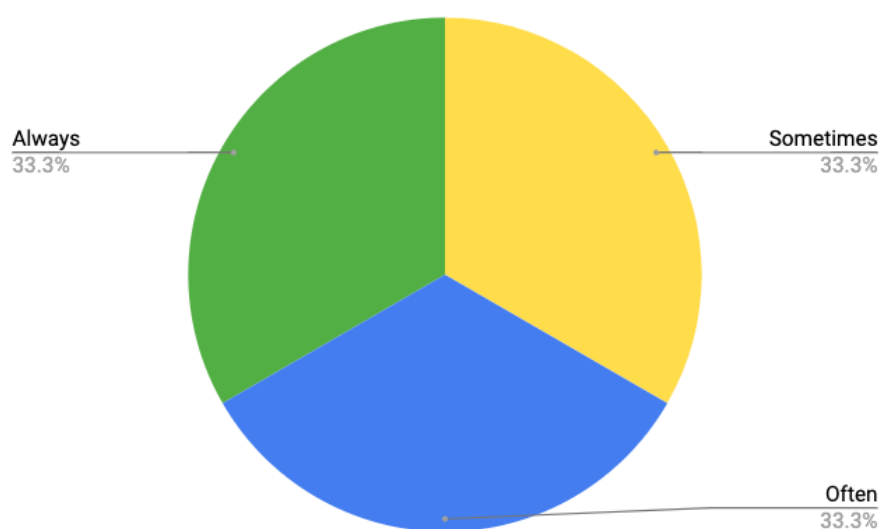
If we redistribute the classification of these figures into two broader categories according to a positive or negative tendency, it could be said that 50% of the participants tend to carry out this practice whereas the other half rarely or never works on analysing the possible language objectives and demands of the non-linguistic subjects.

- *Teaching academic language that is necessary for content subjects (1.2.)*

This question aimed at gaining insights into the extent to which language teachers consciously and intentionally introduce academic language which learners may need for their content subjects.

Figure 14

Teaching of academic language



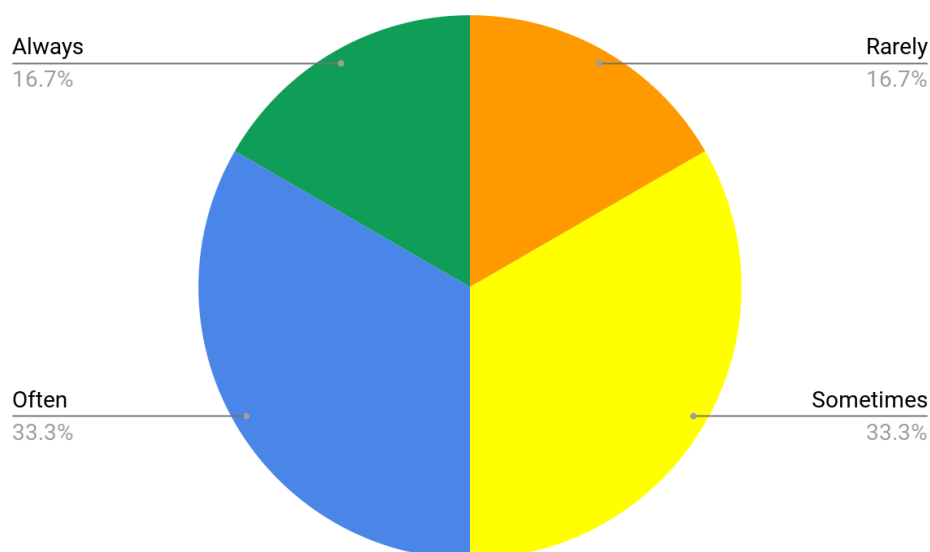
We can see that the six participants asserted introducing academic language in their subjects. Focusing on how often they do so, it can be observed that the tendency is positive, since four of the participants reported to always or often do so. This is apparently the most extended practice. Nonetheless, whether they do it deliberately having in mind the non-linguistic subjects as a target or whether, on the contrary, they do it as part of their personal or institutional curricular agenda is what questionnaires cannot tell us. The qualitative nature of the interviews will throw some light on this.

- *dealing with specific language problems that arise in content subjects (1.3.)*

The object of enquiry here was to get to know whether teachers take some particular action concerning specific linguistic issues that may arise in the non-linguistic subjects. The following chart shows the results:

Figure 15

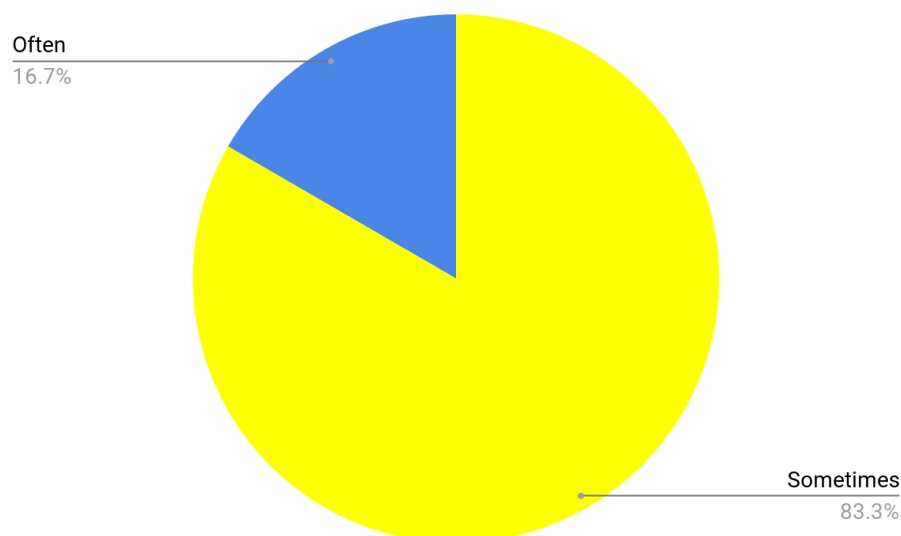
Attention to content-related language problems



In line with the responses offered in the previous questions, all the participants affirmed paying attention to specific linguistic problems which their pupils may be facing in the content subjects running parallel to their EFL lessons. In fact, the degree of frequency clearly tends towards a high frequency, with 50% of the participants always or often dealing with those issues, followed by 33% (two other participants), who intermittently devotes some time to this matter. Even though the ideal situation would be for teachers to always look for ways to help pupils overcome the linguistic difficulties, the positive tendency seems to indicate a rising awareness of this problem. None of the participants marked “never”, which suggests a general acknowledgement of the existence of this issue.

- *introducing content from other subject curricula (1.4.)*

The last question of this section did not concern language, but content. As suggested in previous studies (Coonan, 2012; Jaén, 2016; Leaton-Gray et al., 2018), introducing content somehow relevant to the non-linguistic subject may constitute a beneficial practice in this type of setting. Figure 16 shows what our participants do in this regard:

Figure 16*Incorporation of content*

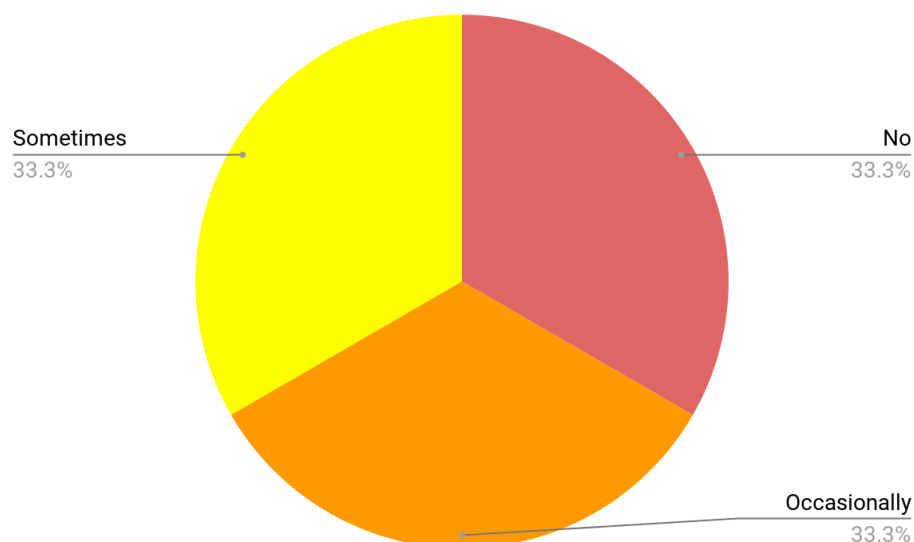
As we can see, all the participants claimed to incorporate content in their EFL lessons. Once again, if we categorise the responses into two bigger blocks, we cannot find negative answers. However, this is something that they only do occasionally, as 83.3% (four of the participants) state that they sometimes introduce content, but not frequently. All in all, the prevalence of this scarce frequency seems to indicate that this practice is far from being systematised. Since most of them do it from time to time and this frequency increases to “often” in two of the cases, it can be suggested that there is a general predisposition when it comes to opening the boundaries of each independent field of expertise towards a more interdisciplinary perspective.

6.3.1.2. Collaboration with content teachers (section 2)

In this section, participants were asked about specific help which they offer to content teachers in some common teaching scenarios.

- *Help to design and plan an activity (2.1., 2.2)*

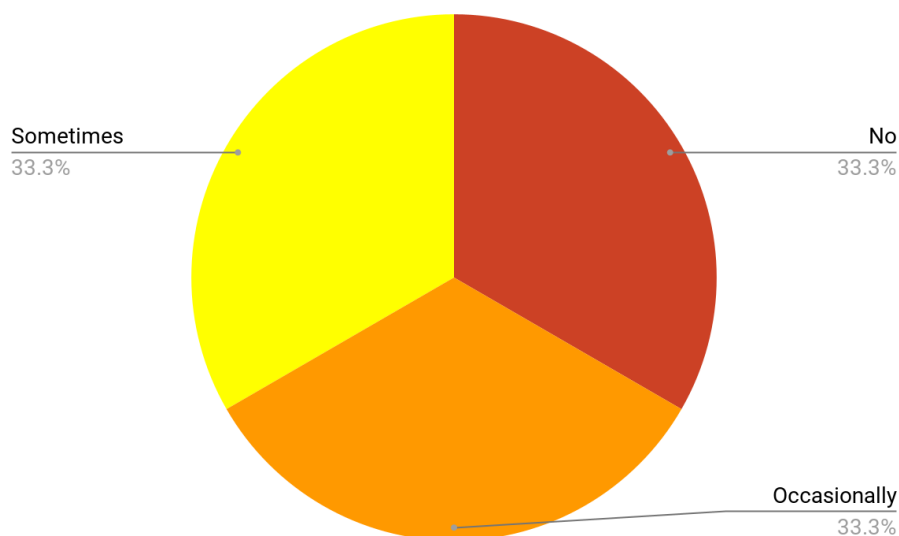
This question reflected small-scale spaces for collaboration between content and language teachers, namely how often the latter help their colleagues plan and design activities:

Figure 17*Help to plan and design activities*

We can observe that four of the participants had adopted this practice at some point (66.6%). However, the findings seem to indicate that this is something rather anecdotal, as two of the participants marked “yes, only occasionally” and the highest frequency is “sometimes”, in two of the cases.

- *Help to correct exams or activities (2.3.,2.4.)*

The second and last question of this section concerned the teaching duty of correction; in this case, whether language teachers help with the correction of activities or exams, presumably in aspects related to language.

Figure 18*Help to correct*

It is noticeable that the results coincide with the previous chart. Indeed, T4, T5 and T6 were consistent with the response given in the previous question and replicated it. This means that our participants do not frequently assist their colleagues in those duties which involve linguistic considerations.

6.3.1.3. Top-down collaboration and involvement (section 3)

As this study intends to triangulate and contrast all the findings from different perspectives, the teachers were also asked about whether the potential collaboration with their “content counterparts” is regulated in the school policy.

All the practitioners provided a negative answer. Apparently, none of the three schools has provided their teachers with specific guidelines which promote cooperation between content and language teachers. Thus, the lack of systematicity in the practices in a) and b) understood under this circumstance clearly reveals that none of those initiatives is dictated institutionally. The results seem to confirm the findings discussed in 6.2.3. (see above).

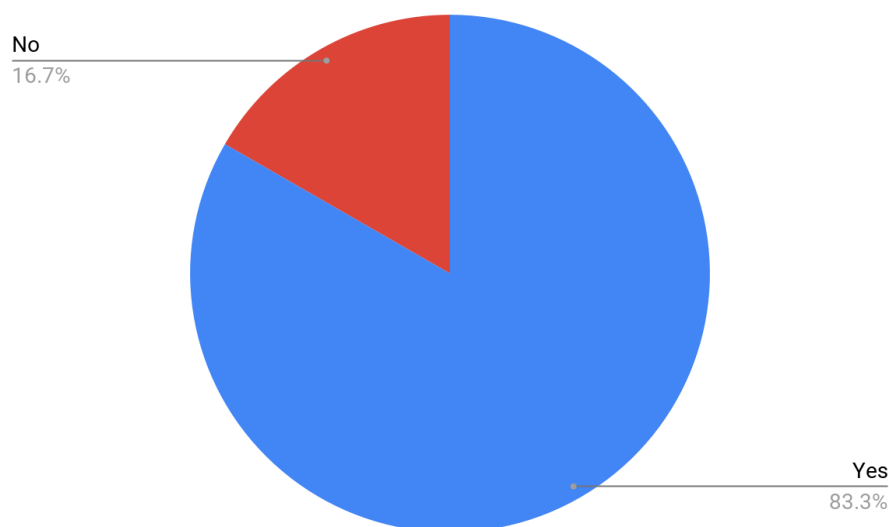
6.3.1.4. Proactivity (section 4)

Regardless of the possible answers given to the previous sections, teachers were also asked about how involved they see themselves in the bilingual programme. This question marked the transition towards the topics related to RQ2, but it gives us valuable insight when

contrasting actual practices such as those appearing in a) and b) and their perception on their degree of involvement.

Figure 19

Self-perception of proactivity



As we can see, most of the participants (5 out of 6) see themselves as having a proactive role in the bilingual programme. In spite of the myriad of initiatives concerning linguistic reinforcement observed in a) and the scarce collaboration observed in b), the majority of the participants feel confident they are not inactive. Only T3 does not see herself as involved in the programme. When contrasting this perception with her responses to the previous questions, it can be observed that she claimed always introducing academic language that benefits content learning and sometimes dealing with linguistic issues derived from those subjects. Despite other negative answers, one may consider these two facts as a clear sign of participation.

6.3.2. Teacher responses grouped by school

Not only is it necessary to present the global findings, but it is equally relevant to have a closer look at the responses attending to the variable “school”. In doing so, we can gain insight into potential patterns that may or may not be highlighted as significant in each of the settings.

We will now proceed to group the same results analysed in the previous section, but according to the school variable⁶⁶. It should be noted that, for obvious reasons, only those answers with no unanimous responses among the six participants will be taken into consideration here.

Table 15

Summary of responses grouped by school

	SCHOOL A		SCHOOL B		SCHOOL C	
NEW ROLES	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
Identification of language objectives	Rarely	Often	Rarely	Never	Often	Sometimes
Teaching of academic language	Sometimes	Often	Sometimes	Always	Often	Always
Attention to content-related language problems	Sometimes	Often	Rarely	Sometimes	Always	Often
Incorporation of content	Sometimes	Often	Sometimes	Sometimes	Sometimes	Sometimes
Help to plan and design activities	Occasionally	Often	Sometimes	Never	Sometimes	Occasionally
Help to correct	No	Often	Occasionally	Never	Sometimes	Occasionally

After contrasting each answer as opposed to that of their colleagues, and each school as opposed to the other two settings, the immediate conclusion we can draw is that, once again, each teacher reacts differently to the very same phenomena. In the first case, we can observe that, generally speaking, T2 seems to be more proactive than T1. Interestingly,

⁶⁶ See Chapter 5, table 7, for further information about codes given to each member and school.

despite being apparently more aware of the linguistic needs of the programme, this second teacher affirms not contributing to designing any activity in cooperation with the content teacher, but he does so when it comes to exam/activities marking. On the contrary, T1 does help to design activities, yet occasionally; but never corrects content exams. In the second school, T4 accumulates the highest number of negative responses of all the participants as well as in comparison with her colleague. In contrast, this participant is definitely more engaged in other activities such as the teaching of academic language and the introduction of content. In the case of T3, all her responses are found on the scale occasionally-sometimes, so she shows a certain degree of awareness but not so much proactivity. Thirdly, T5 seems to be somewhat more engaged in these activities than T6, since most of his responses indicate a fairly higher frequency of those actions in his case. Nonetheless, the difference between these teachers is so subtle that we cannot judge it as significant.

In short, the school in which more differences arose between its two EFL teachers was found in school A, since the responses varied significantly. The extent to which this disparity was caused by the fact that this school follows the mainstream curriculum cannot be stated in this study. If the three schools are contrasted, it can be observed that, according to their responses, the two EFL teachers in school C seem to be slightly more involved in all the transformations coming about than the rest of schools.

Having analysed the results obtained from this section of the questionnaire, we can conclude that there is not a unanimous line of work among the participants taking part in this study. Of the possible initiatives included in the questionnaire, it can be stated that all of them are considered but to a different extent. In any case, despite the disparity in the responses, the questionnaires confirmed the results obtained from the analysis of the syllabi. Both sets of data have shown the lack of specific regulations prescribing some measurements or lines of actions which can encourage the cooperation of EFL teachers.

In conclusion, the EFL teachers under scrutiny seemed to be proactive and open when it comes to cooperation with the content teachers when it comes to covering relevant academic language or when dealing with specific language issues. However, in terms of planning practices such as helping to identify subject language demands or co-planning concrete activities, collaboration is not so frequent. In other words, the nature of most of the actions taken seems to be mainly corrective, remedial and on an ongoing basis rather than preparatory and in anticipation of future scenarios.

6.4. Interviews with practitioners

This part of the analysis draws on the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. In trying to ascertain the influence of CLIL on the curricular area of EFL, we have counted on the personal descriptions given by the six participants. As opposed to the questionnaires, which contained closed categories with little or no space for personal remarks, the interviews were a source of open comments, with which teachers could narrate or reflect on how their profession has evolved in the last years as a result of the implementation of CLIL programmes in their workplaces.

As detailed in the methodology chapter, there were major areas or broad topics covered in this set of data, from which recurrent themes were coded. Subsequently, they were categorised into key emerging themes. For a more visual overview, Appendix N comprises all the data obtained during the content analysis process, presenting it in different tables.

The following sections will show and discuss the emerging themes. To help the reader, the results will be structured as follows: from section 6.4.1 to 6.4.5 the emerging themes will be displayed; the subthemes derived from the codes appear in bold and also represented in the MAXQDA tables, which offer a visual representation of these codes.

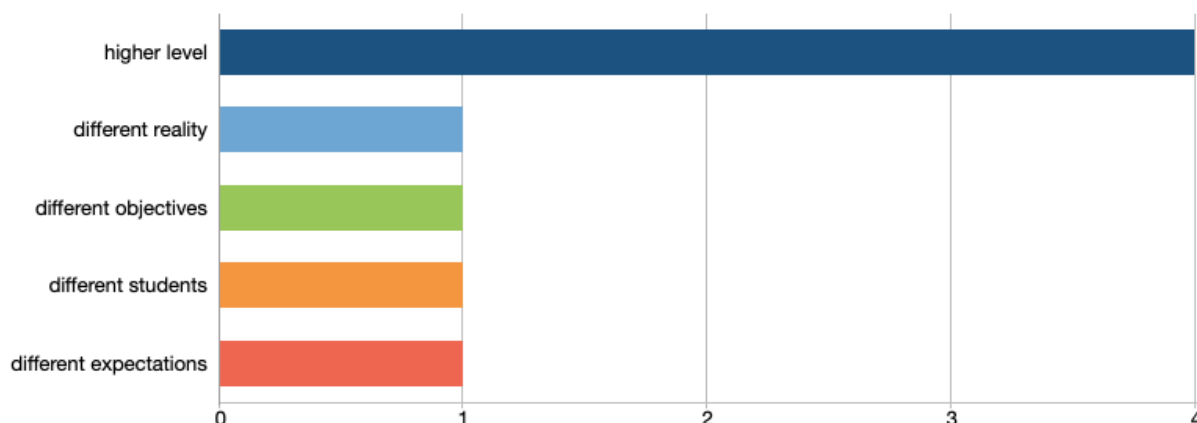
6.4.1. Transformation of the school setting

In the course of the conversations, the six participating teachers provided an account of the transformation since the onset of CLIL programmes. Not only do these shifts affect their immediate reality in the classroom, but also the school as a whole.

Therefore, we will first examine those changes that may have taken place in broader terms, from the perspective of the programme and the school. These particular new features might have a direct impact on the specific transformations listed by the participants throughout the interviews. Four of the six teachers make reference to these transformations:

Figure 20

Distribution and frequency of codes within ‘Transformation of the school setting’



In this respect, the main finding indicates that, albeit somewhat diversely, these schools have indeed undergone certain transformations. The most evident seems to refer to the **higher** (language) **level** of the students, highlighted by T3, T4, T5 and T6. The former remarked how this fact has led him to reshape important aspects of his teaching, as we will see in 6.4.2. From the experience of T3 and T4, such an improvement can be particularly noticed in the area of vocabulary. The following extracts illustrate this fact⁶⁷:

Extract 6.1. - Teacher 6

Lo que sí que es cierto que aquí tenemos un nivel superior, quizá. Los chicos ya vienen de clases bilingües anteriores y el nivel con el que vienen es más alto que en otros centros.

Extract 6.2. - Teacher 3

Sí, el vocabulario lo tienen. Claro, por eso es que vienen a inglés y dices ‘si es que saben un montón’. Ya lo traen de otras clases.

Extract 6.3. - Teacher 4

En cuanto al vocabulario y eso pues (.) en general sí que es verdad que tienen bastante (.) Pero eso se tiene que notar también porque obviamente estudian la asignatura en el idioma.

The conversion of these educational centres into “bilingual schools” appears to have resulted in new realities, as the four teachers working in state high schools confirmed. In fact, T5 insisted on various occasions that this is a completely **different reality**. This new scenario

⁶⁷ See Appendix O for a translation of the interview extracts.

can be deconstructed into **different students**, whose families deliberately choose this type of education, **different objectives** and **different expectations**:

Extract 6.4. - Teacher 5

Sí, porque las expectativas son distintas. El alumnado que elige venir a este centro lo elige. Y saben con lo que saben lo que hay. Tengo, bueno, tengo experiencia de dar inglés en un instituto no bilingüe 8 años y no tiene nada que ver. También tengo experiencia de dar inglés en una escuela de idiomas y no tiene nada que ver. Entonces son centros con objetivos distintos y con el alumnado distinto también, claro.

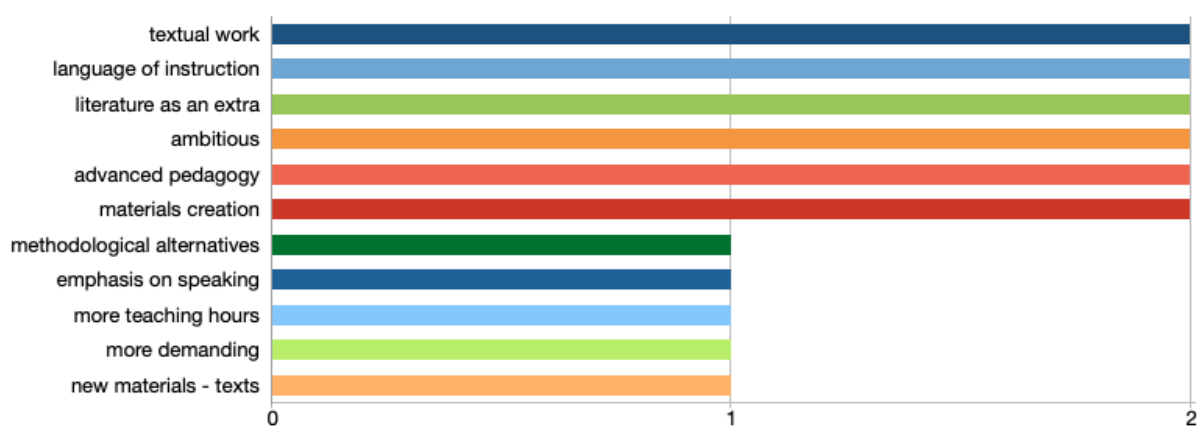
Finally, it should be noted that this transformation of the school setting is somewhat implicit in the rest of the participants' remarks on their own role transformation, as will be discussed in the subsequent emerging themes.

6.4.2. Evolution of teacher roles: innovation and new responsibilities

The six participants discussed different aspects of their work which have been affected by the implementation of CLIL programmes. Most of the new situations were pointed out by one or two teachers but they all seem to converge in the same direction: innovation, particularly affecting the realms of methodology and teaching materials.

Figure 21

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'Evolution of teacher roles'



From the methodological perspective, T3 and T4 stated that the bilingual programme has meant the necessity for more **advanced pedagogy** and **methodological alternatives**. In

that sense, T3 insisted that teachers can be more **ambitious**, referring to the type of activities and projects to be carried out with CSE students:

Extract 6.5. - Teacher 3

(...) el decreto del bilingüismo dice que hagas aprendizaje cooperativo ehh pedagogía más avanzada, lo que sea. Entonces, el mismo tipo de proyectos que hago en uno lo haré en otro. Lo que es verdad es que, puedes ser más ambicioso con los de bilingüe porque sabes que te van a terminar el trabajo, no te lo van a dejar a medias.

Extract 6.6. - Teacher 4

Entonces sí que tienes que ampliar un poco la metodología, intentar elaborar proyectos que sean interesantes y que puedas realmente sacar de ellos el potencial que haya.

The materials' dimension was mentioned four times as a relevant transformation. **Materials creation** was identified by T3 and T6, which abridge how English teachers have to design materials and activities, also as a consequence of the lack of resources available for them. The views of T6 synthesise all this evolution:

Extract 6.7. - Teacher 6

La gramática que conocen, los textos que tenemos que hacer han de ser más difíciles, los listenings o la forma de hablar les exige unas estructuras más complicadas a la hora de expresarse. Entonces sí que es cierto que eso implica por nuestra parte un plus, ¿no? De preparación, de actividades, un poco más complejas.

Much of these new materials concern **new types of texts** other than the traditional ones, according to the same participant and also T1:

Extract 6.8. - Teacher 1

Antes te ceñías exclusivamente al libro de texto, cosa que ahora no se hace. Porque sobre todo si somos un centro bilingüe y hay otro tipo de textos en los que te puedes también apoyar y puedes echar una mano a los compañeros, pues se hace.

This is an interesting extract because it seems to imply that the new texts which can be used now in the EFL classroom have opened up opportunities for the selection of new contents and text types more relevant to the CLIL context. Moreover, new text typologies do

not constitute the only transformation regarding texts. According to T3 and T4, there has been an intensification of the **textual work**; namely, an increased focus on texts:

Extract 6.9. - Teacher 3

(...) una serie de lecturas que ahora están más focalizadas en los textos que en historia de la literatura. Periodos literarios es como era antes, año pasado y anteriores. Y ahora es (.) analizar y leer distintos tipos de textos y escribir.

It must be mentioned that, although this textual work has been explicitly emphasised in the new curriculum (see 6.2.2.), it is only the two teachers from school B that mentioned it as a new responsibility for EFL teachers.

As we have seen above, the higher linguistic proficiency of the students is probably the most remarkable consequence of CLIL programmes. In line with this, T2 and T5 pointed to the change of the **language of instruction** as a major transformation. This means that they are able to teach in English most (if not all) of the time. Teacher 5, whose experience as an EFL teacher is long, explained it as follows:

Extract 6.10. - Teacher 5

Yo entro en clase y directamente pues hablo. Y antes no. No daba las clases en inglés. Porque no podía darlas en inglés. Ehhh claro, es que no tiene nada que ver.

We have shown above that the educational authorities envisaged the introduction of literature in the EFL lessons as the way forward, given the special features surrounding these groups of students. It has surely brought about radical changes in what and how to teach in the current EFL subject. However, this new approach has been listed as a transformation by just the participants from school B, who see **literature as an extra** which has been introduced in their new syllabus:

Extract 6.11. - Teacher 3

(...) en mi materia, supone añadir literatura al programa bilingüe, géneros literarios.

Similarly to the case of textual work, whilst only two of the schools abide by a literature-based curriculum, it is striking that this fact was not mentioned by a higher number of participants. This could suggest that school B is more aware of the new curricular prescriptions than the rest of the participant schools.

The rest of the subthemes falling within the scope of the evolution of their tasks and roles were mentioned just once but it is worth taking them into consideration. Teacher 6 reckoned that having **more teaching hours** benefits their teaching and may explain the students' higher competence. This same teacher also insisted that while it is the teachers' duty to incorporate the four skills, they are now able to put more **emphasis on speaking**:

Extract 6.12. - Teacher 6

Ponemos hincapié en lo que nunca se había puesto. En la parte oral, que nunca o antiguamente nunca se ponía tanto hincapié en esta parte.

Let us finish this section with an interesting remark about how differently these teachers perceive their mission when compared with EFL teachers working in mainstream education. Despite these new realities they comment, T2 and T6 mention that their ultimate mission is the same:

Extract 6.13. - Teacher 6

Tenemos la misma misión, que es intentar que los alumnos ehh sepan inglés, dominen la asignatura, el vocabulario, la gramática, sean capaces de hablar. Lo que sí que es cierto que aquí tenemos un nivel superior, quizá. Los chicos ya vienen de clases bilingües anteriores y el nivel con el que vienen es más alto que en otros centros. Pero en principio, nuestra misión es intentar que su nivel de inglés sea el mejor posible, ¿no? Que adquieran el nivel mejor máximo posible.

Even if T6 had acknowledged that the higher linguistic competence and the increase of teaching hours has reshaped his job, he states that the ultimate goal does not vary: to teach them to speak and write in English so that they can manage to communicate in the foreign language. The reason for this kind of statements could be behind the factors shaping their teaching cognition, more specifically, the influence of CLT as the ideal expected practice.

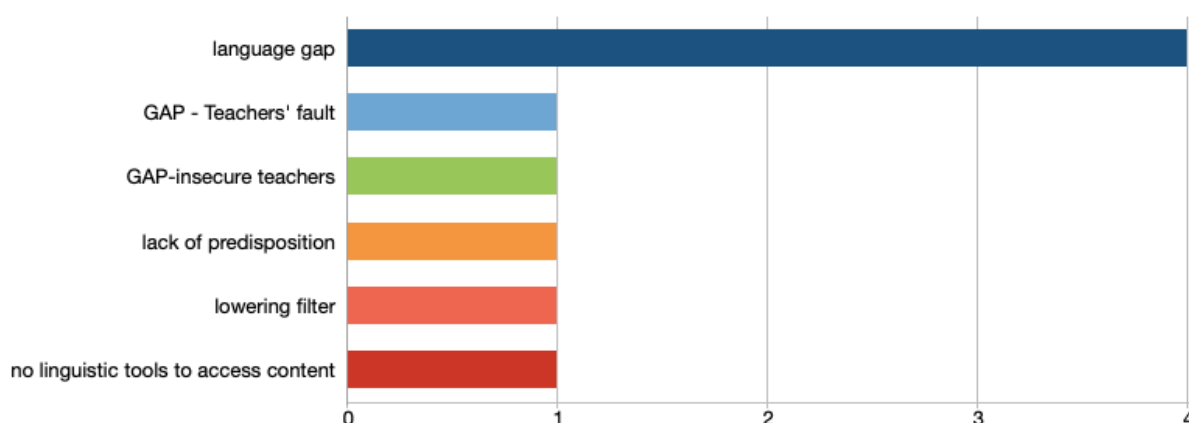
In conclusion, the six participants surveyed spoke of changes in their professional duties and roles, thus it can be confirmed that, at least for these participants, a transformation has indeed taken place. Naturally, as T2 was still a newcomer with no previous experience in mainstream education, he provided fewer comments in this regard.

6.4.3. The language gap issue: causes and actions adopted

In order to have a comprehensive picture of the evolution of EFL teaching in these settings in recent years, we must first discern whether our participants believe the so-called *language gap* actually exists (see chapter 2).

Figure 22

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'Language gap'



The results obtained here clearly confirm this **language gap** is perceived as a real problem, as all of the participants mentioned it. Four of them (T2, T4, T5 and T6) do it explicitly, while T1, T3 (and T4 again) pointed out its **causes**. Teacher 4 illustrated this issue, stating that the fact that learners are still acquiring the language and are not in possession of the necessary linguistic **tools to access content** constitutes an intrinsic problem of CLIL implementation:

Extract 6.14. - Teacher 4

Es una dificultad añadida para el aprendizaje. Y sobre todo porque no tienen las herramientas para poder expresarse [...] Si tú no tienes esa herramienta que es la lengua para expresar lo que estás pensando, ¿cómo lo vas a hacer bien?

As will be discussed in the next chapter, this language gap was an important issue for this participant, for whom this intrinsic problem is at the grassroots of any other potential problem in bilingual education.

In contrast, T3 explained that the students' language proficiency is rather homogeneous, so the vast majority of them do not encounter difficulties when being exposed

to content subjects. However, in her view, the **filter** to access bilingual education at Secondary level is **lowering**:

Extract 6.15. - Teacher 3

No suele ser un problema porque ya hay un filtro previo, pero alguno que ‘se cuele’ digamos, pues sí que lo pasa peor, claro, para acceder a esos conocimientos ↑si no tiene: no habla: la lengua vehicular. Pero la mayoría, la gran mayoría, sí entienden perfectamente [...] Pero sí ha habido excepciones que se han colado, grietas en el sistema. Entonces desde que no, desde que el filtro no es el PET o el KET - es que los confundo - se dice que ha bajado el nivel de los chavales que entran en bilingüe. Que uno no se entere de la clase de historia porque no trae suficiente inglés es nuevo porque antes el filtro era bastante fiable. Y e: tenía el nivel más alto.

This teacher suggested that this is a recent but growing problem, since the only requirement for students to enter the CLIL programme used to be showing proof of being in possession of the B1 level; whereas currently, the children enrolled in bilingual education at Primary level have direct access. This fact seems to imply that those children who could have had any incipient linguistic problem in Primary are inevitably heading for future complications. In T3’s opinion, it would be key to reinstate the filter to access the programme in Secondary education.

Turning to other **reasons** why this language gap is taking place, two participants pointed at teachers themselves as the source of the problem. From T1’s point of view, it is the **teachers’ fault** because of their reluctance to open up their classrooms and ask for support when needed. As we will further see in 6.4.4., she seemed to refer particularly to content teachers and their lack of predisposition to ask the language teacher for help:

Extract 6.16 - Teacher 1

Porque yo creo que lo hacemos mal. luego cada profesor es (.) es su reino de Taifas Y ahí no entra nadie, y ahí no dejan tampoco que se meta mano a la hora de- ehh modificar los criterios de evaluación, o echarles una mano, porque a lo mejor ellos no son los especialistas en lengua, con ↑ciertas estructuras.

Teacher 4 referred to the content teachers as well, but adopting a less critical stance. From her perspective, it is a matter of the teachers’ own English command, which would be making them feel **insecure** and would result in language-related issues.

Interestingly, despite the extended acknowledgement of this linguistic issue, no actions seem to have been taken to address it. Only T5 mentioned some meetings and protocols:

Extract 6.17. - Teacher 5

Estamos siempre ehh cada mes hacemos una reunión para ver qué alumnos pueden tener problemas con el idioma como vehículo curricular de la materia en cuestión. Son los profesores de las materias los que nos avisan a los profes de inglés. Aunque en clase de inglés obviamente también lo vemos.

Undoubtedly, as discussed in chapter 2, the causes of this language gap and its solutions are interwoven with the extent to which content and language teachers support and collaborate with each other. Hence, any other actions which may have already been taken in this regard can have an impact on the *Language gap* issue indirectly, as will be shown in the next section.

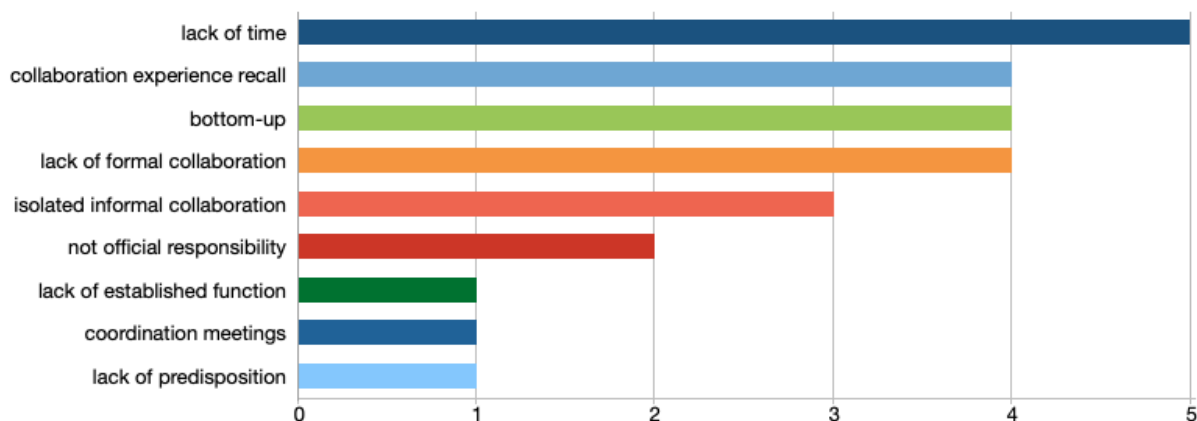
Finally, although the potential solutions which involve the EFL teacher will be dealt with in chapter 7, it is interesting to mention that some participants explored possible solutions to narrow this gap.

6.4.4. Support and collaboration: the non-systematic engagement of the EFL teacher

The support offered by EFL teachers and collaborative practices with content teachers will be shown together. We cannot discern one without the other, as offering any kind of language support inevitably involves at least a certain degree of collaboration with the content teacher.

Figure 23

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'Support and collaboration'



The issue concerning the involvement of EFL teachers as far as supporting tasks are concerned was addressed by the six participants, who reported on their current practices. If considered in isolation, the supportive role of EFL teachers is not common for the time being. We can draw this conclusion from the fact that none of them mentioned (at least directly) carrying out specific actions to address possible language problems. The six participants agreed that the language teachers are not sufficiently involved in CLIL programmes, which could take more advantage of the expertise of EFL teachers. T3 and T5 explicitly confirmed what was discussed above: it is **not their official responsibility** and there is a **lack of established functions** in this regard:

Extract 6.18. - Teacher 3

No, mi responsabilidad es cumplir la programación. Y mi programación me enchufa dos novelas, un libro de texto tal. Entonces no es mi responsabilidad. Ehh Es (.) si me da la gana porque creo que tiene más sentido y como tengo mucha libertad de cátedra, es verdad que sí puedes ir haciendo eso si quieres.

Extract 6.19. - Teacher 5

Nunca se ha establecido por ley, ¿sabes? Una una función del profesor de inglés en ese sentido porque se ha dado por hecho que los profesores de la asignatura que sea están pues obviamente acreditados, habilitados.

We must be cautious when interpreting these results. As T3 indicated in this extract, their responsibilities are not dictated officially, which does not necessarily determine the teachers' actions and decisions. That is, the lack of official responsibility to offer linguistic

support may coexist with other non-standardised grassroots initiatives which are worth considering next.

Broadening the scope to collaboration with content teachers as a whole, five of the participants explicitly mentioned the **lack of formal collaboration** but the remaining teacher, T1, also assumed this fact when she accounts for its causes. For her, the deficient collaboration is mostly due to the **lack of predisposition** on the part of content teachers, as summarised in extract 6.16. above. But the main reason why collaboration is not an extended practice, seems to be **lack of time**, a factor which was pointed out by five participants on seven occasions in total, which could be evidential of a major structural problem. The only participant who did not mention it was T2, maybe due to the fact that he is the youngest and newest practitioner; thus, lacking the perspective and experience of his colleagues. The following extracts illustrate this constraint:

Extract 6.20. - Teacher 3

Los horarios son más complicados. Luego aquí, hay muchas extraescolares, hay muchas guardias. Entonces, las guardias estas de tiempo muerto, de prepararte o de hablar con alguien, al final todos los profesores están cubriendo huecos de otros. Parte por los moscosos, parte porque se hacen muchas extraescolares. Entonces, no hay tanto momento ↑informal de encontrarnos los profes.

Extract 6.21. - Teacher 6

Tenemos todas las horas ocupadas y haría falta tiempo para empezar. Coordinarse lleva tiempo. Estar todos de acuerdo. Hay que hablar. Hay que ponerse de acuerdo. Plantear proyectos, actividades. Y eso básicamente lleva estar juntos. Tenemos que estar juntos y hacerlo con tiempo.

Despite these inexistent regulations and the time issue, four of the participants (T2, T3, T4 and T6) acknowledged having taken part in **informal collaboration** practice, which are isolated and bottom-up:

Extract 6.22. - Teacher 4

Lo que se hace es por la pura y exclusiva voluntad, ganas y motivación y compromiso de los profesores.

Extract 6.23. - Teacher 6

O sea que sí que hacemos colaboraciones puntuales. No todas las semanas porque no siempre es fácil coordinar todo eso. Pero sí que hacemos colaboraciones puntuales (...) Surge del departamento de CLIL. De Historia, de Plástica, en este sentido, que nos piden ayuda para colaborar con ellos normalmente.

In the course of the interview, T2, T3, and T4 shared recalls of this type of informal collaboration. Although not all of them can be included here, the experience of T2 will be discussed, as it was rather revealing for him:

Extract 6.24. - Teacher 2

Sí hemos trabajado, nos hemos ayudado, pero en algún momento puntual. Pues ehh recuerdo una semana que estábamos viendo tanto en un tema de inglés en 4º ESO que estaba relacionado con los negocios, con la economía también. La profesora de economía estaba dando vocabulario parecido. Fue útil que esa semana, los alumnos vieron que ese vocabulario que estaban viendo en economía lo estaban viendo también en inglés. Entonces fue muy chulo porque fue una semana bien. Les interesó esa semana, tanto en esa asignatura como en inglés. Vieron que ese vocabulario que estaban viendo conmigo daba la casualidad que también lo estaban aplicando en la otra asignatura. Entonces es verdad que esa semana estuvimos trabajando conjuntamente pues revisando el vocabulario que va a dar esa profesora, si yo le podía ayudar o ↑explicarle a sus alumnos, que al final son los mismos que los míos, alguna directriz, algún truco para entenderlo mejor. Yyy en ese caso sí. Pero al final es una cosa puntual.

This is an interesting extract at different levels. On the one hand and regarding collaboration, this teacher insisted on the sporadic nature of this joint practice. On the other hand, because his narration shows how this action emerged unexpectedly and unplanned, having a positive result which allowed him to find ways to help his students cope with Economics disciplinary-language.

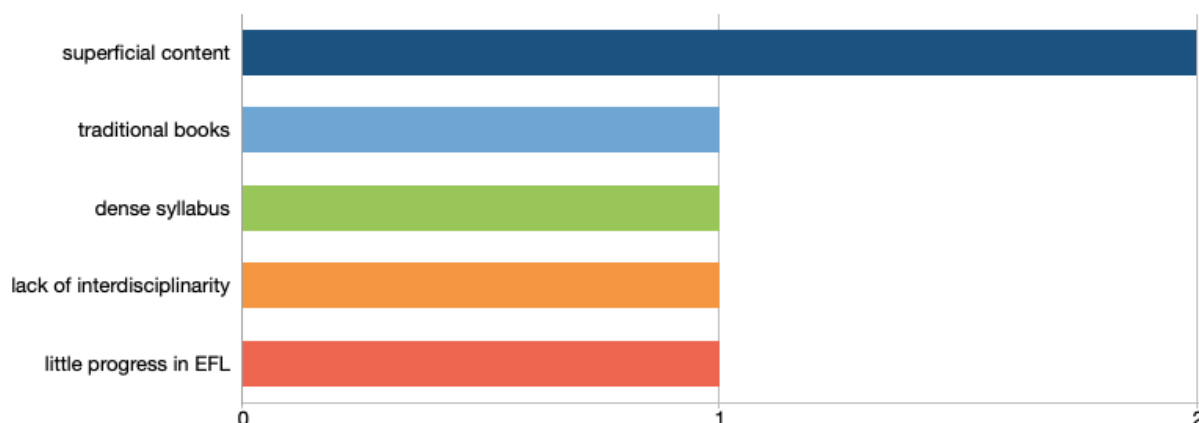
In conclusion, both practices to support and scaffold language acquisition as well as collaboration among content and language teachers are almost nonexistent. However, in spite of the scarce collaborative practices which can enable language teachers to offer more of the needed support, the factor behind this seems to be external rather than personal stances. This means that there is still room for improvement.

6.4.5. Current curricular rigidity and lack of common objectives

This section comprises all the emerging themes concerning the curriculum and its current state, both from the EFL perspective in general and its relation with CLIL programmes in particular.

Figure 24

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'Current curriculum problems'



When it comes to current curricular issues, teachers at school B were the most critical. Regarding contents and EFL textbooks, they asserted the following:

Extract 6.25. - Teacher 3

La crisis que me da como profesor de inglés es que estos libros (coge el libro de texto) me parecen soporíferos porque son los mismos libros que estudié cuando yo era: No te digo cuando yo era pequeña, pero bueno, sí, porque, o sea la la: pedagogía comunicativa ésta existe desde los 70, entonces, es el mismo tipo de libro (...) Entonces no son nada temáticos para que profundices y te metas en algo.

Extract 6.26. - Teacher 4

Pero generalmente los temas que se tratan en los libros de textos son los que tienen que ver con el currículo de la lengua inglesa y normalmente no van más mucho más allá de los temas del día a día, de contenidos generales de medio ambiente, cuestiones de sociedad. (...) Y luego en bilingüe, no porque también hay parte histórica y cultural en la asignatura. Pero como es mucho más ambiguo, depende ya de lo que quieras hacer.

It can be observed that T3 maintained the textbook approach is still **traditional**. In her view, they have barely evolved since the introduction of communicative approaches in the

late 70s. Similarly, T4 stated that the topics appearing in the curriculum; and consequently, in the textbooks, are too restricted to daily topics such as general issues concerning the environment or society matters. For her, these are **superficial contents**, which do not broaden the scope to other potentially relevant contents, another important hindrance for T3 as well. However, for the second teacher, the new Advanced English curriculum has brought about some modifications, which she finds positive. In contrast, T3 pointed out two additional problems. On the one hand, she believes that the **syllabus is too dense**, so having to comply with it prevents her from introducing any other additional content. On the other hand, the **lack of interdisciplinarity**. Once again, a participant's comment revealed a recurrent scenario: the potential connections between different disciplines, and more specifically, between content and language areas, are neither established nor organised. Some of these ideas were shared by T6, who focused more on the methodological aspect. For him, there has been **little progress in EFL** in that regard since he started teaching:

Extract 6.27 - Teacher 6

Muchas cosas no han cambiado [...] Seguimos siendo muy teóricos. Y deberíamos trabajar más haciendo proyectos, haciendo una educación más práctica, por equipos. Pues actividades productivas más que de memorización. Después de tantísimos años, han evolucionado muy poco las cosas.

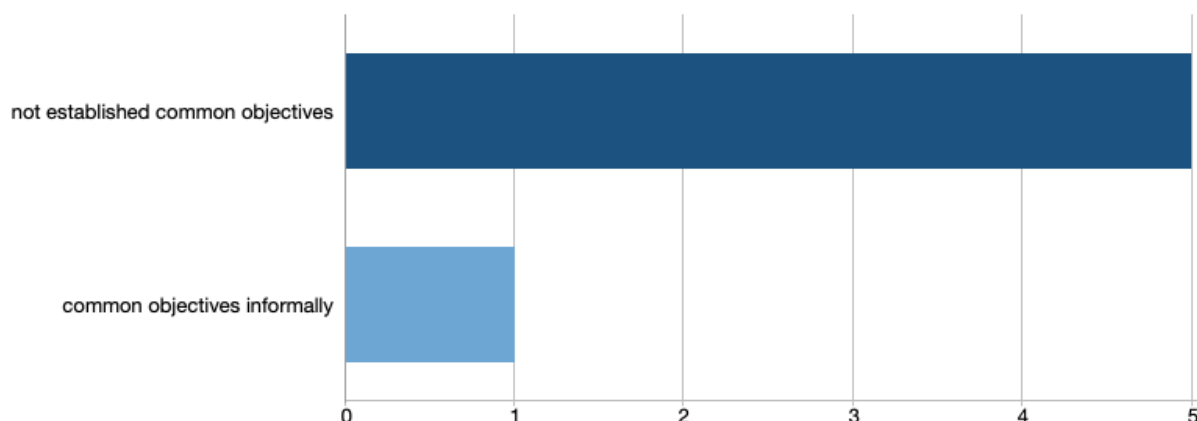
For this participant, the slow progress not only affects the curriculum itself and what to teach, but also how to teach. With this statement, he echoed the frequent criticism towards the prevalence of memory over practical skills in our educational system, and more specifically, in language teaching.

Despite the fact that only half the participants made explicit reference to this current rigidness, the six of them reckoned that some modifications must be made to the curriculum. This seems to reinforce the idea that the current curriculum may not be totally coherent with current needs.

As we know, “objectives” constitute one of the main curricular elements prescribed by the curriculum and described in the subject syllabi. The need for the establishment of mutual objectives valid for both the content and the language areas has been claimed to fall within the scope of teacher collaboration (see 2.5.1). Figure 25 encompasses the reality of this concern in the participants' experience:

Figure 25

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'common objectives'



It can be observed that the six participants coincided in that the curriculum and syllabi **do not establish common objectives**. Teacher 1 adds that this is done **informally**:

Extract 6.28. - Teacher 1

Eso lo hago yo.os contenidos que vienen, por ejemplo, en los libros de texto y demás, que van a impartir los compañeros correspondan a los que se están viendo en la misma asignatura, al mismo nivel {...]se les remite a los profesores a- a que miren la programación de los cursos donde se imparte la asignatura. ¿Que lo hagan o no? No lo sé. Pero de forma- de modo informal está hecho.

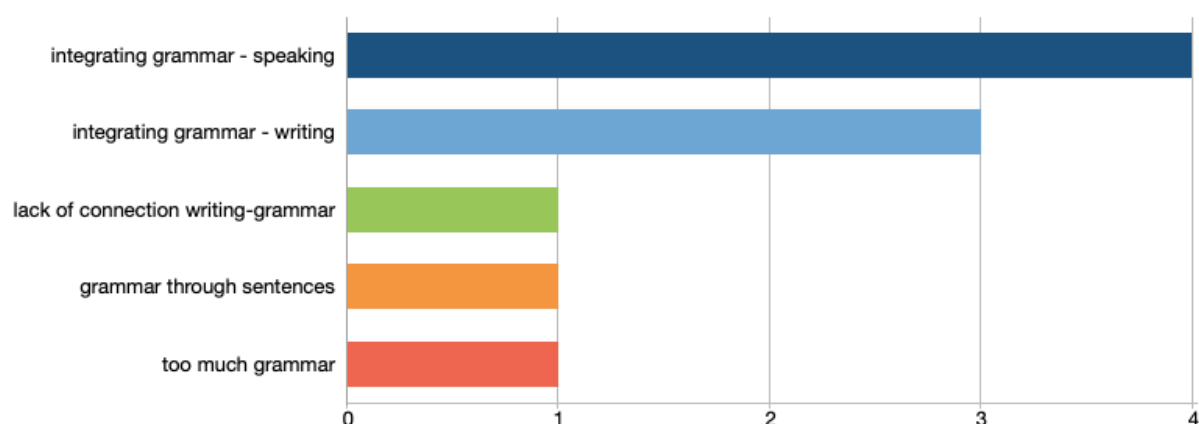
This teacher, who also works as the coordinator of the bilingual programme, stated that she is the one responsible for doing so. From her point of view, this is done in an informal way since the content teacher is expected to study the linguistic objectives of the English subject so that they can be extrapolated to the content subject. This could be interpreted in a positive and a negative way. On the one hand, it shows a considerable degree of awareness of the need to share teaching objectives. On the other hand, the practice depicted here could not be seen as “collaborative” but a relation of power imbalance in which the language teacher dictates and the content teacher obeys.

Finally, other issues concerning the operationalisation of the curriculum into current teacher practices were exposed by the participants. Not all of them derive from the consequences of bilingual education, but help us get a better understanding of what the reality of teaching English as a Foreign Language at Secondary education may entail nowadays. Special consideration deserves the role of grammar. This is always a controversial issue, as

another important flaw normally attributed to language teaching in Spain is the excessive presence of grammar at the cost of communicative competence. In this regard, some of the participants agree that the approach to grammar is still traditional and poses some issues.

Figure 26

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'practices - grammar'



Extract 6.29. - Teacher 2

Es verdad que se evalúa el aprendizaje gramatical de diferentes formas pero quizá es verdad que la más común es a través de frases, a través de fill in the gap.

Extract 6.30. - Teacher 5

Ahora mismo en el currículum de inglés avanzado nos estamos centrando demasiado en intentar explicar temas gramaticales. Sinceramente. Sí. Por el (.). Es mi sensación. Por el objetivo de que se presenten a un examen, etc, etc. Ehh Para mi gusto. Pero bueno, es la función que, no no estoy bien a gusto en esa situación.

Extract 6.31. - Teacher 3

Ya conectar la gramática con el writing me parece un ↑trunfo. De hecho, en el libro no está conectado porque te dan el pretérito perfecto y tienes que escribir un e-mail. O tienes que escribir, yo que sé, una: crítica de una película. No sé, no hay necesariamente: Ellos no lo ligan, entonces yo intento ligar eso con lo otro. A veces con la literatura, conectar la gramática con la literatura. Es lo que es- estoy intentando crear más conexiones dentro de mis pequeñas áreas.

Teacher 2 complained that grammar is still taught **through sentences** or at a sentence level, mostly through fill-in the gaps activities. T5 also reckoned there is **too much grammar**. Interestingly, he explicitly mentioned that this high presence of grammar also

affects the “advanced English curriculum” and he blamed it on the aim of having students taking Cambridge exams. For him, even the writing practices are conditioned by these official examinations. With regard to how grammar is integrated into writing, T2 and T3 agreed that there is a **lack of connection between grammar and writing**. Interestingly, both participants coincided in that textbooks do not normally present and work those areas in an integrated way.

Despite this negative prospect, five of the participants described how their teaching practices tend to follow different directions. As an alternative to teaching grammar in a more traditional and isolated way, four of them (T1, T2, T5, and T6) reported **integrating grammar with speaking practice**. Conversely, three of them (T2, T3, T6) affirmed **integrating it with writing**. The strong position of T4 concerning grammar is worth being highlighted, as for her, grammar is the cornerstone thanks to which learners make sense out of the language and the knowledge of it allows them to progress. She affirmed loving teaching grammar but admitted it is much easier when integrating it with games. The following extracts illustrate some of these points:

Extract 6.32. - Teacher 1

Yo le dedico poco tiempo a la gramática, sinceramente. que copien una estructura general (.) y luego lo que hacemos es utilizarla. Yo utilizo más las habilidades orales (.) que las habilidades escritas, la verdad. Es un idioma, y entonces (.) me mm me centro más en en la parte oral.

Extract 6.33. - Teacher 6

Intentamos no hacer muchos ejercicios de pura gramática, sino insertarlos pues en alguna actividad oral, insertarlos en alguna actividad escrita. Y de esa manera, pues que estén ocultos y los chicos tengan un poco más de interés por esa parte de la lengua.

In short, their reflections about the imperfections of the current curriculum, the actual slow progress and the role of grammar seem to suggest that these participants are generally critical with certain traditional practices. This fact may reflect a considerable degree of openness, which leads us to the analysis of the impact of teacher cognition on their views and practices concerning bilingual education (see next chapter).

6.5. Discussion and synthesis of the findings

RQ1 aimed at gaining insight into the current redefinition of EFL teacher roles and the English subject, examined from the perspective of CLIL programmes. Having analysed the main results for each set of data separately, this final section offers some conclusions reached when triangulating the three data sets.

The study of the curriculum and its application in the EFL syllabi, the questionnaires and the interviews have revealed that, in the contexts surveyed, there actually has been a **reshaping of the EFL teacher roles**. As a consequence, in the regional curriculum for “Advanced English” the new features of this subject can be condensed in:

- Prominent role of academic language and textual genres.
- Introduction of “content” in the EFL subject.
- Curricular space which serves as a tool for linguistic support.

These could suggest that the English curriculum has indeed been adapted to the new scenario in a bi-directional way. As any curriculum, it is prescriptive and, therefore, top-down. However if it is responding to the new needs, a bottom-up force seems to be behind it. This aligns with the advocates of a new conception of the subject and the teacher functions, which comprises these three domains: textual emphasis (Lorenzo & Moore, 2010, Bovellan, 2014), meaningful content (i.e. “Literature”) (Dale et al., 2017; Leaton-Gray et al., 2018), and acknowledgment of the supportive role of the subject (i.e. Lyster, 2017; Pavón & Ellison, 2013; Pavón & Méndez, 2017) as a way to scaffold their content learning (Dale & Tanner, 2015). Therefore, it can be concluded that, at least, the educational authorities somewhat acknowledge this transformation and the emerging needs in language teaching. Similarly, the implications of having English as a vehicular language for content learning are taken into consideration while, concurrently, the curricula acknowledge a new reality which the teachers corroborate in the interviews.

Concerning the **academic dimension and its linguistic demands**, even if policy appears to be in the right direction, the syllabi guidelines are still too vague and lack concretion. Moreover, the notion of “academic language” here refers to “general academic language” or CALP as a whole, but it still does not embrace subject-specific literacies. The selected genres described in the curriculum (argumentative, informative, etc.) are definitely academic, but not specific enough.

As for the **introduction of content** from non-linguistic areas in the EFL subject, the interviews have allowed us to find out that its implementation is neither stable nor homogeneous across schools, despite the curriculum recommendations. This new approach is still not extended but all the participants showed good predisposition.

Regarding the **focus on text types**, it is not included in school A's syllabus, being limited to what the C1 textbook may compensate for in its text treatment. Interestingly, four teachers referred to this transformation, acknowledging that the effect of CLIL has allowed them to expand the repertoire of types of texts which can be incorporated into their lessons.

In terms of **linguistic support offered by EFL teachers**, the curriculum emphasises it as a new responsibility of EFL teachers, as Leaton-Gray et al. (2018) had pointed out. Despite the acknowledgment of this fact in the curriculum, the policy does not include specific measurements and actions to be taken. As reflected in the questionnaires and interviews, this results in a myriad of practices which depend on the teachers' and departments' personal decisions. In fact, the second main conclusion of this chapter is that **not all the roles** put forward in the literature for the EFL teacher (synthesised in 2.5.) **have been considered** in the curriculum; let alone, implemented as daily practices. The analysis of the different sets of data have pointed to a relation between the roles which have not been included in the policy and the reported non-standardised teacher practices. Obvious as it may seem, this means that the need for those new roles does exist but, as they have not been prescribed by policy, there is an imbalance in how each school and teacher responds to those emerging demands. These specific roles (see figure 3) which have not been considered as yet are:

- collaborating in the design of language objectives (section 2.5.1),
- advising on specific language issues (section 2.5.3).

With regard to the former, there is no reference to it in the regional and school policy. The questionnaires and interviews confirmed the absence of such prescribed role. Establishing language objectives has been largely found as an isolated and unprincipled practice which is still far from being normalised, both at a policy and a school level. As for the latter, we have seen that the policy does not acknowledge explicitly that some language difficulties may arise, which leaves schools unprotected in this regard. For this reason, it is the department and teachers' responsibility to establish mechanisms to cope with these linguistic issues. The questionnaires and interviews corroborated it and revealed diversity of practices in this regard. At the teacher level, and despite the insufficient regulation, the results obtained from the questionnaires and interviews clearly showed a positive predisposition to

assume this responsibility. Even if the time devoted to dealing with these specific linguistic problems varies in each case, all of them are well aware of the problem. This is a growing need and there is a shared consciousness among all the participants.

As discussed in chapter 2.5.2 and 2.6., **teacher collaboration** is a key factor which also reshapes the boundaries of teachers' practice. Once again, the regional policy sees the implementation of the new curriculum as an opportunity. It **recommends** it but it does not prescribe it, in line with the lack of a statutory curriculum for multilingual education. Consequently, the school policy is also vague and ambiguous. This lack of guidelines was clearly confirmed by both the questionnaires and the interviews. As depicted by the participants. There is a lack of teacher collaboration, mainly due to the fact that it has not been prescribed, coexisting with other contextual factors such as inexistent allocated time, which reveals the absence of adequate institutional support. So, content and language teachers do not work side by side in these settings so as to make the CLIL programme more effective. These two sets of data have also portrayed some isolated and anecdotal collaborative efforts, which confirm that even when those collaborative practices are found, they are mostly caused by bottom-up initiatives and personal synergies between teachers. Time constraints also affect negatively, in consonance with previous research findings (Dale et al., 2017; Julián & Fonseca, 2017; Pavón & Méndez, 2017; Pérez-Cañado, 2018; Skinnari & Bovellan, 2016). This scenario seems to suggest that, but for the lack of time and regulations, more positive results could be achieved, as Lo (2015) claims. Interdisciplinarity is also related to collaboration and the establishment of common objectives across subjects. In line with the results discussed above, it is advised in the curriculum, but not regulated. And none of the three schools consider it in their syllabi.

Regarding the shifts of the EFL subject, a special methodological approach in EFL teaching is recommended by the Advanced English curriculum. The comments made by the participants also confirmed that teaching English to students for whom English is the vehicular language at school has demanded from them an innovative perspective and considerable effort as far as this aspect is concerned. This seems to confirm the pedagogical challenges for language teachers reported by Leaton-Gray et al. (2018). Apart from these, the emerging themes appearing in the interviews have uncovered other new tasks such as the creation of new material and the need to look for more relevant texts to use in class. Most of these situations rise, once again, from bottom-up and grassroots needs. Simultaneously, this situation appears to coexist with certain traditional practices, also concerning grammar, which some of the participants complained about. Concerning the curricular extensions, the new

policy makes reference to Literature contents or more textual focus. Schools B and C have included this in their syllabi and they seem to stick to it. School A follows a different policy path, but their own syllabus and organisational schedule provides the mechanisms to meet some of these demands. However, regarding Literature, only the teachers at school B have pointed at it as one of the occurred transformations. Still, the fact that all of the participants suggested changes to the current curriculum reveals that it may be worth revisiting. Since all the teachers' proposals are to be understood from the perspective of teacher cognition, they will be further discussed in the next chapter.

All this leads to each setting adopting different practices and teachers making their own decisions. In this regard, practitioners implement their own rules based on their circumstances and criteria. The next chapter will precisely deal with the interplay between the teachers' mindset and the desired practices which could improve CLIL programmes and the expected and effective integration of content and language.

6.6. Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the findings obtained from RQ1. The results derived from each data set have been analysed and discussed briefly separately: the curriculum and syllabi in 6.2., the questionnaires in 6.3., and the interviews in 6.4. In order to triangulate the results, the findings have been contrasted in 6.5., where the current state of the new roles adopted by EFL teachers have been discussed. The findings have revealed that the regional curriculum has intended to respond to the demands emerging in these contexts, prescribing a new focus in the EFL subject and encouraging undertaking new responsibilities. However, not all the new roles suggested by the literature have been yet defined by the policy and further bottom-up needs are still to be addressed, as the syllabi and teachers' responses have shown.

7. EFL teachers' views on their *ideal* role in CLIL (RQ 2): Analysis and discussion II

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapter has accounted for the gradual reshaping of teacher roles in EFL, mainly caused by the implementation of bilingual education programmes in the three schools taking part in the current study. This chapter will look at how the participants envisage their own ideal role drawing on their own vision of CLIL programmes and English teaching in the present context. More specifically, it aims at answering RQ2, displayed here again:

- 2a. How do EFL teachers perceive their own ideal roles in CLIL programmes?
- 2b. To what extent can teachers' beliefs influence desired practices in CLIL Secondary scenarios?

As already discussed throughout this dissertation, transformations in the EFL area have not always been the most effective for language awareness and still lack proper guidance. It is now the moment to examine the interplay between teacher cognition (see chapter 3) and teacher conceptualisation of ideal teaching practices in these settings. By adopting such a focus, we can gain insights into the whole potential of taking this variable into consideration in order to discern the future pathways for teacher education and policy development.

To answer this research question, both the questionnaires and the interviews have been used as sets of data. Following the same structure as the previous chapter, the results obtained from the questionnaires will be analysed first. Secondly, the emerging themes found in the interviews concerning this research question will be examined. The interview results

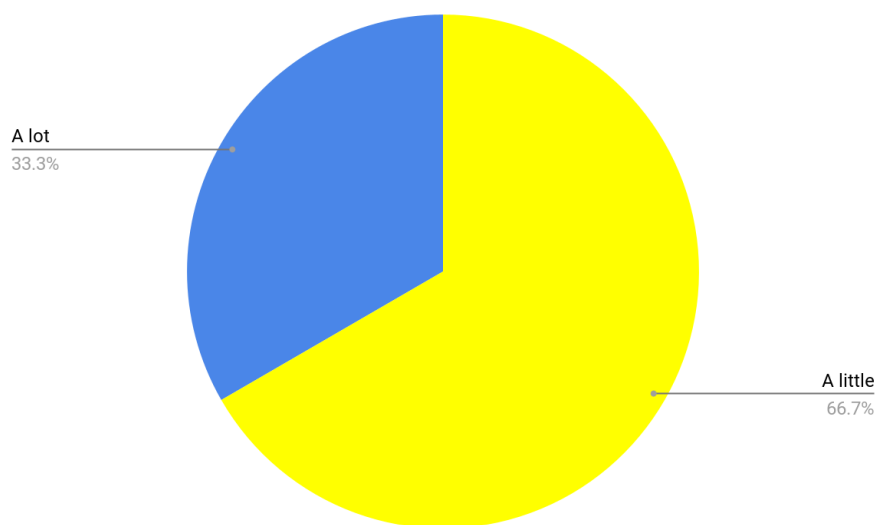
have been divided into three larger sections (7.3., 7.4. and 7.5.) following a thematic criterion. The first section will show the participants' beliefs about the multifaceted effects of CLIL programmes. Next, the focus will be on the teachers' views about ideal roles and practices. Lastly, the beliefs about the teaching of CALP will be addressed. To end this chapter, the main findings will be discussed and both sets of data will be contrasted so as to detect any potential discrepancy.

7.2. Teachers' beliefs regarding CLIL programmes and EFL: Questionnaire results

Some of the questions included in the questionnaire intended to approach the participants' perception of what an ideal bilingual CLIL setting is and what it entails. This information helps us understand how language teachers conceptualise content and language integration, some contextual aspects which will later contribute to ascertain some other views about the role of language. These questions comprise topics concerning general conceptions of CLIL as well as ideas on whether the EFL subject should be reconceptualised. Because of the myriad of terms within the scope of teacher cognition, the BAK (Beliefs-Assumptions-Knowledge) model (Woods, 1996) will be followed when referring to the concepts "knowledge", "belief" and "assumption".

7.2.1. Perceptions on CLIL

The first question is the broadest, but simultaneously, of the greatest importance, as it concerns teachers' view on how much they know about the CLIL approach. All the participants chose polarised answers:

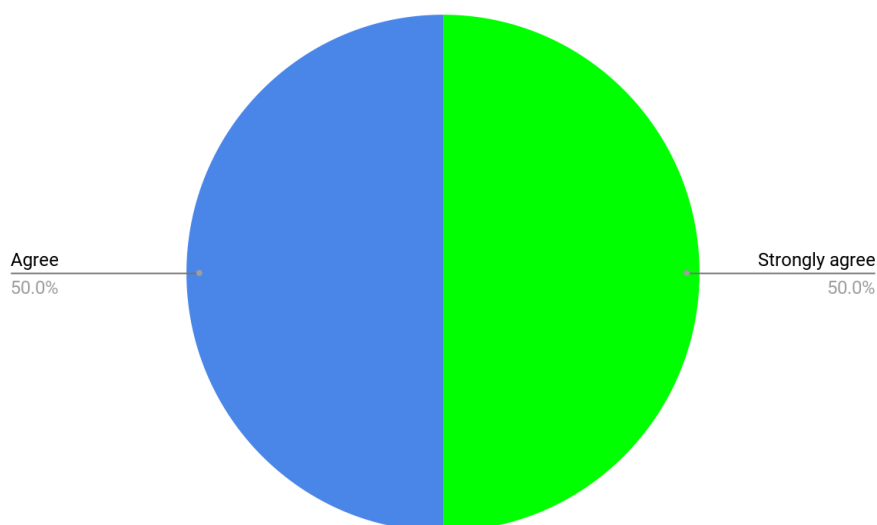
Figure 27*Knowledge about CLIL*

According to this, four of the six participants affirmed not having too much knowledge about CLIL. This contrasts with the categorical answer provided by the other two participants, who think their knowledge about CLIL is ample. All in all, the results show that the general tendency is rather negative.

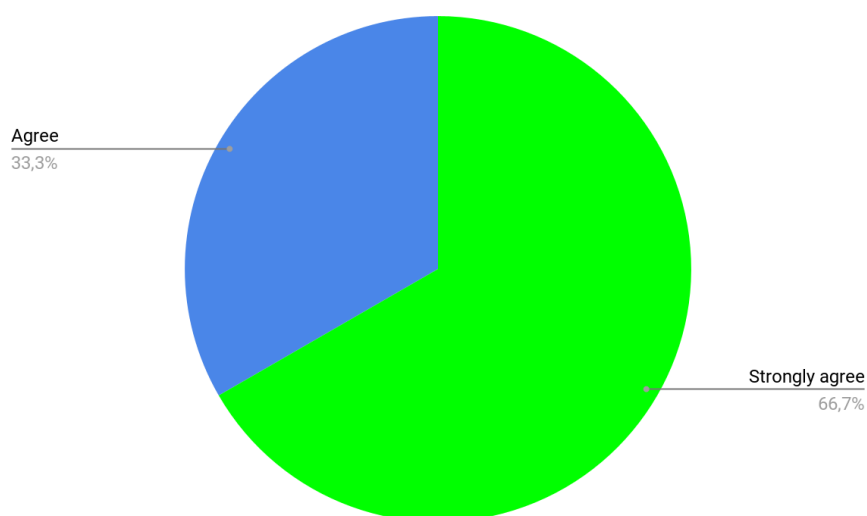
As already explained in the theoretical sections of this dissertation, much has been discussed about the effect of teaching through a foreign language on content and language integrated approaches. These practitioners were also asked about their opinion on this subject. They were asked to indicate to what extent they agree with the following statements “CLIL benefits content learning” and “CLIL benefits language learning”. Here are their answers:

Figure 28

Response to 'CLIL benefits content learning'

**Figure 29**

Response to 'CLIL benefits language learning'



As we can observe, these questions offer very similar results in both cases. More importantly, the fact that all teachers agree or strongly agree with the two statements largely shows that they share the main tenets of CLIL: this approach benefits both content and language acquisition. This assertion about the outcomes of CLIL is key, as it confirms these

practitioners also agree with the widely advocated effects on both content and language development present in the well-known definitions of CLIL (see Commission of the European Communities, 2007; Coyle et al. 2010; Marsh, 1994, 2002). Consequently, we can conclude that they all share a positive view of this approach.

A further question may follow about which participants marked the exact same results in both cases. The following table shows their responses:

Table 16

Beliefs about the benefits for content and language

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
CLIL benefits content learning- Strongly agree	x		x		x	
CLIL benefits language learning- Strongly agree	x		x	x	x	
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
CLIL benefits content learning- Agree		x		x		x
CLIL benefits language learning- Agree		x				x

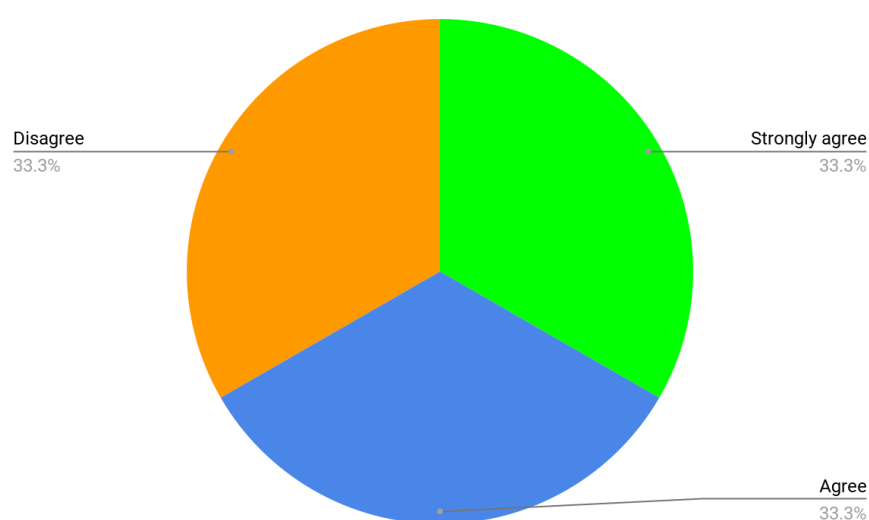
Teachers 1, 3 and 5 share the most positive view, as they totally agree with both statements. It must be pointed out that T1 and T5 also hold the position of head of the department and bilingual coordinator, which probably gives them a more knowledgeable perspective of CLIL implementation. Although the relation between this fact and their

answers cannot be proved, we can at least assume that their positive attitude towards CLIL benefits the whole programme in their respective settings. Teachers 2 and 6 agree that CLIL benefits both content and language acquisition, but not completely. The only teacher who does not agree completely with both statements is T4, since she sees more benefits for language than for content.

Finally, and regarding content teachers, they were also enquired about their degree of expertise in language teaching and whether they consider it sufficient:

Figure 30

Response to 'Content teachers need more knowledge of language pedagogy'



As we can observe, there is no full agreement in this regard, as two teachers strongly agree with the statement, two participants agree, and the other two disagree. However, when categorising the answers in the two axes agreement-disagreement, it can be concluded that the majority of them think that content teachers do actually need to be provided with more knowledge on the principles involved in language teaching and learning. As we know, this is a frequent critique of CLIL programmes, as some researchers have already concluded (Llinares & Whittaker, 2010), and seems to be a matter of concern for the participants in this study as well.

As for the differences among schools, the participants within each educational setting agree in their responses. The following table groups their answers:

Table 17

Response to “Content teachers need more knowledge of language pedagogy” distributed by schools

SCHOOL	RESULT
School A (T1&T2)	STRONGLY AGREE
School B (T3&4)	DISAGREE
School C (T5&6)	AGREE

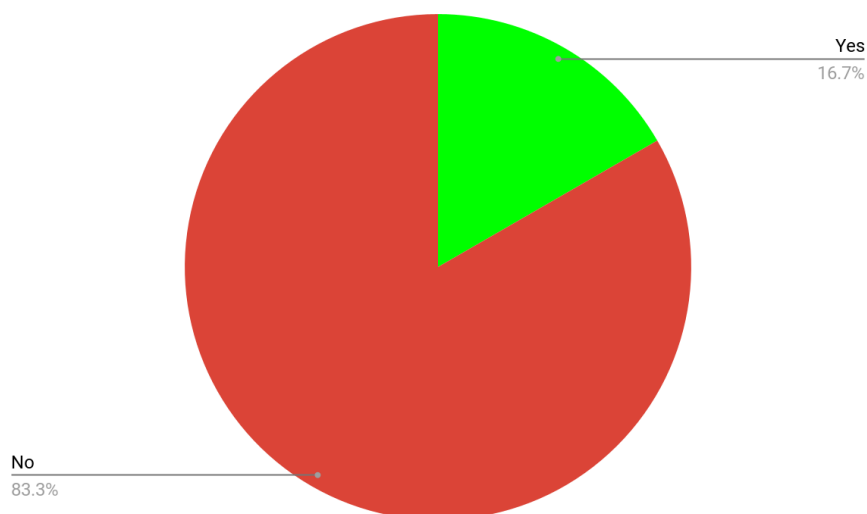
Such a clear division of results may be related with the daily life and experiences at each school and may be influenced by various factors such as content teachers’ command of English or organisational issues. However, the questionnaires themselves cannot throw further light on their own and need to be complemented with the interview results.

7.2.2. The impact of CLIL on EFL: the perspective of English teachers

The next group of questions concerned teacher beliefs about EFL but having the implementation of the CLIL approach as a conditioning factor. As discussed earlier, some EFL teachers have reported feeling relegated and displaced in their role as English teachers (Halbach, 2014; Pavón & Ellison, 2013). For that reason, participants here were asked about the boundaries of English teaching and how threatened they feel by the new scenario. The following graphs show the responses to the questions which addressed those issues.

Figure 31

Response to ‘Should English Language Teaching be restricted to the EFL classroom?’

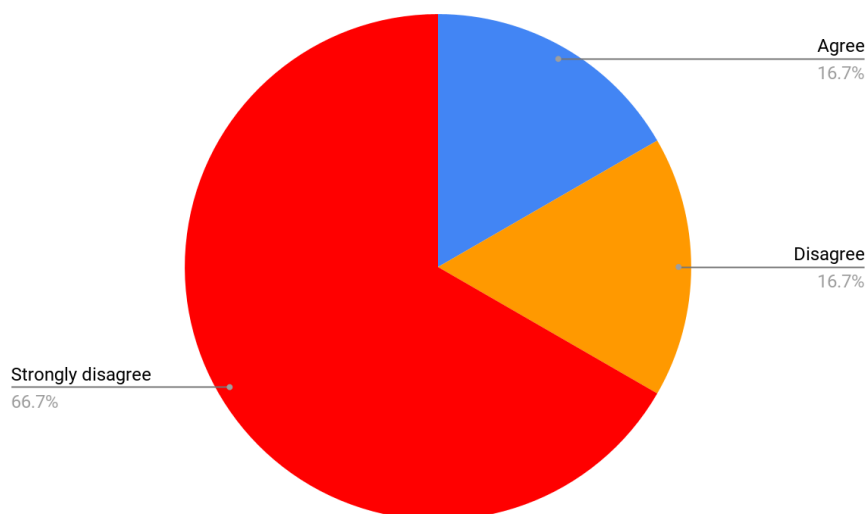


The majority of the respondents (5 out of 6) think that English teaching is to be carried out beyond the limits of the EFL subject. Only T3 disagrees with them. However, this must be considered as a “preliminary response”, since the variable implicit-explicit instruction has not been taken into account, which definitely shapes what each individual teacher views as language teaching. Once again, the conversations with these practitioners will be helpful to triangulate the results. In any case, the fact that most of them believe that English teaching must not be limited to its specific subject matter could be interpreted as evidence of their openness and acceptance of interdisciplinarity, in accordance with the results shown in the previous chapter.

Regarding the issue of feeling their job at risk because of CLIL implementation, we can observe that the answers aligned with the positive perception on bilingual education which has been detected so far:

Figure 32

Do the participants feel their role is threatened because of CLIL?

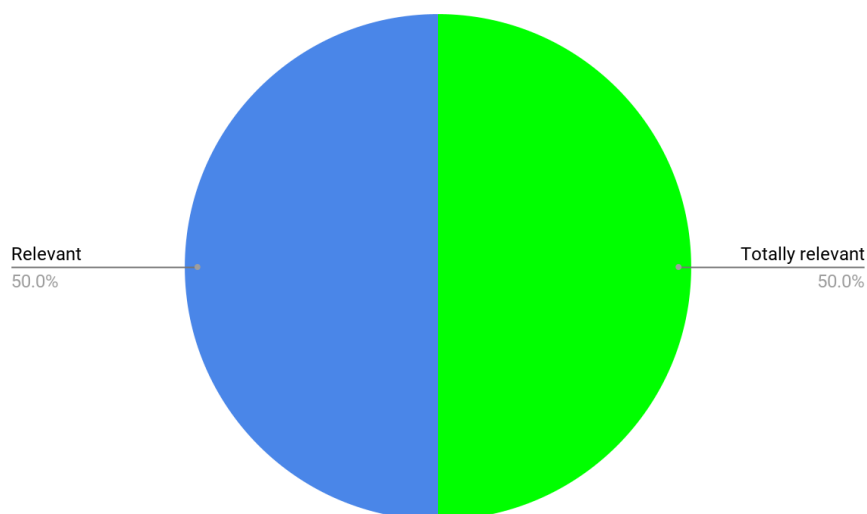


Most of the respondents, five of them, do not agree with the statement “I feel my role as an English teacher threatened because many subjects are taught through English now”. In fact, four of them hold a strong view, since they disagree completely with those voices who see this potential threat as a reality. Only T2 does not seem very confident in this regard, although his response may seem contradictory to his other generally positive views towards bilingual education.

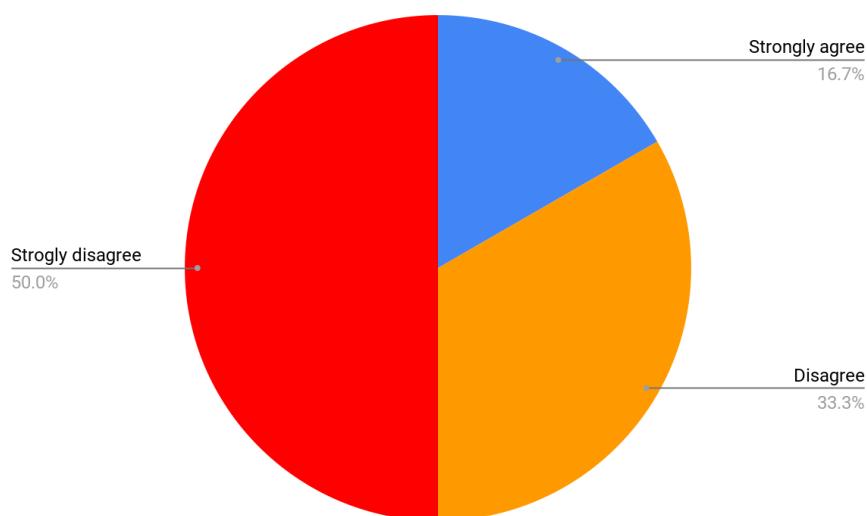
Within this set of questions, teachers were also enquired about the relevance of their subject, particularly in their specific CLIL context. On the one hand, they were asked about their own opinions and on the other, about their views of students’ perspectives. These are the results:

Figure 33

Teachers' assumption about the relevance of their subject for students

**Figure 34**

Agreement with 'Students find the EFL subject purposeless'



As we can observe, all the participants agree that the EFL subject, in its current curricular design, is relevant for students. Three of them even consider it completely relevant. However, as discussed in the previous chapter, certain complaints were reported (i.e. syllabus density or grammar prevalence), therefore the interviews will explore some possible alternatives and improvements influenced by teachers' own set of values.

It is equally important for teachers to take into consideration the learners' assessment of what and how they are taught, as it will also have some effect on teachers' decisions and practices. In this case, five of the participants disagree or strongly disagree with the statement that their learners find their subject purposeless. It is T2 who differed from his colleagues once again.

In light of the previous questions, the final statement with which they had to show agreement or disagreement was “EFL lessons need to be adapted to become more relevant and useful for the subjects taught through English”. In this case, the response is unanimous. They all think that the subject must be reshaped to make it more useful. It must be noted that the range of options available was a four-point Likert-type scale, including the option “totally agree”. Yet the answer chosen was “agree” in all cases. When confronting this result to the previous one, in which they affirmed their subject was purposeful, this finding may be found somewhat contradictory. This may indicate that the fact that they find the subject useful as it is currently designed does not exclude the possibility of an adaptation. In any case, the interview results will be necessary to revisit this finding.

7.3. EFL teachers' beliefs about CLIL programmes in relation to EFL: Interview results

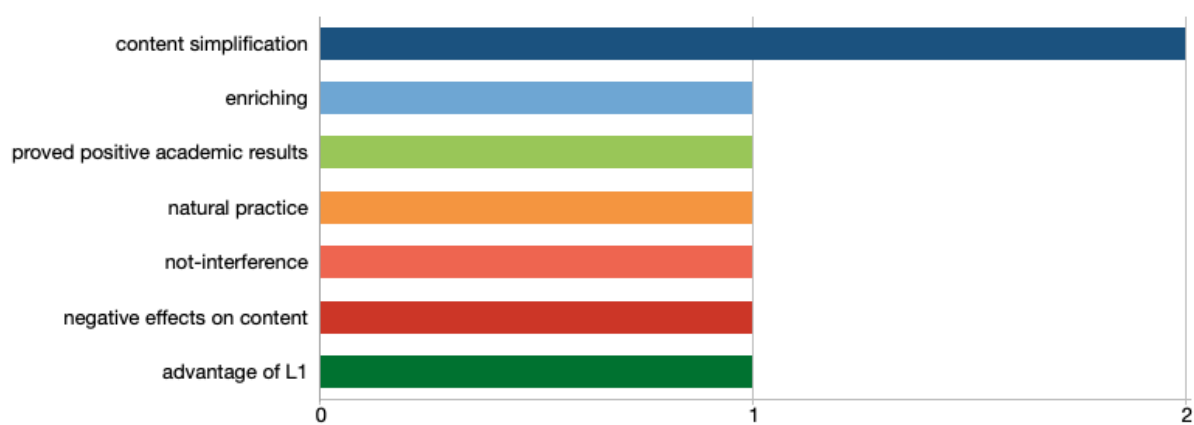
This section sets out to contrast, complement and gain a better understanding of the participants' mindset concerning CLIL, the EFL subject in this context and its adequacy. It must be noted that, thanks to the interviews, we can deepen into teachers' understanding of CLIL, allowing the emergence of new themes. The headings 7.3.1., 7.3.2., and the rest of sections at the same level represent the emerging themes, while the subthemes are shown in tables. The codes shaping the subthemes also appear in bold throughout the commentary.

7.3.1. Perceptions on CLIL: positive and negative effects

During these conversations, the EFL practitioners shared their views on CLIL programmes. While their account of the transformation of their school settings was provided in the previous chapter, we are dealing with their own beliefs about the benefits of this type of programme here. Figure 35 shows the codes which were used. Three of the participants explored this issue. Both positive and negative areas of impact of CLIL emerged, particularly referring to the relation content-language:

Figure 35

Distribution and frequency of codes within 'Positive and negative effects'



More specifically, two of the participants mentioned positive effects whereas the same number of participants pointed out negative consequences. On the one hand, it was T1 and T3 who listed the positive impact on the following areas:

Extract 7.1. - Teacher 1

No creo que menoscabe la a la hora de: de introducir eh ehh contenidos (.) a pesar de: a pesar de lo que se dice, porque los últimos estudios ahora mismo- ↑los últimos estudios que hay hechos de chavales que ya han terminado segundo de bachillerato, que estuve el otro día leyendo, (.) dicen que sa- salen ↑mejor preparados, con mayor conocimientos que los chavales que solamente: lo han hecho en un idioma. Con lo cual, esa: falsa teoría de que se van- de que se eliminan contenidos ↑no es cierta.

Extract 7.2. - Teacher 3

No es que lo obvien, no es malo, quiero decir que yo no, que no están pensando en si esto está en presente o en futuro o en pasado. Están pensando en que la:: Isabel la Católica no se qué no se cuántos. Entonces, están usando el lenguaje de una manera, sin pensar, para conseguir un objetivo y eso les hace: tener más interés en usarlo.

The knowledge of T1 about CLIL seems to be well founded on scientific research. According to her, CLIL does **not interfere** with content acquisition, it is an **enriching** approach and has **proved positive academic results**. Moreover, T3 thinks that CLIL allows students to use the language in a **natural context of practice**, which increases their interest.

On the other hand, T4 listed some negative effects; namely, on content acquisition and on the students' segregation:

Extract 7.3. - Teacher 4

↑Tú no puedes utilizar una lengua que estás en proceso de adquisición, utilizarla para adquirir contenidos que no tienen nada que ver con eso porque lo más probablemente es que o bien sea sesgado y los contenidos no se queden arraigados, asentados como deberían. Pero es una dificultad añadida para el aprendizaje. Y sobre todo porque no tienen las herramientas para poder expresarse. Si tú no tienes esa herramienta que es la lengua para expresar lo que estás pensando, ¿cómo lo vas a hacer bien? Desde mi punto de vista, perjudica [...] hay una cierta segregación.

As we can observe, she believes that a still deficient language proficiency influences **content acquisition negatively**. Furthermore, she argues that the main subject matters (e.g. History, Biology, etc.) should not be eligible as “CLIL subjects”:

Extract 7.4. - Teacher 4

Y la capacidad de entender, de comprensión lectora, de de espíritu crítico. Todas esas cosas necesitas poder expresarte bien, y tener las ideas claras. Y para eso necesitas tu lengua materna. Y es que realmente necesitas tener un dominio de la lengua para poder ehhh para poder relacionarte con esos contenidos y asumir esos contenidos - desde mi punto de vista, no se puede utilizar un contenido (.) A ver, cuando el objetivo es el aprendizaje de la lengua es diferente porque el contenido es un comodín, pero si lo haces al revés.

This teacher sees more **advantages in using the L1** instead of a foreign language when it comes to content processing and development of Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS). Therefore, she would prefer other Content-Based Instruction models or other **Soft-CLIL** approaches in which content is just accessory. Teacher 3 believes that CLIL subjects reduce the curricular content, which is oversimplified. These apparent pessimistic opinions are coherent with the views expressed throughout the interviews: content-based approaches should not be implemented in the main obligatory subjects.

Going back to the effect on content, the second participant who perceives some negative effect is precisely T3, who had listed positive effects as well. In her opinion, we risk **oversimplifying the content**:

Extract 7.5. - Teacher 3

Creo que simplificar un poco el contenido, quitarle un poco de densidad al contenido (...) Por lo que he visto, adelgazan un poquito el contenido.

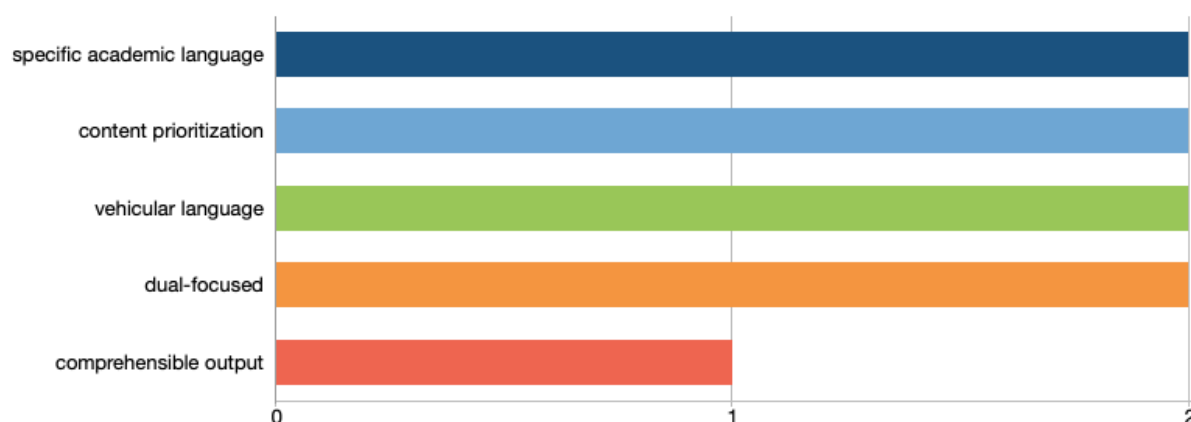
This may provide an explanation why T3 saw more benefits on language acquisition than on content learning in the questionnaires (see above). Interestingly, the stance of these two practitioners is rather different. The first case represents a belief in the BAK spectrum, since T4 has accepted this negative effect on content as true. However, the way T3 expressed her perspective reveals that this content simplification is just an assumption, something that she has heard but not experienced.

7.3.2. The ambiguous role of language

One of the areas covered in the interviews was the role of language in CLIL classrooms, aiming at gaining more insights into how well informed the EFL teachers under scrutiny are in this regard and their own vision of what “language” means in CLIL. Except for T4, who insisted on the idea that using English to teach major content subjects is a mistake, the rest of the participants shared their views:

Figure 36

Frequency and distribution of ‘the role of language’



In this case, two major views were present. On the one hand, for Teachers 3 and 5, English is the **vehicular language** used to acquire content. Teachers 3 and 5 explicitly stated that because of this, **content is prioritised** in CLIL, which means that language is secondary in content classrooms. The following extracts illustrate this point:

Extract 7.6. - Teacher 5

(English) simplemente el método de comunicación, no debería ser más

Extract 7.7. - Teacher 3

¿Les hacen hacer reflexiones sobre la lengua? Yo creo que no. Así por lo poco - esto es vox populi, ¿eh? No tengo ni idea. Es como: van al contenido, porque supongo que si fueran a la gramática, pues eso: podría ser un poco catástrofe, ¿no?

If both opinions are contrasted, it can be concluded that they differ in terms of the BAK spectrum. Once again, T3 is less categorical and simply assumes that content is prioritised, while T5 firmly believes that the role of language should be restricted to simply a vehicular language. Moreover, T3 stated that the linguistic interest of CLIL teachers lies in the pupils' **comprehensible output**. In these teachers' view, there is no focus on form but on meaning, explicitly mentioning that attention to form is not the role of CLIL teachers, so the primary goal is to produce messages which can be understood.

On the other hand, Teachers 2 and 6 describe language in CLIL in terms of **specific academic language**. In this case, these two teachers suggested that the language used in CLIL classrooms is more specific and intertwined with the different disciplines. In T2's words:

Extract 7.8. - Teacher 2

(...) van ampliando un vocabulario y una gramática que no tiene que ver específicamente con el inglés sino con otras materias (...) el lenguaje académico. Un lenguaje específico, dependiendo del campo de estudio de cada asignatura.

This suggests a more visible role of language, also determined by the specific content matter, its prototypical disciplinary language or genres. Thus, for these teachers, language represents much more than simply the tool for communication. Closer to this stance is Teacher 1, for whom CLIL should be **dual-focused**.

These responses offer a view of language in CLIL which corresponds to the classic language levels found in CLIL discussion. On the one hand, as CLIL is largely message-driven, English acts as the vehicular language and what really matters is that the message can be understood. Half the participants (T1,T3,T5) seem to support this view. On the other hand, the main presence of language in CLIL classrooms is related to CALP, and is in turn mostly academic. The answers of T2 and T6 align with this view. The vision of T6,

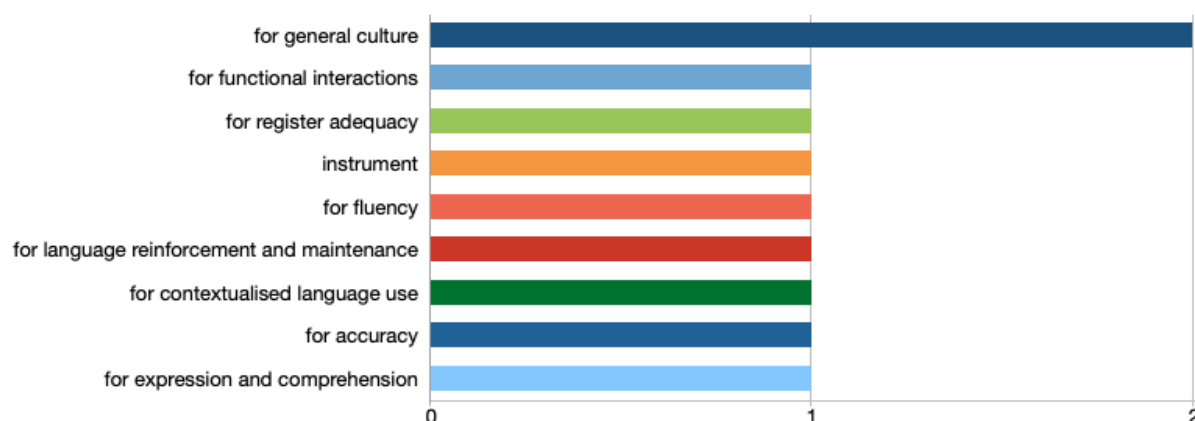
which could seem contradictory, appears to be the most complete and closest to the presupposed role of language: both as a vehicular language and as an academic language.

7.3.3. Current purpose, challenges and factors influencing the students' attitude towards the EFL subject

The questionnaires threw some light on how relevant the English subject is nowadays, particularly in CLIL settings, in our practitioners' opinion. During the course of the interviews, these teachers explored in more depth which space their subject occupies nowadays, and particularly, since the rapid onset of CLIL in Spain. Their beliefs concerning the purpose of EFL today are diverse but not incompatible.

Figure 37

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'purpose of EFL'



The most recurrent idea is that the nature of English teaching must be primarily **functional**. T2 and T4 insisted that it is their job to teach students how to **use language in a contextualised way**. Teacher 5 also thinks that students must be able to have **functional interactions** in different contexts. Teacher 4 is even more specific and stated that they need to teach them to **adjust to different registers**.

In terms of another recurrent debate among linguists and teachers, the issue of fluency vs accuracy, it was precisely T2 and T4 who addressed both dimensions explicitly. Aligning with communicative approaches to language education, T2 believes that the purpose of EFL today must be teaching for **fluency**. On the contrary, T4 insisted that it should be **accuracy**.

Other perspectives were not so immersed in this debate, but are equally interesting. Teachers 3 and 4 went beyond the purely linguistic element and commented that EFL is also

a space for **knowledge on general culture**. Teacher 1 gave a rather broad response, saying that they should help students have a good level by providing the **instrument** (language) which will help them with content lessons and in preparation for future demands, explicitly for higher education, as B2 level is required to graduate from university. Similarly, T6's response was similar to T1's inasmuch it is rather broad: EFL should qualify learners in an **adequate comprehension and production in English**. Let us have a closer look at T3's words:

Extract 7.9. - Teacher 3

Como un refuerzo de inglés y cultura general [...] mantenimiento más riguroso [...] Y: también otra función nuestra es pulir malos hábitos que están cogiendo aquí y allá. Por ejemplo, la lucha anti 'that' al principio de la frase.

Teacher 3 believes that, due to the good command of English which her students have nowadays, what teachers should offer is a **linguistic reinforcement and maintenance** to ensure learners make a rigorous use of the target language. In this sense, even if she did not mention it explicitly, it could be deduced that her goal is also accuracy.

If we compare whether their responses are shaped by the CLIL influence and the EFL challenges, we can observe that those beliefs based exclusively on purely communicative views do not seem to acknowledge the force of other contextual factors as much as other teachers do, as is the case of T3.

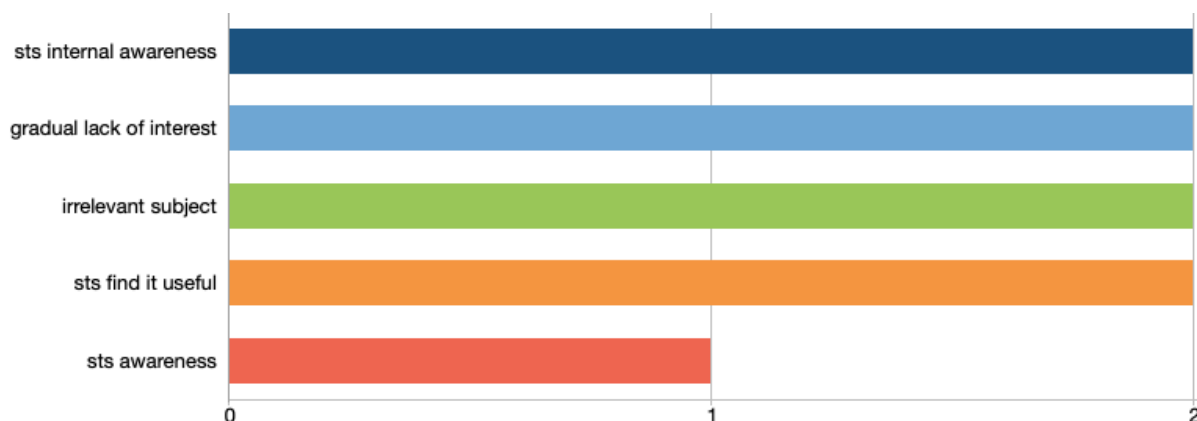
The interviews also covered teachers' beliefs and assumptions on students' perception, as the questionnaires did. Three major themes emerged:

- the learners' interest and attitude,
- the factors influencing their attitude and
- the challenges regarding the students.

Figure 38 comprises the codes belonging to the first theme:

Figure 38

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'the learners' interest and attitude'



As seen above, it was the majority opinion that learners find the EFL subject relevant. However, the interview reflections' revealed rather complex perspectives. Teacher 1 acknowledged the **students' awareness** of the value of the EFL subject and, together with Teacher 6, maintained that their pupils find the **English subject useful** to help them bridge their language gaps which they still have. On the contrary, T2, Teachers 4 and 5 stated that their students find the EFL subject irrelevant. Interestingly, T2, who was the only participant who had stated this view in the questionnaire, claimed that students **internally** acknowledge the relevance of the EFL subject. That is, despite their apparent indifference towards the school subject, deep inside they are well aware of the value of English as a tool in today's society. In fact, both T2 and T4 made a remarkable point which may provide an explanation for the apparent contradictions in the teachers' responses concerning students' perspectives.

Extract 7.10. - Teacher 2

Creo que en su fuero interno ellos saben que sí es importante para su vida. Yo creo que sí saben que el inglés es importante, y no sólo el inglés, el estudio, el saber idiomas creo que ellos sí lo saben.

Extract 7.11. - Teacher 4

Lo tienen ya super integrado en su en su en su ↑existencia en general. A ellos no les supone un esfuerzo especial aprobar esta asignatura. (...) Es muy difícil motivar. Y nada les sorprende especialmente, porque todos aquellos recursos que antes se utilizaban en la asignatura de inglés y que a todo el mundo le encantaban, pues 'hoy hacemos una canción en clase, qué guay', pues eso hoy ya no es nada guay.(...) Yo creo que no (they do not value the subject) .

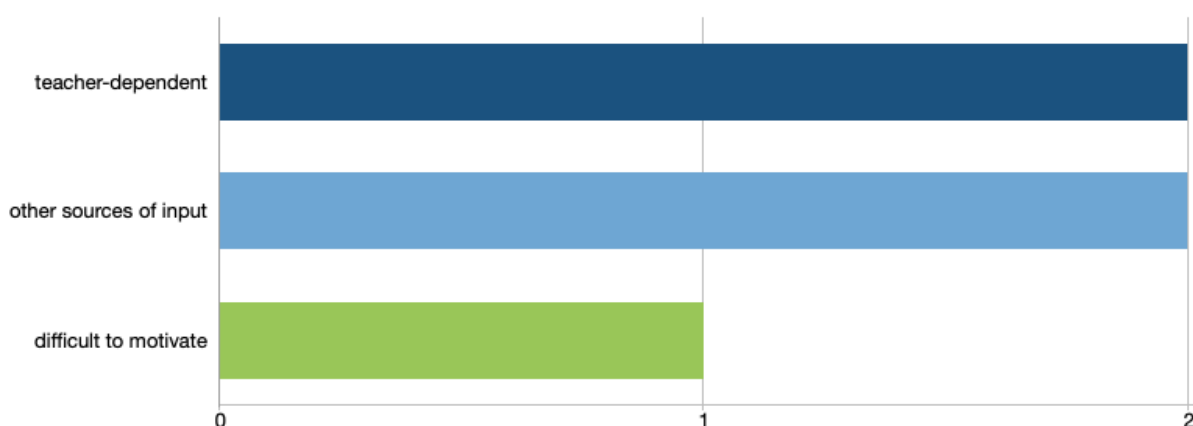
Yo particularmente creo que no. Para ellos es importante saber inglés. Y yo sí he visto ese cambio muy muy claramente.

They make a distinction between what the learners think of the subject and how they value the English language itself. They perceive the students' gradual loss of interest towards the subject itself. In short, they think that students feel it is important to learn English and other foreign languages but the English classroom is not the most motivating space to do so.

As a result, the second major theme which emerged is concerned with the factors triggering this lack of interest, which was explored by three of the participants:

Figure 39

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'factors influencing students' attitude'



For T2 and T4 the main factor affecting this scenario has to do with the fact that EFL teachers are no longer the only **source of input** at the learners' disposal:

Extract 7.12. - Teacher 2

No somos su única forma de input porque tienen herramientas a patadas y aparte facilidades también. Es decir, siempre tienen la opción de ver esa película, esa serie o ese vídeo en inglés. Esa misma información que ellos buscan en youtube la pueden buscar en inglés.

Extract 7.13. - Teacher 4

Porque que si juegan online, que si las películas, que si toda la terminología que hay, ehhe las redes sociales. Quiero decir, ehhe las películas, la cantidad de cosas que se ven que ya no se doblan o que ellos directamente las ven desde pues desde plataformas directamente en versión original. O sea que -a ellos no les supone un esfuerzo especial aprobar esta asignatura.

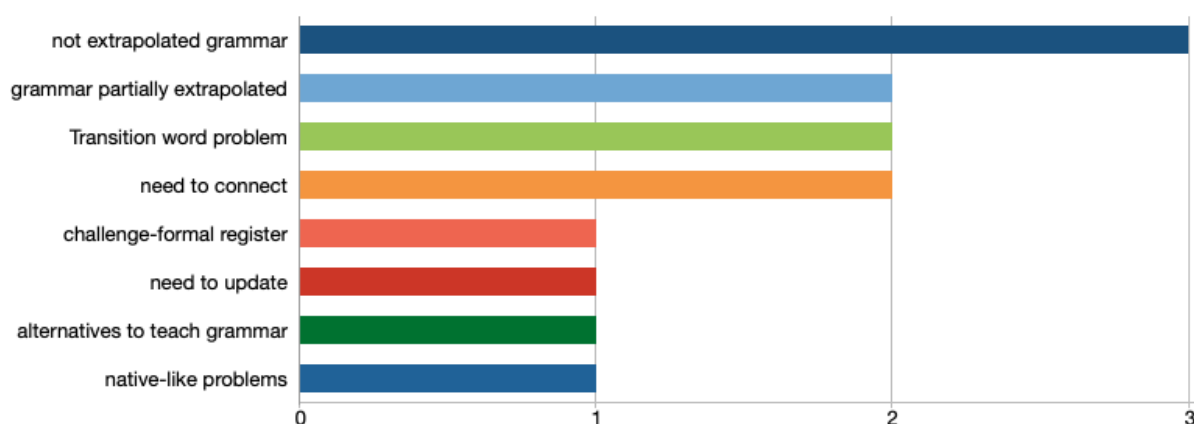
These teachers acknowledged the key role of ICT and media in language learning today and the easy access to them. This may provide an explanation for the gradual loss of enthusiasm towards some activities and materials reported above by T4. In the past, it was only possible to access the lyrics of a song in English through the EFL activities, when the teacher used it in the classroom. As all the lyrics can be now found at the click of a button, these classroom activities are no longer interesting.

While T4 acknowledged the **difficulty to motivate**, T1 and T2 suggested another factor affecting the learners' motivation. They see it as **teacher-dependent**. These two teachers believe that students' interest varies according to the way teachers teach. If a teacher manages to make their subject interesting, students will find it interesting as well.

The last recurrent theme appearing in these conversations is concerned with the **challenges and needs** which the EFL subject faces with regard to learners.

Figure 40

Frequency and distribution of 'challenges and needs regarding students'



The list of codes indicate that grammar is one of the major concerns. This is not surprising, as when giving an account of the current curriculum, observations regarding daily practices in terms of grammar were recurrent (see 6.4.5.) As far as the learners are concerned, the codes **not extrapolated** (applied) **grammar** (T2, T5, T6), **need to connect** (T3,T6), **grammar partially extrapolated** (T1,T4) and **alternatives to teach grammar** (T5) reveal that these practitioners believe that their students have difficulties when using grammar in context, beyond the traditional structuralist fill-in-the-gaps activities, so there is a need to find alternative ways to teach students how to use grammar in such a way that enables them to contextualise it effectively:

Extract 7.14. - Teacher 3

Yo busco algo que me ayude a unir, a que hagan conexiones, que no las hacen (...=) pero realmente falta el salto de la gramática a cuando hablan o cuando escriben (...) no tenemos un método que los esté vinculando ahora mismo.

Extract 7.15. - Teacher 6

Ése es uno de los mayores problemas que siempre tengo en la cabeza y que he hablado con todo el departamento y con toda la gente que conozco. Cómo hacer que la teoría que les enseñamos se pueda poner en práctica. Cómo ser capaces de que todo el conocimiento que tienen, que lo tienen ahí, ¿no? Los modales, como dices tú, las pasivas, el estilo indirecto. Fueran capaces de hablar y escribir usando esas estructuras. Eso es lo complicado. Lo que intento es introducir todas esas estructuras a partir de textos, o de readings o de listenings, en las que vengan incorporadas.

As we can see, these teachers urge for ways to make the teaching of grammar more contextualised and integrated with speaking and writing. Teacher 1 partially disagrees, as she thinks that students are able to extrapolate grammar to different contexts but they are not used to doing it as a matter of “laziness”. For her, the real challenge is the use of **transition words**, which also represents a problem for T3. The rest of the challenges resonate with the consequences of teachers not being the only source of input. Because of the Internet, T2 believes that EFL teachers **need to update** to compete with it for the students’ motivation. For T3, the main challenge for her is **adequacy to formal registers**. In her opinion, because of all the exposure in general, and the exposure to informal language in the media in particular, learners are able to communicate and make themselves understood but they lack other skills. She paralleled this situation with a problem that native speakers of the language could have. In her words:

Extract 7.16. - Teacher 3

Entonces un reto para mí es el lenguaje más formal, el registro formal porque, todo es informal como en las teleseries, ellos piensan, y esto está estudiado porque lo he leído en adquisición del lenguaje ↑‘si yo me comunico, para qué porras me enchufas la gramática (...) Yo ya me comunico, tú me entiendes. (...) Me cuesta convencerles de que es importante el rigor o hablar correctamente. El registro formal les descoloca.

She also added that, thanks to all this exposure, including CLIL lessons, students have developed great listening skills, self-confidence and fluency. For that reason, they are not so enthusiastic about explicit instruction.

7.4. Teacher beliefs about ideal practices and roles: Interview results

The previous chapter analysed the transformations which had already taken place in the role of EFL teachers. As depicted by the participants, the new CLIL scenario has pushed them towards the reshaping of their work. But during the interviews, the participants also discussed some other transformations which, according to their perspectives on their ideal CLIL settings, are still needed. This section will look at those suggestions.

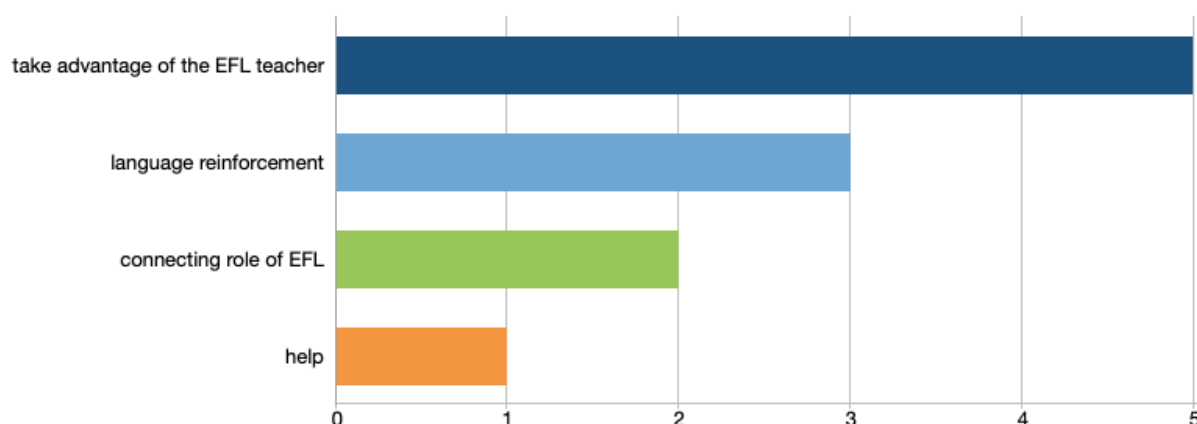
Although not always possible because of the nature of the emergent themes, the results will be organised according to the broader categories already used to structure the analysis in 6.4., but looking to the future: the language gap, supporting role of the EFL teacher, teacher collaboration and proposals for curriculum modifications. This parallel structure enables an easier and more visual understanding of the actions already taken (previous chapter) and what is still to be done according to teachers' perceptions. Sections 7.4.1., 7.4.2., and the rest of the headings at the same level. represent the emerging themes and the subthemes and their associated codes are shown in tables. The codes shaping the subthemes also appear in bold throughout the commentary.

7.4.1. How to address the language gap: the supporting role of the EFL teacher

The previous chapter confirmed the existence of the *language gap* and some of the participants even indicated the factors triggering it. Assuming that the linguistic support offered by EFL teachers can have an impact on the degree of language awareness in the entire programme, it was concluded that not much has been done in this direction. However, the key question here could be whether EFL teachers believe this linguistic support to be their responsibility or not.

Figure 41

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'supporting role'



The findings reveal a rather unanimous stance: five of the participants (T1,T2,T4,T5,T6) explicitly stated they have a supportive role in CLIL settings but CLIL programmes have not exploited their expertise, so they should **take more advantage of the EFL teacher**. The five of them advocate for a model which makes more effective use of their language expertise in order to achieve better results in CLIL programmes. They believe that they have a **connecting role** with the content subjects (T2, T6) and should offer **language reinforcement** (T1, T2, T4) and **help** (T5) to content teachers in pursuit of a higher language awareness. The words of T2 illustrate this point:

Extract 7.17. - Teacher 2

El profesor de inglés podría ayudar al resto de los alumnos a entender mejor ese vocabulario o esa gramática en inglés pero que se está aplicando en otras asignaturas. Es decir, ayudarles a entender mejor un texto de biología, de historia o de lo que sea. Creo que sí, que el profesor de inglés podría hacer más, podría implicarse más, ya no sólo en sus asignaturas, sino ayudar también a los estudiantes a entender mejor las otras, que también se dan en inglés.

In fact, he also agrees that rethinking of teaching methodologies is necessary so as to accommodate the EFL subject to the new situation:

Extract 7.18 - Teacher 2

Se solucionarían también un poco mmm quizá mejorando el método, quizá en las clases de inglés, inglés como lengua extranjera para que luego ese inglés aplicado a las diferentes

disciplinas sea, si se ha aprendido bien, se ha utilizado bien, sea más fácil. Entonces claro, hay que utilizar una buena base o aplicarlo bien desde un principio para que luego eso les ayude a entender mejor el texto de Historia, Biología.

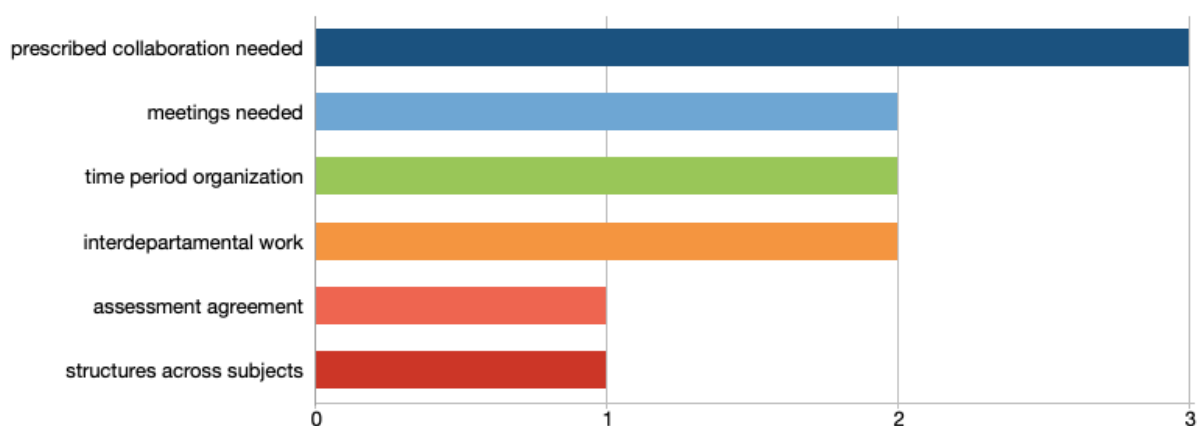
As for T3, she had highlighted that it is not her responsibility officially (6.4.3.), but her beliefs reported throughout this chapter reveal that she also claims for classroom practices going in the same direction. In other words, this teacher distinguishes between what is officially her assigned role and the autonomy she has to make other choices for her EFL subject. In this regard, all her opinions on how to reshape her subject are not far from their colleagues' proposals.

7.4.2. Teacher collaboration: the need for top-down initiatives

Teacher collaboration in CLIL settings is also closely connected to the supportive role of EFL teachers, and the encouragement of language awareness to solve the language gap problem is also mediated by the degree of coordination between content and language teachers. The results described in the previous chapter revealed that teacher collaboration is not prescribed and depends mostly on bottom-up initiatives. Nevertheless, do EFL teachers actually see this collaboration as necessary and as something which they are ready to take up? The interviews also show they are and that they conceptualise this collaboration in a positive way. Indeed, the emerging theme encompasses their views on the needs for more formal collaboration, which clearly indicates that the participants ask for top-down regulations in this regard.

Figure 42

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'needs/suggestions for formal collaboration'



Indeed, four of the teachers made suggestions for ways in which collaboration could be enhanced. Three of them (T2, T4, T6) insisted on the **need for the prescription for collaboration** to improve the efficiency of bilingual programmes:

Extract 7.19. - Teacher 2

Si hubiera una directriz, o una norma, o una propuesta del centro para que los departamentos trabajaran conjuntamente, probablemente lo harían. Nosotros claro que podemos trabajar conjuntamente de forma puntual si nos necesitamos mutuamente. Pero si la empresa o el colegio tuviera una norma (.) yo creo que la aplicaríamos de forma más rápida y antes. Y todo. Y yo creo que incluso lo veo necesario. Sería una muy buena idea.

Extract 7.20. - Teacher 4

Sí que se puede y yo creo que se debería hacer de hecho. Hasta se podría evaluar y todo. Pero no lo registra la ley de ninguna forma y como en muchos aspectos de nuestra profesión, lo que se hace es por la pura y exclusiva voluntad, ganas y motivación y compromiso de los profesores (...) yo creo que deberíamos trabajar muchísimo más en cooperación los profesores.

Extract 7.21. - Teacher 6

Veríamos que es bueno dedicar ese tiempo en conjunto, veríamos al año siguiente que hemos fallado, podemos dedicar más tiempo, una segunda hora, a lo mejor en el tercer año crear

grupos de coordinación entre las distintas asignaturas y que nos diera una hora para eso también.

As we can see, T2 and T4 advocated for more **interdepartmental work**. For T2, isolated informal collaboration is positive, but to obtain more effective results, it is indispensable to count with some regulations coming from the school or even above. This way, these extracts even contain some specific suggestions such as the possibility to evaluate students' performance together and to create specific longitudinal collaborative groups to reflect on how to keep improving. Concerning teacher gatherings, the insufficient current scheduled time is a recurrent issue again. That is why T1 and T6 argued that more **meetings are needed** to work and coordinate with content teachers. It was precisely the teachers at School A that made additional proposals by which teacher collaboration could be promoted:

Extract 7.22. - Teacher 1

Y de esos periodos históricos vamos a sacar, a ver, qué tipo de vocabulario también es el que me hace falta?. Dependiendo de las asignaturas. Tendremos vocabulario y:: estructuras gramaticales que nos sirven para-. Seguramente que podemos utilizar, tanto en gram- bah, lo diré, tanto en Biología, como en TPR, como en Ciencias Sociales, ¿vale? Y partiendo de esa base, teniendo un esquema todos común.

Extract 7.23. - Teacher 2

Si trabajáramos conjuntamente y dijéramos 'este mes el Renacimiento' y trabajásemos conjuntamente, probablemente saldríamos beneficiados los dos.

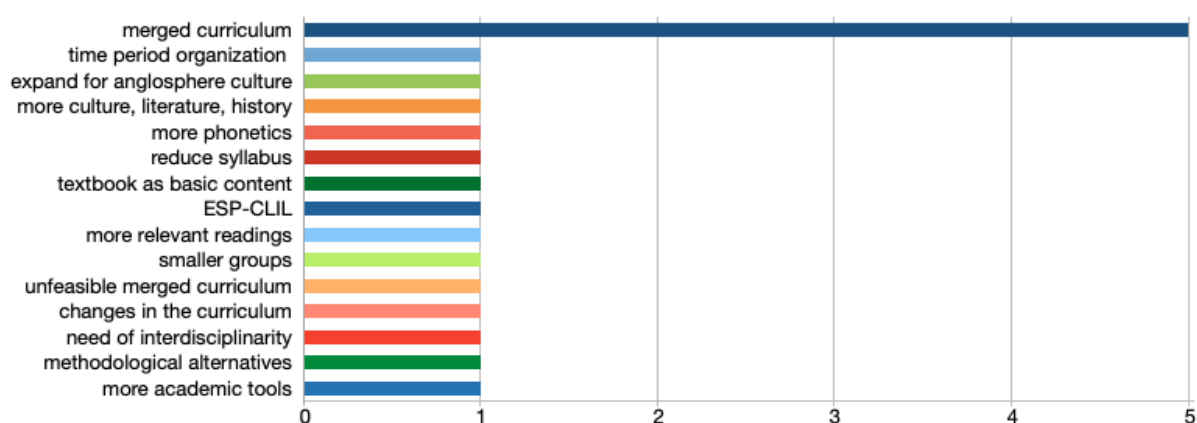
Both of them agree that organising the school year in the entire school according to different **time periods** would facilitate that teachers work together. Teacher 1 also pointed at the need to coordinate to establish common assessment criteria. Interestingly, another of her proposals concerns the “**linguistic structures**” to be used **across the CLIL subjects**. She believes it should be the work of the EFL teacher to collaborate and determine the language that content teachers should expect their students to know and use in their tasks and tests. However, when she referred to “linguistic structures”, she could be referring to the EFL curriculum requirements, and not so much on the linguistic demands of content subjects.

7.4.3. Teachers' proposals for curricular modifications: the feasibility of an integrated curriculum

The findings presented in the previous chapter concerning the current curriculum have revealed that the curriculum for “Advanced English” is indeed designed to serve the needs of bilingual education. Yet teachers still find some problematic issues in its application, such as the lack of common linguistic objectives across subjects. In this case, the participants expressed their views on the possible curricular adaptations of EFL, also to make it more relevant to CLIL. All of the participants suggest that amendments should be introduced, although T5 is not able to provide specific ideas.

Figure 43

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘views on needed curricular modifications’



As discussed in chapter 2.7.4., one of the suggestions made by scholars is the design of a **merged curriculum** for the linguistic and non-linguistic subjects. Five of the participants (T1,T2,T3,T4,T6) agree that it would be beneficial and feasible. In the case of T6, he shows his willingness to even share the physical classroom with the content teacher. Some of them expressed it as follows:

Extract 7.24. - Teacher 2

Lo veo factible, creo que sería útil. Sería algo bastante útil porque al final estarían relacionadas las diferentes asignaturas. El nexo de unión sería el inglés. Un proyecto al principio tendrá sus dificultades pero a la larga yo creo que sería algo beneficioso para todos. Porque al final cooperaríamos los profesores entre nosotros. El alumno vería que la asignatura de inglés le ayuda a entender otro contenido como es el de historia y viceversa. Yo creo que

¿factible? Yo creo que sí, yo creo que sí que se podría implementar. Me parecería una buena idea.

Extract 7.25. - Teacher 6

Que no sean asignaturas separadas porque muchas veces están interrelacionadas y hay cosas que tenemos que ver conjuntamente. Quizá no todos los días, pero sí que es cierto que podríamos hacer cosas en común muchas veces.

Teacher 2 sees this cross-curricular design as something doable and beneficial at various levels: as a way to connect all the subjects, having the EFL subject as the nexus; as a means to make teachers cooperate, and to engage students. Extract 25 shows that the potential for T6 also lies in the interdisciplinary character which such an approach would entail.

The **unfeasibility** of implementing a **merged curriculum** was only defended by T5, who establishes clear boundaries between the roles of content and language teachers:

Extract 7.26. - Teacher 5

No. Lo veo bastante complicado. (...) No veo la situación en la que un profe de historia tenga que explicar algo de gramática, o de Lingüística, o del lenguaje en general. A mi se me, al principio sobre todo se me quejaban mucho los profes de Historia porque los alumnos no sabían usar el pasado, por ejemplo. Y que ellos se lo tenían que corregir. Y les decía 'No, no es vuestra función. Eso me lo tenéis que decir a mi que soy el profe de Leng- de inglés. Y entonces ↑yo soy el que lo tiene que hacer. Que para eso estoy. (...) Como a mi tampoco me dejan dar Historia, que me encantaría. ¿Sabes? Yo me encontraría ahí genial. Pero no puedo. Porque no me dejan.

As can be observed, T5 believes in the supportive role of the EFL teacher and collaboration with the content teacher in order to detect potential linguistic problems. However, he does not think that explicit correction falls within the responsibilities of the content teacher, as seen above.

Irrespective of the merged curriculum, all the participants would be willing to modify the curriculum to adapt it to the new realities and needs, not being all of them directly motivated by the CLIL scenario, but also grounded on the challenges discussed above and complement the possible actions in favour of a higher content and language integration. All of them explored some suggestions, except for T5, who said that he would enact these modifications but could not think of any specific proposal at the time of the interview.

Related to the idea of an integrated curriculum, T3 also added a further suggestion. This new merged curriculum should make the EFL **ESP-oriented**, understanding the CLIL subjects as the “specific purpose”. For this new approach, she would replace all the current reading and writing activities with more technical texts directly related to the content subjects:

Extract 7.27. - Teacher 3

Entonces a mi lo que me viene si es sustituir la: las lecturas y hacer que los ensayos que escriban sean en relación a las lecturas más técnicas. Yo haría un híbrido de libro normal al uso, con lecturas técnicas. (...) Pero con un libro, o sea, sí, un ESP. Ése sería el modelo que se me ocurre más más viable, así.

Consistent with her previous statements, T4 thinks this merged curriculum is doable, but should particularly affect the EFL subject. She stands for an EFL curriculum which integrates contents from the non-linguistic subjects:

Extract 7.28. - Teacher 4

A ver, yo lo veo factible, y tal y como está diseñado el sistema bilingüe, sería bueno (...) La asignatura de inglés y la lengua inglesa tiene contenido ya de por sí, porque realmente abarca todo, que no hace falta que lo hagan en otra asignatura. Intenta que la lengua tenga sus propios contenidos que puedan estar relacionados con las otras asignaturas, que de hecho ya lo están.

Once again, she defended the idea of an approach closer to the language-driven end of the continuum for content and language integration (Met, 1998), in which CBI is materialised in theme-based language lessons, the theme being the non-linguistic subjects content. For her, this content could be related to **Literature, culture or even History**. The idea of expanding the curriculum for more culture, in particular **cultural aspects related to the Anglosphere**, was also expressed by T2, who sees it as a means to strengthen motivation among students whereas T4 complains that culture, among other aspects, is supposed to be present in the current “advanced English curriculum” but in a rather ambiguous way:

Extract 7.29. - Teacher 4

Los temas que se tratan en los libros de textos son los que tienen que ver con el currículo de la lengua inglesa y normalmente no van mucho más allá de los temas del día a día, de contenidos generales de medio ambiente, cuestiones de sociedad. Y luego en bilingüe, no

porque también hay parte histórica y cultural en la asignatura. Pero como es mucho más ambiguo, depende ya de lo que quieras hacer. Haría un poco más de hincapié en la parte de fonética ... pronunciación. Yyy luego sí que haría mucho hincapié en el aspecto de la cultura, la literatura, historia.

In her view, it all depends on the teachers' decisions once again. In any case, she is willing to move from the traditional daily-life topics towards a curriculum with more presence of culture, History, Literature and **Phonetics** as well. This seems to indicate that, despite the curricular prescriptions, EFL teachers have some degree of independence to make their own pedagogical decisions about classroom practices. She was insistent in that the main need is to move towards a model which provides students with more **academic tools**. In her opinion, the main focus of the last years of Compulsory Education in bilingual programmes should be primarily academic:

Extract 7.30. - Teacher 4

Podemos continuar con cosas gramaticales, vocabulario, gramática, pero es que es mucho más, hay que ir muchísimo más allá. Y estamos aquí en un contexto académico. Yo creo que las herramientas que les tenemos que dar son esas. Ya te digo que desde el segundo ciclo de la ESO para mí en educación bilingüe la asignatura de inglés se tiene que centrar sobre todo en eso.

In order to attain this goal, T4 also believes that another transformation is necessary: more **interdisciplinarity** and cross-curricular approaches so that teachers can incorporate content to connect all the subjects. For her, this transformation necessarily entails more involved and updated EFL teachers in terms of methodological alternatives and linguistic skills.

The same teacher also shared the opinion of T3 concerning the outdated and traditional textbooks. In this regard, T3 reckons that **textbooks** should only be resources containing the “**basic contents**”, being part of a **curriculum** that she would personally **reduce**, aiming at having more room for some more relevant contents:

Extract 7.31 - Teacher 3

La crisis que me da como profesor de inglés es que estos libros [takes a textbook] me parecen soporíferos porque son los mismos libros que estudié cuando yo era: No te digo cuando yo era pequeña, pero bueno, sí, porque, o sea la la: pedagogía comunicativa ésta existe desde los 70,

entonces, es el mismo tipo de libro. Entonces no son nada temáticos para que profundices y te metas en algo (...) el libro a mi me proporciona una estructura. Entonces me me estructura y me ordena los contenidos, me los dosifica según una gra-da-ción que ha realizado un investigador, ↑no yo; cómo hay que graduar los contenidos, cómo hay que dosificarlos. Pero yo lo tendría sólo así para ir a contenidos mínimos y luego rellenaría con con contenidos más relevantes. Entonces me gustaría sustituir el contenido sobre todo de las lecturas por ejemplo, por otras cosas más relevantes.

Finally, other proposals concerned dimensions other than the curricular contents. For instance, the proposals made by T6 involve classroom organisation. In his opinion, the **groups** of students should be **smaller** for the EFL subject, attending to the level of students or simply to reduced groups to favour more interaction and participation. He also urged top-down decisions which can favour methodological **alternatives** towards a more active model.

7.5. EFL and the teaching of CALP: interview results

Chapter 6 has revealed that the “advanced English curriculum” regards the development of students’ proficiency as users of “academic” (school) language. This proficiency, normally associated with the term CALP would then be one of the responsibilities of EFL teachers, and not only BICS. But what is our participants’ stance?

As reported above, T3 and T4 described academic registers both as a need and a challenge. This issue is of utmost importance in CLIL, for both content and language teachers, as learners should be able to distinguish between BICS and CALP. This is evidenced by Cummins’ findings in Canadian immersion: the learners who were able to communicate fluently had more problems to tailor their discourse to formal academic tasks (Cummins, 1984).

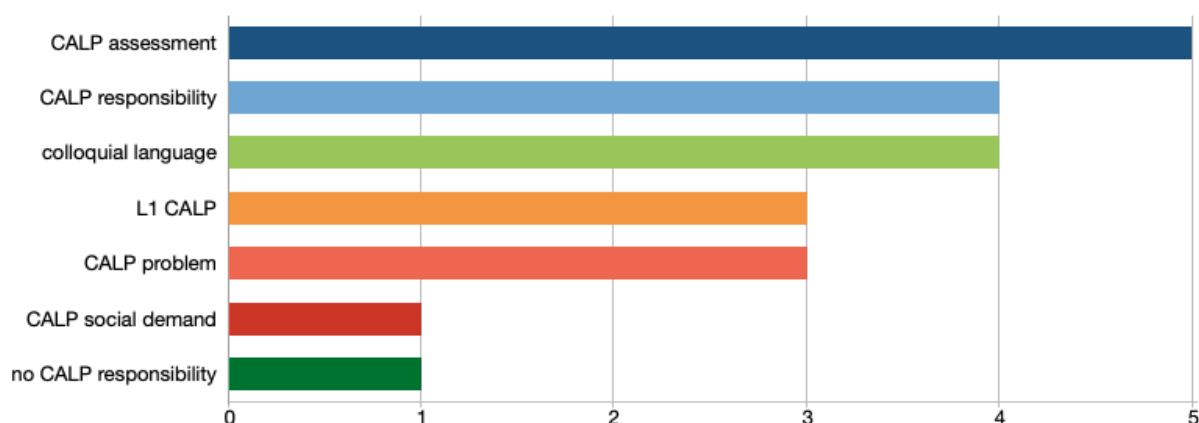
Let us then examine our participants’ views in terms of the role of CALP in English teaching. When asked about the role of academic competence in their language subject, the major themes rising from the interview were:

- the **factors** triggering the ‘CALP’ problem
- the **responsibility** of EFL teachers in this concern

These themes emerged from the analysis of the following codes:

Figure 44

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'CALP'



7.5.1. Factors behind the CALP difficulty

When exploring the nature of the difficulty of the learners' use of academic registers all of the participants, except from T5, explicitly remarked that they currently notice certain **problems** when it comes to their students and their ability to use CALP properly. For T2, T3, T4 and T6, the **factors** leading to this situation lies in the students' predominant use of colloquial language. The participants verbalised this issue as follows:

Extract 7.32. - Teacher 2

Si tú no les das un material que quieras que usen, al final ellos van a tirar del que conocen, lo que más se les ha quedado. ¿Qué es lo que más se les ha quedado? Probablemente un lenguaje más coloquial, el que usan, o el que ven en ciertos vídeos.

Sí se les ha explicado un lenguaje más académico, pero al ser más difícil de entender y al tener que estar aplicado a una cosa, quizá lo olviden más fácilmente. Y es verdad que ellos tienden a utilizar las expresiones de las que se acuerdan, que tienden a ser más coloquiales, menos académicas y quee incluso muchas veces usadas erróneamente. O sea que sí, lo veo. Aplican un lenguaje más coloquial incluso cuando tienen que hacer algo más académico.

Extract 7.33. - Teacher 4

Siguen utilizando pues un lenguaje más coloquial porque es a lo que están acostumbrados. Yo sí que insisto mucho en que tienen que diferenciar el contexto en el que les están pidiendo en un ejercicio en concreto ...Sí que insisto mucho en trabajar esas diferencias y sí que les

proporcione material para que ellos tengan recursos cuando tengan que utilizar un lenguaje mucho más formal. sí que les cuesta.

These two teachers illustrated the obstacles which learners experience when adjusting to CALP and how it is easier for them to resort to more informal language. The study of this issue is recurrent in the field of SLA, immersion and CBI, as it has been stated that learners can develop BICS in about two years, whereas it takes up to five or seven years to master command of CALP (Cummins, 1981).

Interestingly, T1, T3 and T6 added that the nature of this problem also draws on an existing similar situation in the students' use of their **mother tongue**:

Extract 7.34. - Teacher 1

Pero lo hacen igual en su lengua materna. hacemos más hincapié entre un tipo y otro de forma de comunicarse, sí que lo hagan mejor, y a lo mejor es curioso, mejor en un idioma extranjero en lugar de su propio idioma. creo que lo hacen mejor, fíjate, en un idioma extranjero, que en su propia lengua madre.

Extract 7.35. - Teacher 6

Ése es otro de los temas de los que hago hincapié. en castellano les ocurre exactamente lo mismo. Te hablan a ti igual que hablan a un amigo o a sus padres oo cuando van de discoteca. Eso lo trasladan al inglés [...] Hemos visto diferencias entre carta formal, carta informal, carta a un amigo, Y siempre utilizan el lenguaje coloquial para expresarse:: sea cual sea la actividad.

According to these teachers, students also have trouble adapting their discourse to academic situations in their mother tongue, as they tend to use social language in all kinds of situations, not being aware of the convenience to modify their discourse according to the social context. This situation has also been reported elsewhere (see Ting, 2012; Meyer, 2020), revealing that CLIL has brought into the open the deficiencies of the educational system in mainstream education, as T1 seems to suggest here.

7.5.2. Academic language as the responsibility of EFL teachers

When exploring whether the development of academic language proficiency should be a responsibility of EFL teachers, all of the participants agree that it is, with the exception of T5. Although some of the illustrations throughout this chapter actually describe certain

practices and the emphasis these teachers put on this issue, the following extracts reflect some instances of how this **responsibility** is construed:

Extract 7.36. - Teacher 4

Sí que les cuesta y yo desde luego sí que pienso que es una tarea para los profesores de inglés, que pienso que es que es que es crucial. ... yo creo que los de inglés a un cierto nivel de lo que tenemos que preocuparnos es ciertamente de eso, de un uso apropiado del lenguaje en cada contexto [...] Yo desde luego sí que pienso que es una tarea para los profesores de inglés, que pienso que es que es que es crucial. Porque tú no sólo tienes que aprender a utilizar la lengua, la lengua depende de qué contexto estés tienes que utilizar.

Extract 7.37. - Teacher 6

Deberíamos hacer más hincapié. en el instituto les enseñamos además de a comunicarse y a relacionarse pues a utilizar una manera de escribir.

This shows their clear stance: academic language falls within the scope of the EFL teacher duties as well as distinguishing the conventions in each domain, the social and the academic. As a remark, it can be observed how T4 placed emphasis on this idea, claiming the obligation for EFL teachers to deal with this. Once again, this view is consistent and coherent with the points which she made throughout the entire interview. Only T5 disagrees with this view, arguing that EFL teachers should not focus on the development of academic language:

Extract 7.38. - Teacher 5

No es la edad, sinceramente. Creo. a partir de que dejen el bachillerato. lo que sería un nivel universitario. Yo creo que ahí es donde está el gran cambio. O debería estarlo. lo estamos haciendo sin darnos cuenta. Yo creo que enseñar un lenguaje académico es muy complicado. cuando hablamos de 'proficiency' hablamos de madurez mental, no sólo del idioma. que no se note.

As can be observed, this teacher does believe that students should not be taught to deal with academic language and its associated competences until they start university. Interestingly, he supports this belief on the basis of cognitive maturity; which seems to suggest that, for this teacher, the cognitive skills associated with academic activities cannot be developed until that moment. This view diverges considerably with the central tenets of CLIL by which CALP is situated at the centre and the push for HOTS is encouraged even from early ages and Pre-Primary levels. This stance also collides with the idea of “academic

activities” which are present throughout the educational level and the “school genres” proper to each discipline and level.

If the vast majority of the teachers under scrutiny do think it is their responsibility to deal with CALP, the natural issue that follows is the matter of whether they actually do it. According to the interviews, and as some of the extracts in this section show, all of them include CALP in their teaching practices. Even T5, despite his belief that it is not his responsibility. In his view, EFL teachers do it implicitly, with no formal instruction (“sin que se note”). This reveals a contradiction between his beliefs and practices, because in other parts of the interview, he did affirm that there is academic language in the levels he teaches.

The other five participants commented on the **assessment of academic skills**, explaining that they also evaluate their students’ progress in this regard. It is common for schools taking part in CLIL programmes to prepare students for the official Cambridge exams. Even if it is only two teachers (T1, T4) who made explicit reference to it, it should be remarked that they insisted that academic skills are incorporated and evaluated partly because they are part of Cambridge exams:

Extract 7.39. - Teacher 1

Sí, sobre todo, insisto, en el cole, porque se presentan a otro tipo de exámenes donde tienen que diferenciarlo (BICS and CALP).

Extract 7.40 - Teacher 4

Entonces yo sí que insisto mucho en que tienen que diferenciar el contexto en el que les están pidiendo en un ejercicio en concreto - pues por ejemplo en los exámenes del First, que algunos casos tienen que escribir un texto más académico, más formal, pero en otros casos no, como por ejemplo un review.

Finally, T4 also believes that it is the responsibility of language teachers to develop academic competence because she sees it as a demanded skill for citizens, as evinced in this extract:

Extract 7.41. - Teacher 4

Mucha gente al final el inglés ehh lo utiliza mucho escrito. En los trabajos, la gente en las empresas tiene que estar mandando emails. O si investigas, si vas a escribir un artículo, vas a escribir una tesis doctoral en inglés, vas a estar ahí.

Thus, our current Secondary Education students will be the future adult citizens, and the different domains of their life, also acknowledged by the CEFR and the curriculum, will require them to adapt their language use to these varied settings. Related to this role in society, a very interesting experience reported by T3 should not be disregarded:

Extract 7.42. - Teacher 3

Las global classrooms son una isla súper académica en medio de toda esta informalidad. Las global classrooms son unos debates siguiendo el protocolo de la ONU y: con unos textos muy densos de universidad y: yo sé y unos informes de la ONU y: sobre temas , sobre migrantes, sobre estadísticas y ahí ellos tienen que usar un registro formal. Ahí en 3º de bilingüe se les mete un chute académico brutal. Durante tres o seis meses o así.

According to this teacher, the “global classrooms’ project”⁶⁸, in which Secondary Education students participate in a contest in which they role play being a member of the Assembly of the United Nations, could be having positive effects for the students enrolled in CLIL programmes in the upper-secondary years.

In short, we know that dealing with CALP is part of the EFL curriculum (especially the “advanced curriculum”) and the results obtained here reveal that the vast majority of the participants see it as their function and believe they are already including it in their teaching practices. In contrast, they acknowledge the existence of a challenge for EFL teachers in this regard, due to the dominance of informal language and BICS surrounding their students.

7.6. Discussion and synthesis of the findings

This chapter has intended to gain some insights into EFL teachers’ mindset in relation to the role of language in CLIL, the benefits of these programmes and their vision of their own ideal role and practices within these settings. First and foremost, some of the discrepancies detected in some of the teacher responses, either between the questionnaires and the interviews or among questions, illustrates the fact that the relation between teacher cognition and the set of teaching practices is not always consistent but dynamic. Sometimes, not even the set of beliefs held by one person is coherent. Some of the responses show that the interplay between teacher beliefs and their practical realisations is complex and not always straight-forward (Hüttner et al.; 2013).

⁶⁸ Should the reader be interested in finding out more about this project, this webpage can be visited: <https://comunidadbilingue.educa2.madrid.org/global-classroom1>

Because of the complex nature of beliefs, the discussion and main findings will be divided into three subsections. First, a synthesis of the teachers' profile in terms of their beliefs will be offered. Then, the main findings regarding their views about the state of EFL will be discussed. Finally, the last subsection will be concerned with the EFL teachers' vision of their ideal role in CLIL.

7.6.1. Summary of participants' cognition

As this dissertation tries to investigate teacher cognition as a key factor in the understanding of their own teaching role, it may be interesting to start this section with a brief summary of the main distinctive traits of the participants' asserted beliefs.

When compared to the rest of the participants, T1 has shown a greater theoretical knowledge about CLIL underpinnings and is a convinced CLIL-believer. Advocate of communicative principles, she acknowledges the key role of English teachers in all the CLIL transformations. Although she argues for more collaboration to achieve this, her statements suggest that she sees the figure of content teachers and subject matters as somewhat submitted to the English subject and EFL teacher.

Teacher 2 is the youngest and least experienced teacher, which may be behind his less authoritative and critical voice. He is rather influenced by his pre-service teacher education and still discovering many aspects of his job. He has also shown openness to CLIL and to cooperate with content teachers. However, it is his concern about students' interests and motivation that is remarkable about this teacher. This consideration might be motivated by the fact that he is a newcomer and probably still dealing with the collision between his beliefs about teaching and learning and the classroom's real needs.

Teachers 3 and 4 possibly are, together with T6, the most critical with the current state of the EFL curriculum and practice. Although they seem to hold very similar beliefs, their views also diverge in some aspects. The overt dissatisfaction of T3 with the current curriculum reveals the misalignment between her beliefs about literacy practices and materials and the curricular guidelines. She is particularly able to establish a distinction between the policy directions and her autonomy to make her own decisions and choices, something in which she firmly believes. Her strong interdisciplinary orientation is a trait which clearly stands out about this teacher. She does not conceal her insufficient theoretical knowledge about CLIL, even reproducing some of the most extended criticism. One of these extended beliefs, shared by T4 is that CLIL is detrimental for content. Another characteristic

which she shares with her colleague T4 is her academic character. These two features could be well used by CLIL programmes.

Teacher 4 has shown strong views, being the most sceptical about CLIL implementation the way it is currently designed and insisting on the need to rethink the CLIL programme or “bilingual education”. She is also an advocate of the involvement of EFL teachers, although she goes a step further, arguing for a soft-CLIL programme mainly led by English teachers. She believes in a language-driven CBI instead of having subjects such as Natural Science or Social Science taught through an additional language of which learners do not still possess certain command. She is also a very grammar-oriented teacher, which she views as the key for linguistic accuracy, the biggest challenge in current EFL. This personal tendency could also be beneficial when implementing genre-based pedagogies, which will be explored in the next chapter. In any case, all of her remarks really show a coherent thinking which reveals a clear and marked mindset.

As for T5, he shows a strong communicative and functional inclination, particularly in spoken interaction and BICS contexts. His remarks tend to identify the concept “academic” dimension with higher educational levels, but in practice, he supports initiatives which can foster academic skills, naturally consistent with Upper-Secondary Education. In other words, there is a discrepancy between his assumptions, beliefs and actions. Like T3, he knows the boundaries between the official curricular prescriptions and the autonomy he has as a teacher, although it is more limited for him than what it was for T3. Although he is well aware of the evolution of the linguistic reality in CLIL scenarios, he finds his duty very limited and restricted by the curriculum and the insufficient time. The latter is of enormous relevance for this practitioner, so any innovation is complicated to implement, which leads him to affirm the impracticality of an integrated curriculum. Regarding CLIL, he holds the view that the role of language is purely vehicular and, consequently, there should not be any explicit teaching in content classrooms. On the one hand, he agrees with his colleagues when it comes to the necessity for content teachers to know more about language pedagogy. But, in his view, it does not mean that content teachers should become language teachers and be in charge of explicit instruction. In particular, explicit correction is a task which should not be undertaken by content teachers, but language teachers. He believes in the establishment of mechanisms of collaboration among teachers but simultaneously, this teacher clearly sees content and language teachers as two distinct and separate identities.

When it comes to T6, his attitude and beliefs could be summarised in three words: openness to innovation. His statements reveal his inclination to methodological change,

co-teaching, or a more integrated curriculum. Consequently, he welcomes the genre-based proposal with enthusiasm. Furthermore, his view of the role of language in CLIL is not limited to simply a vehicular language and acknowledges the place of subject-specific literacy, which may be connected to the academic orientation which he shows.

7.6.2. Beliefs about the state of EFL and its interplay with CLIL

In general terms, the results obtained from the interviews confirm those from the questionnaires, but they incorporate **enriching nuances** and even subtle contradictions. These mainly concern teachers' views on students' perceptions and the effects of CLIL.

Regarding the first case, an interesting finding which can help us devise the way forward in EFL teaching has to do with the teachers' assumptions on their students' perspectives. All the participants agreed that learners find the subject relevant and purposeful (only T2 thinks they find it purposeless) despite their **apparent disengagement**. However, the interviews have revealed that their views are not so categorical, as other two teachers share the opinion of T2. Interestingly, the interviews have also shown that some of the participants disassociate the students' attitudes towards the subject and the language itself. All the contextual factors such as the easy access to input may account for their demotivation and boredom towards the subject, but not necessarily towards English. As true as this demotivation may be, it is still positive that learners acknowledge the value of English. Some teachers have reported challenges in that regard, which could be seen as opportunities to transform their discipline. It is for that reason that the six participants agree that, whatever its current significance, it needs a transformation. This could seem to indicate that new materials, methodologies and goals in the EFL space could change the students' current negativity. However, to make this happen, the new uses and purposes should be relevant for our students and they should be made aware of that.

Secondly, the questionnaires revealed that all the participants acknowledged the **positive impact** of CLIL on language and content. Despite the fact that most of the teachers admit not having a great knowledge of CLIL, their positive views towards it are noticeable; especially when it comes to language acquisition. The positive effects reported in the interviews align with those widely proved by researchers, i.e.. academic results, motivation, or no effect on content. Their points of view on the benefits of CLIL correlate with the widely reported benefits of the approach and other CBI models (see Dobson et al. 2010; Genesee, 2004; Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Lyster, 2007; Navés, 2011; Pérez Cañado,

2011). According to Baker and Wright (2017), this perspective should no longer be surprising, as the beneficial impact of CLIL and other additive bilingual approaches on language learning has been already proved by the literature. In any case, this finding confirms that this stance is also shared by our language teachers.

Nonetheless, some negative consequences, i.e. content simplification, also came up in the course of the conversations which concern content. However, according to the study carried out by Hughes and Madrid (2019) in 471 Secondary schools in Spain, CLIL was reported not to compromise content, at least in the Science field, which was the discipline used in this research. All in all, it can be concluded that the participants' views on the CLIL pedagogical approach are, for the most part, positive; despite some minor exceptions or nuances.

Furthermore, the questionnaires have revealed that the majority vision aligns with the claims made to offer content teachers more **specific training** on the principles of language acquisition and pedagogy (see Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Llinares & Whittaker, 2010). Therefore, these participants' views would reinforce the recommendations made by researchers so as to offer CLIL teachers more training on how to integrate content and language (Bovellan, 2014; Cabezuelo & Fernández, 2014; Morton, 2012). This positive vision is also extended to how they view the EFL discipline with regard to CLIL, as the vast majority believe that language teaching is not only their job, but also the content teachers'. Thus, that is precisely why they reckon that content teachers must be equipped with the proper education on language pedagogy.

In contrast to what other previous studies have indicated (see Pavón & Ellison, 2013; Halbach, 2014), whose results suggested that EFL teachers feel disregarded, our participants do **not** seem to feel **threatened** by the spread of CLIL. Even though they are the language experts, they do not share the vision that content teachers are taking over their job, which aligns with the belief that CLIL does not replace EFL, but complements it (Baetens-Beardsmore et al., 2009; Hüttner et al., 2013). Teachers in this study believe that these programmes should take more advantage of their expertise, but the current situation does not necessarily imply that their job is at stake.

On the contrary, their disposition to open the boundaries of their classrooms and disciplines has been made visible through their claims for more interdisciplinarity and cooperation. Similar attitudes of openness were reported by Banegas (2019), Doiz et al. (2019), Li (2014), or Pavón and Méndez (2017). What is of utmost importance for the future of CLIL programmes is that teachers all seem to agree that it is the responsibility of the EFL

professional to find ways to **scaffold** the **academic** and **subject-specific language** to pave the way for content teachers. Regarding this “supportive role”, the results obtained contrast with the teachers surveyed by Dale (2020), who were willing to adopt cross-curricular practices but were not so enthusiastic about a potential “advisory role”. In our case, our participants appear to be willing to take up this role. None of them present neither the “anxiety” mentioned by Musanti and Pence, (2010) nor the so-called “resistance to change”. Concurrently, our results coincide with those in Tan’s (2011) study, in which teachers were willing to collaborate but reported some other external hindering pressures (e.g. curriculum pressures), similar to the claims reported in this study. More specifically, some participants feel that they need more institutional support when it comes to collaborative practices, similar to the findings in Pavón and Méndez (2017). In any case, their openness to modify the official curriculum seems to suggest that they do not have a fixed mindset, but they are open to transformation instead. Concerning power issues between content and language teachers, opposite to what happens in EAL contexts (see Arkoudis, 2006 and Creese, 2002), our participants do not report feeling their role as peripheral when compared to the content teachers as none of them mention power imbalances.

Notwithstanding the generally shared points of view, it must be mentioned that the remarks of these six teachers embody some of the traditional **tensions** in the EFL discipline which have been extended to CLIL and eventually, have triggered new discussions on the real purpose of English teaching nowadays. One of these aspects concerns the role of language in CLIL, whose vision may determine the entire attitude which language teachers may adopt towards CLIL and their own participation in its correct implementation. Despite the positive vision towards CLIL that some of the teachers may have, when stating that the role of the TL in CLIL is primarily to act as vehicular language, they are (apparently) leaving aside its role as a learning tool and its academic dimension. Some other teachers do acknowledge this specific nature of disciplinary language. Most importantly, following the idea that teacher orientations with regard to language may be key to understanding their focus and language identity (Dale et al., 2017), the results presented in this chapter have revealed that, generally speaking, our participants do not share a structure-based perspective of language. On the contrary, their Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) seems to adhere to functional views. Be this PCK translated into teaching practices which correlate with functional approaches, our practitioners would be responding properly to the learning needs of their own students, as Loughran et al. (2012) and Troyan et al. (2017) claim. These results would also confirm Dale et al. (2018b) and Dale (2020) previous studies, which revealed the EFL teachers’ discipline

identity strongly adhered to the principles of communicative approaches among language teachers. As seen above, the principles of the national and regional “Advanced English” curricula are purely based on a communicative view of the language and our teachers’ mindset seems to comply with it. According to Borg (2006), language teachers’ views and beliefs tend to align with those dominating by the time they were being trained to become teachers. Also concerning the role of language, this time from the perspective of English as a global language, our practitioners endorse the ideologies surrounding the role of this language in our global society, as Kubanyiova and Crookes (2016) recommend, since these teachers feel it is their responsibility to prepare students for the demands of their future academic and professional life.

The second tension is the dichotomy between fluency and accuracy, which is also reflected in the results. In this regard, it could be interpreted that the firm position expressed by T3 or T4 advocating more accuracy could be a reaction or response to a CLIL scenario in which fluency and the idea of message over form has been put forward and still prevails. As we know, one of the areas for which CLIL has resulted highly beneficial is precisely fluency. But it is not only these programmes that are being advantageous in this regard. Some of the participants’ remarks have revealed that the amount of TL input which students can be exposed to outside the EFL classroom is having some impact on the quality and adequacy of their performance. The nature of this out-of-the-classroom input tends to be more informal, as some of the teachers have pointed out. This type of everyday language, which is normally easier and faster for students to acquire, is different from the type of specific and accurate academic language which they need to deal with the curriculum, and this poses challenges for teachers (Gibbons, 2018). In turn, the combination of CLIL and “external input” is leading these teachers to vindicate the role which EFL can play when it comes to FoF or register adequacy. It must be noted that this fact does not mean they feel their role threatened, but they do believe that a redefinition of EFL may be necessary.

What these different tensions reveal is that in the participants’ immediate responses to what the purpose of ELT is today the profound influence of communicative approaches is undeniable. Nevertheless, some of our participants’ voices rise to point out some deficiencies such as the lack of accuracy and register adequacy among students. In other words, the CLIL scenario and the amount and type of exposure to the target language has made them foresee the need for more explicit teaching, in line with those who claim for a counterbalanced approach (see Lyster 2007). In this light, it could be said that, despite not being present in the CLIL classroom, some EFL teachers have reached the same conclusions.

At the centre of the fluency-accuracy and explicit vs implicit instruction tensions always lies grammar. If the findings reported in the previous chapter showed that little evolution has proceeded as far as teaching grammar is concerned, this section's findings have revealed that one of the areas posing future challenges is precisely the role of grammar. The fact that some of the participants have admitted their concern for finding ways to teach grammar in a more integrated way, together with their vision that grammar should always be contextualised, aligns, once again, with a functional view of language.

Finally, the teachers' responses seem to suggest that the combination of all the variables explored (CLIL, exposure to input, etc.) is resulting in an undeniable impact on their identity as language teachers. Our EFL teachers do not feel so threatened by CLIL as much as they are by their loss of hegemony when it comes to the value of their subject as a whole. Because of their pupils' gained fluency and domain of BICS, consequence of the amount of exposure to English outside the classroom, our participants seem to be forced to vindicate their space through "adequacy" and "accuracy". That is, learners might be becoming more competent as regards oral skills or social and informal language, but it is only EFL teachers and the EFL space which can provide them with other linguistic skills. This is somewhat curious and contradictory, because they are actually defending a functional view of the language, but the fact that this is being "stolen" from other spaces (videogames, music, films, etc.) makes them want to reclaim their role. That is, in finding new ways to make their subject relevant, they seem to be left with vindicating that it is exclusively the EFL discipline that can provide them with the necessary accuracy in their use of language. This interesting scenario appears to portray how all this is shaping their teacher identity.

7.6.3. Beliefs about their new and ideal roles

Regarding the proposals for the reshaping of their teacher roles to suit the needs of CLIL contexts, it can be concluded that, were it be the participants' decision, their involvement in the CLIL programme would be higher. What is more, even though they find their subject suitable, there is a common consensus that it is necessary to adapt it to make it even more significant for the CLIL scenario. When comparing these results with other previous studies such as Tan (2011), Li (2014) or Pavón and Méndez (2017), it can be observed that language teachers' predisposition to collaborate is constant. The confirmation that they feel that providing the necessary linguistic support does actually fall within the scope of their responsibility as EFL teachers in CLIL settings can have multiple implications

and opens up opportunities for profound transformations. Remarkably, their proposals align with recommendations made by researchers and scholars in recent years. The previous chapter has accounted for occasional personal collaboration initiatives in which some joint effort was made with a content teacher. This reveals a dominant positive attitude towards teacher cooperation, which is confirmed by their own beliefs. Not only do they advocate for teacher collaboration but the need to prescribe it in the policy or implement it from a top-down perspective is also shared by the majority of the participants. This confirms that the support from policy makers and institutions becomes key for the success of such a pedagogical transformation (Davison 2006; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Ortega & Hughes, 2017; Pavón & Méndez, 2017, Snow et al., 1989). One of the suggested ways to do so is by promoting more meetings between the agents involved, in accordance with Julián and Fonseca's (2017) findings. Interestingly, none of the participants state that these spaces for coordination should be at the cost of reducing their teaching hours or being dispensed with their role as mentors of one specific group of students⁶⁹.

Secondly, most of them support the possibility of a merged curriculum which could, in turn, blur the boundaries of their own discipline. This proposal has been widely advocated in the research (Coonan, 2012; Dale & Tanner, 2012) and our participants (except for T5) seem predisposed to embrace this potential transformation. The suggestion made by T3, should not be disregarded, as she devises how this integrated curriculum would transform the EFL subject into a more CLIL-oriented ESP approach. Finally, regarding the introduction of content in the EFL subject, History is the discipline being mainly mentioned by teachers when giving instances of what using other subject contents mean. But it is T4 who more explicitly states her view on the need to include contents from History and other related disciplines, consistent with her defence of a language-driven approach. Interestingly, when it comes to Literature as 'content', it is the same teachers at school B who claim for a greater presence of Literature (and more relevant readings) in the EFL curriculum. The fact that no other participant has referred to literature could be symptomatic of how relevant teacher views can be. That is, it may be the case that Literature is more relevant than others for these two teachers, but it might be different for other practitioners. This interesting fact could relate to Borg's (2008) view that practitioners accept earlier those new practices which are more compatible with their own beliefs.

If we analyse these participants' proposals taking the framework developed by Dale et

⁶⁹ "Tutoría", by which one teacher in particular is responsible for one group and is in close contact with the students' families.

al. (2017) for language teachers in CLIL settings (see 2.7.4 in this thesis), it could be concluded that, generally speaking, our participants situate themselves in quadrant 2 (language and communication), probably because their discipline identity has been influenced by the predominance of Communicative approaches. However, because of contextual factors, their own identity and role seems to be evolving towards new and different approaches, encompassed in the rest of the quadrants. In this regard, T3 and T4 appear to hold the strongest views and a clearly defined vision. The former shows more inclination towards quadrant 4 (subject-specific disciplines) because she believes that the subject of English could be transformed into a kind of ESP, useful for the content subject. For the latter, although she is insistent in the need for accuracy, the understanding of CLIL as a message-driven approach aligns with quadrant 1: offering a natural context for language learning should be carried out using Literature or Arts as content (in the EFL subject).

Lastly, it could be concluded that our respondents are aware of the space that CALP occupies in the EFL curriculum. Despite the contradictions of T5, the interviews have revealed that these teachers assume the development of academic competences as their responsibility.

To conclude, the nature of the proposals for future pathways are illustrations of the set of beliefs which conform these participants' mindset. Some of the potential actions suggested such as interdisciplinarity, collaboration or curriculum transformations clearly show that the teachers under scrutiny see themselves as decisive in bilingual education, so their work should be integrated in the whole CLIL programme. Even if we are still far from the establishment of prescribed practices, our participants' positions are framed within what have been described as the desired ones, especially when it comes to addressing the *language gap* and to raise language awareness. In this regard, the results obtained here show that these participants think that the same potential actions (interdisciplinarity, collaboration, new curriculum ,etc.) will serve to overcome this situation. Despite the divergences regarding the scope of their new role, we can observe some "space" for further development in their responsibilities in all cases, either because they believe in the need for more involvement of language teachers, or because they are critical with the current system. More specifically, some of their claims concerning the need for more accurate, adequate and academic language as the way forward lead us to the next chapter, in which the role of subject-specific language will be analysed more explicitly.

7.7. Chapter summary

The present chapter has aimed at answering RQ2, on the grounds of the significance of having a better understanding of teacher beliefs and vision of their own role in CLIL settings. Two data sets have been used to that end: the teacher questionnaires and the interviews. Section 7.2. has presented and examined the questionnaire results concerning their beliefs about CLIL and its impact on their own field of expertise. Section 7.3. has delved into the same issues, this time from the interviews' perspective. Also drawing on this same data source, section 7.4. has dealt with the teachers' beliefs about what would represent their ideal roles and practices as EFL teachers in CLIL Secondary settings whereas 7.5 has addressed their beliefs regarding the teaching of CALP. To conclude, the main findings have been discussed in 7.6. The results have shown that the participants' views of CLIL are mostly positive and they feel that both CLIL and EFL could be better complemented. They have shown predisposition towards teacher collaboration and enthusiasm for more cross-curricular practices. They mostly support the existing proposals which suggest a redefinition of their role in these contexts and have a few ideas of their own. Moreover, most of our participants feel that developing academic competences falls within the scope of their responsibilities and assert that this competence poses a challenge for learners.

Exploring their views on their own responsibilities was essential before getting to know whether EFL teachers can guide the acquisition of subject-disciplinary linguistic competences through the implementation of genre-based pedagogies. It is for this reason that the next chapter will be devoted to the proposal made by the author of this thesis to deal with this need and challenge.

8. The feasibility of genre-based pedagogy in EFL to develop academic literacies (RQ3): Analysis and discussion III

8.1. Introduction

The previous chapter has shown that our participants wish to find solutions to the issue of what linguistic scope should be adopted in EFL classrooms. It has also revealed that the nature of this problem is twofold, since the work and goals of the EFL teacher are being influenced mainly by CLIL programmes, but also by the growing amount of extramural exposure to English.

Against this backdrop, this chapter will specifically focus on one of the suggestions for the adaptation of the work of the EFL teacher so as to make it more relevant in CLIL settings: offering guidance to support the acquisition of subject-specific disciplinary language. For this reason, the Research Question to be answered is the following:

- 3a. Can genre-based learning/teaching be an effective pedagogy for EFL teachers to support academic skills development and disciplinary language learning and use?
- 3b. How do they view the potential implementation of this genre-based pedagogy?

More specifically, we will explore to what extent the implementation of a genre-based learning approach in the English language classroom might be suitable for such purpose. As this analysis is focused exclusively on academic literacies, section 8.2. will describe some relevant details about the development of the intervention stage, gathered through the checklist and fieldnotes used during those weeks. The last sections will focus on the analysis of the interviews and the results obtained from using the GenRe instrument, followed by the main conclusions derived from contrasting the results from both sets of data.

8.2. The pedagogical intervention process: field-notes and checklist

The pedagogical intervention was designed to expose the participants to the implementation of a genre-based learning approach so that they could analyse the opportunities it could offer. Although the methodology chapter already described the intervention process and procedures, these will be briefly summarised here for the readers' convenience.

After an informal meeting with the participants in which the genre-based learning approach was presented, the EFL teachers were given the necessary materials and a written summary of what the approach consists of so that they could familiarise themselves with it for a few days. After that, the EFL teacher put into practice these genre-based lessons. The role of the researcher was that of an observer, completing the checklist (see Appendix H), used as a secondary source of data and submitted to the intervention.

These lessons offered some interesting data and were analysed as a practical experience. A brief narrative account of the most remarkable aspects are presented next for a better understanding of this stage of the procedure. The information will be disclosed according to the order followed in the checklist. Furthermore, some interesting episodes will be discussed.

8.2.1. Introduction to the genre-based sessions

When explaining what the next sessions would consist of, the participants informed the students about their aims, but the clarity with which they made explicit the connection of those goals with the subject of History varied. Four of them, T1, T2, T3 and T4 explicitly pointed out that they were going to write a text related to the subject of History. For instance, T4 said "The purpose of these lessons is not the typical English texts, but History". On the contrary, T5 and T6 just explained they were going to practice or improve their writing. However, none of them mentioned the type of text a historical account is and its main features. As for whether they explicitly made references to the importance of learning this, all of them did it except for T4. However, none of them stressed its relevance in connection with CLIL or the subject of History, but for writing purposes. As an illustration, T5 emphasised

that they would need it for the EvAU exam⁷⁰: “this is what we do: cause and effects and you will do it in two years’ time”.

During these first minutes, T1, T2, T3 and T4 did include some references to the subject of History. Indeed, T1 literally stated “Today, we are practising History”. T2 explained the connection with which the chosen genre is practised and even refers back to the moment when they had studied “The French Revolution”. Interestingly, T4 established that link by means of the following question “Have you found any difficulties when facing writing in other subjects?”

Regarding the presence of an activation of previous knowledge, the same four teachers did it somehow, recapitulating on the students’ knowledge on text structure and writing principles.

8.2.2. Deconstruction stage

As detailed in 4.4.4., this first stage of the genre-based pedagogy consists of a deconstruction of the chosen genre to examine its main linguistic features or how these texts are organised. In this case, the observation tool allowed us to note down the extent to which the participants complied with the different stages and essential constituents of this pedagogy. As far as the **specific text structure** is concerned, teachers explained the organisation of this type of text. However, and logically, this explanation was adapted to their personal teaching style. Some teachers (e.g. T2) resorted to a much more teacher-fronted explanation of the different sections. On the contrary, T6 used elicitation techniques constantly, enacting co-construction of meaning and using one of the texts as a model from which learners could infer the appropriate text organisation. “Deduction” is the last of the three sections composing this genre; however, it is not considered a compulsory element. Likewise, the attention devoted to the deduction section fluctuated among the participants. For instance, T2 did not specify what the deduction is whereas other teachers such as T4 fostered its incorporation: “It is not obligatory but I encourage it because I think it is important to close the text”.

Concerning the **linguistic features** proper to the historical account genre (cause and effect vocabulary, passive voice, nominalisations, etc), they were covered in all cases, but the intensity in their emphasis and strategies to make this explicit also varied. Teacher 1 tried to connect the grammar structures the students already knew with this genre. On the contrary, T5 also assumed that students were already familiar with cause-and-effect vocabulary,

⁷⁰ University entry exam in Spain.

conjunctions, recurrent verbal tenses, etc., but he did not explicitly cover all this in connection with historical accounts. Other teachers addressed these linguistic features paying more attention to the strategic competence to deal with this genre. For instance, T3 and T4 went over word by word expressing the importance of each group (nouns, linking words, etc) and insisted on how to avoid repetition, highlighting different ways of expressing cause and effect. Another example is T6, who kept eliciting information from students: “What other linkers do you know for cause?” “Why is it important to have connectors?”

Because of their individual teaching styles, each of the participants resorted to a variety of strategies and scaffolding techniques when helping learners understand the features of this specific genre. T1 used bridging (Walki, 2006) ⁷¹and also divided the model text into smaller chunks. Interestingly, she resorted to their L1 on isolated occasions to find equivalents in Spanish and accepted some answers in the mother tongue only to clarify the meaning of some cause-and-effect vocabulary. T2 also made use of the L1 as a learning tool when necessary and promoted schema building⁷² (Walki, 2006), attempting to establish connections between what they are doing and other subjects. Teacher 3 made use of elicitation techniques whereas teacher 4 made them reflect about many specific details (e.g. structure of the collocation “make somebody do something” vs “cause something to happen”) and always gave them some time to think before going over the correct version. When needed, she gave them prompts. During the different activities which make up the “deconstruction stage” (puzzle, fill-in-the gaps, word formation, etc), T5 opted for giving students time to work collaboratively in pairs before checking the answer. During the correction phase, he worked on accuracy and enacted Focus-on-form practices (e.g. as a consequence of, specific collocations, etc), making explicit reference to the fact that what they were doing is formal academic writing. In the case of T6, he was consistent in his use of constant elicitation and prompting.

8.2.3. Joint construction stage

In this stage, students are expected to produce one piece of writing on the factors that led to the Industrial Revolution. To do so, they had to work collaboratively in some kind of grouping as a previous step before writing independently.

Teachers were free to choose what kind of grouping and procedure they would follow. In school A, students already sit in groups of three or four people, as they are officially

⁷¹ Activating previous knowledge in order to connect old with new information.

⁷² Constructing sets of interrelated knowledge in order to organise and understand information.

implementing cooperative learning methodologies. Teacher 1 made use of this and asked the different groups to work on their own historical account. Teacher 4 also opted for small grouping procedures. In this case, she also gave them 30 minutes to work in groups, but right before checking the students' product, she made them stop and reviewed the three different parts of the text, using this review as a kind of "checklist" by which pupils could confirm that all the requirements had been met. To involve all the students in the feedback, she named a spokesperson in each group to read aloud their texts and made the rest of groups intervene to give their opinion on their classmates' production. As an illustration, one pupil pointed out that one group had overused "increase", so they should have found synonyms to replace it. Teacher 5 also made groups, five people in this case. The language assistant was present in this session, so he walked around the classroom solving students' questions and doubts. When they had finished, the teacher read each text and asked one group as a volunteer to write their account on the board. Interestingly, he paid special attention to how the students had coped with the deduction part.

The remaining teachers preferred to work with the entire class as a group. Put differently, there would be one final product created by the entire class. However, their approach differed, mainly with regard to the pupils' interventions. In the case of T2, one student was appointed to write on the board and the teacher took a leading position and started the background. For the rest of the text, he forced various students to continue the text by providing the next sentence. In this way, one student made a proposal and the pupil standing next to the board wrote it. It must be remarked that the teacher tended to designate the students who, apparently, were not so involved in the task. As the group was not very participative, it was the teacher who eventually offered an adequate continuation on many occasions. Interestingly, he underlined all the linking and cohesive devices so that, once they had finished, they could review them and give reasons for those linguistic choices. Teacher 3 designated one student to write on the board as well. In this case, students volunteered to offer their proposals on what to write next while the role of the teacher was to model and improve their suggestions to make it more suitable for this genre and formal academic context. For instance, one student proposed the following: "however, these were not the only advances, because there were also improvements in..." The teacher replied by saying: "Good, but don't say 'however', it doesn't make the flow of ideas correct. You are contrasting and they are going back to add information". Another example (of many) was found when one student suggested using "a lot", to which she replied asking the group "What's wrong with 'a lot'?" Students answered that it is colloquial, and therefore, more appropriate equivalents

could be used instead. As for T6, it was him who wrote on the board, following the pupils' interventions to suggest ideas. He accepted them and mediated when necessary to provide a better product. At the end, they went over their text again, focusing on the lexical choices they had made.

Concerning other strategies, it is worth mentioning that T1 also included a modelling scaffolding strategy by showing them one further instance of historical account which she had written herself. In her case, she even mediated with the content, as she devoted five minutes at the beginning of the "joint construction stage" to elicit previous knowledge about the Industrial Revolution. Interestingly, the question that opened this stage was about what they had done so far: "Did we teach History? Or did we teach you something you can do in History?". Although not in such an incisive way, T4 also started by bridging the gap with History, saying that they already know what the text should be about and its content because they had already studied it at school.

The length of each stage was not parallel in the three schools. In fact, a fixed number of sessions to implement this approach was not agreed with the participants beforehand. The objective was to complete the whole teaching and learning cycle, regardless of the number of sessions it could take up. However, in most of the six interventions, the deconstruction stage was completed in two sessions. In those cases, all of the teachers started the following session, which corresponded to the "joint construction stage", with some kind of recap, which mainly focused on reviewing the text organisation of this type of genre.

8.2.4. Independent construction stage

The last stage allowed for little variation of teaching strategies. In this case, pupils were asked to re-write the historical account with which the intervention had been initiated. As detailed in the methodology section, these written products did not constitute data for the analysis. Whatsoever interesting, it would shift the focus of the analysis and would not serve the purpose of answering the research questions directly. On this occasion, the handouts and the joint-construction model were at their disposal in case they needed to consult anything. Moreover, they were provided with a special checklist designed for students to make sure that all the compulsory elements of the genre were included in their final products. What they did not have access to was their original pieces of writing. While giving guidelines about this activity, some of the teachers resorted to reviewing and highlighting some important

elements. For instance, T2 reminds them to use all the expressions, T5 uses the checklist to do so. In T3's case, she made the pupils show her their texts before leaving the classroom.

In a nutshell, all the participants completed the teaching and learning circle proper to this genre-based pedagogy, although they adapted it to their personal teaching styles. References to the objectives of the genre in practice and its utility for the subject of History were found, although they were not uniform among participants. As for grammar, any reference to it during the intervention was always contextualised. In other words, it served the purpose of the genre.

8.3. Post-intervention interview results: Applicability and feasibility of a genre-based approach pedagogy for EFL

Once the intervention was completed, a follow-up interview was appointed with each of the teachers. As one of the objectives of the interview was to discuss the potential improvements in the students' written production, the interviews took place at least a few days after the intervention, so that the researcher could examine them according to the procedure described in 5.5.3. As already mentioned, it is not the purpose of this study to focus on students' output but rather to comment with teachers the potential benefits of the genre-based approach. To do so, a summary of the evolution of five-randomly-chosen written products⁷³ were taken to the interview.

During this stage of the interviews, two were the major macro-themes discussed. On the one hand, the applicability of the genre-based approach, namely the utility, advantages and benefits of implementing such an approach. On the other hand, the actual feasibility of the proposal. The following subsections comprise the emerging themes which rose during these conversations.

8.3.1. Positive representation of the approach: benefits of the genre-based approach

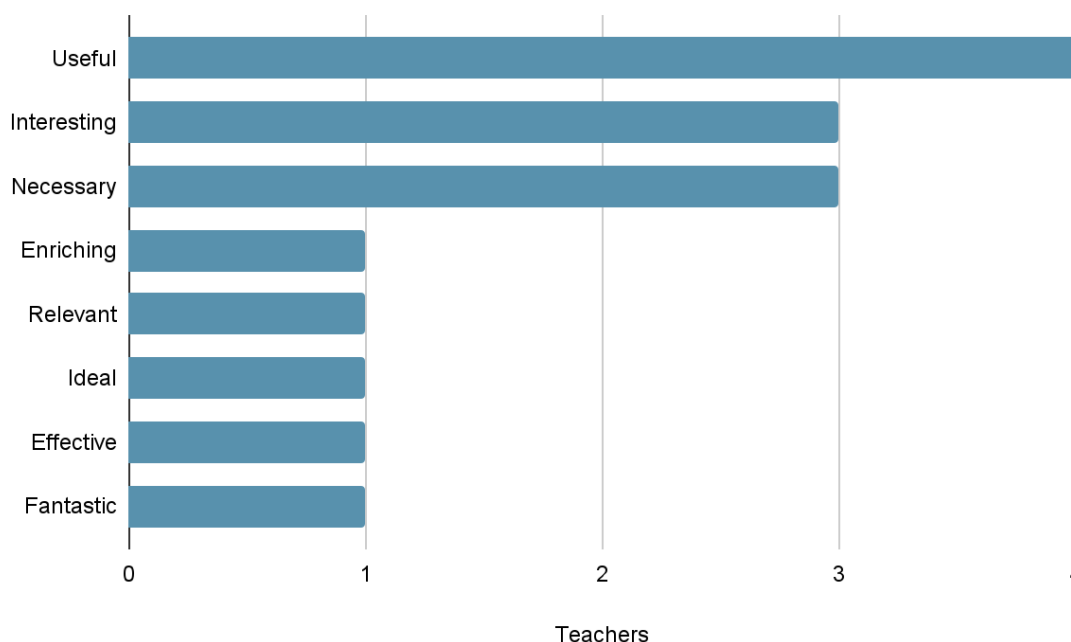
First and foremost, this section encompasses two related emerging themes: teachers' positive views of the genre-based approach and its benefits. In the course of this stage, the teachers under scrutiny referred to the approach with positive terms. Let us analyse, from a

⁷³ Those summaries can be found in Appendix G for the reader's convenience in case it is of their interest.

discursive point of view, the adjectives which they used to refer to it, displayed in the following graph:

Figure 45

Adjectives⁷⁴ describing the genre-based approach



As we can observe, the adjective which was used by four of the six participants was ‘**useful**’, being the approach conceptualised in such terms by T1, T2, T3 and T5. Then, three of the participants described it as ‘**necessary**’ (T4, T5 and T6) and ‘**interesting**’ (T2, T4 and T5 as well). Finally, other adjectives were used in one case each: ‘**enriching**’ (T1), ‘**relevant**’ (T5), ‘**ideal**’ (T6), ‘**effective**’ (T3) and ‘**fantastic**’ (T5). Thus, it can be concluded that their take of the genre-approach is positive. It must be mentioned that the practitioners at school C wanted to put on the record that their pupils had also enjoyed it. Although it could be considered that it is implicit that the participants be **willing to implement** it, T2 and T5 explicitly pointed out that they were already considering it.

Extract 8.1. - Teacher 5

Es renovarse o morir. Son cosas nuevas que a mi no se me hubieran ocurrido. Esta idea me parece fantástica (...) Lo que necesitamos, que son cosas así, eso no lo hay.

⁷⁴ The adjectives shown here represent shorter versions of the codes used during the analysis, which were given longer in some cases for identification purposes (e.g. ‘useful approach’ or ‘enriching approach’).

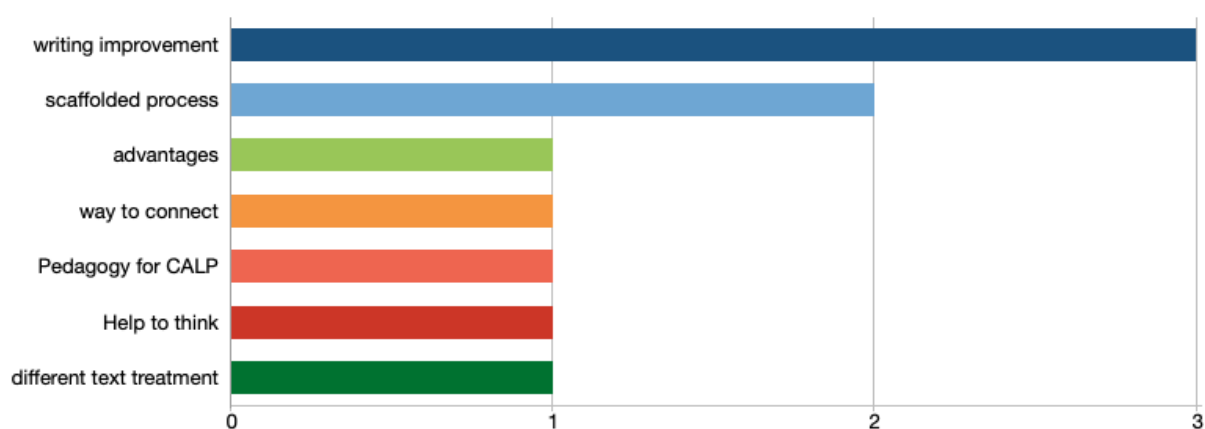
In this extract, T5 discussed how the genre-based pedagogy is both ground-breaking and beneficial, being also a way that makes EFL teachers find renewed practices. When contrasting these two opinions (T2, T5), we can easily see that teachers are willing to implement this approach and even more importantly, they were already thinking and exploring the possibilities to do so.

In the case of T4, she insisted on how necessary such an approach is. When analysing the particular mindset of this practitioner in the previous chapters, it was noted that accuracy plays a key role for her, making it the essential purpose of EFL. In particular, for this teacher, the educational context and level of her students demand specific academic tools which this approach seems to provide. This fact could indicate why T4 refers to the approach as relevant, interesting and necessary. Because of her view of EFL as a space to make students more “register-aware” (see the previous chapter), during the analysis of the evolution of the historical accounts, she explained that she already works with the organisation of specific texts from 3rd ESO onwards.

When stating their views on the **applicability** of this approach, the theme which emerged is concerned with the **advantages and reasons** why it could be beneficial for their contexts and needs.

Figure 46

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘advantages and reasons’



All of the participants discussed the benefits of the approach. First of all, it is worth mentioning that four of the participants (T1, T2, T5, T6) explicitly pointed at the **revealing nature** of the evidence showing how their students’ production had improved by the end of the intervention. For them, this proves why a genre-based approach could be beneficial:

Extract 8.2. - Teacher 1

Así sale mejor, desde luego, aquí tienes los datos.

Extract 8.3. - Teacher 5

Me pareció muy interesante y las pruebas las tengo en la mano. Lo que vi que hacían un día y lo que vi que hacían el último día.

Extract 8.4. - Teacher 6

Y además esto demuestra que efectivamente tiene efectos . Yo creo que sí que los tiene.

For T1, T2, and T4, the main advantage is the **improvement of the writing skill**.

Extract 8.5. - Teacher 2

Yo creo que es un formato muy válido [...] Quizá sobre todo en *transition words* y en *cause-and-effect vocabulary*. Bueno, también depende del alumno pero quizá sí que veo que aplica más. Sí se puede ver que en términos generales sí que han aplicado lo enseñado [...] Que podría decir que estaría contento en ese sentido. Es decir, han sabido aplicar lo enseñado y hay una esperanza. Es un formato muy útil, que se debería aplicar más y nada más. Creo que, en mi experiencia, yo creo que ha funcionado. Al final ellos han aplicado lo que les hemos enseñado, las estructuras, las transiciones, el vocabulario, expresiones que tienen que utilizar. [...] Lo interesante sería ver si aplicándolo durante un curso, comparar septiembre y junio y ver realmente si ha habido algún cambio. Que seguramente lo haya, claro.

When analysing the written productions, T2 came to the conclusion that his pupils applied what they had learned, mainly in terms of *transition words* and *cause-and-effect vocabulary*. After this experience, the teacher made an interesting proposal and reflection: if some transformations are visible after just a few days of implementation, it would be interesting to conduct a longitudinal study of at least one academic year to observe the progress.

Teacher 4, who also referred to this aspect as one of the factors of its benefits, also provided specific examples of improvement in terms of *transition words*, complex syntactic structures or *cause-and-effect vocabulary*. However, she acknowledged that her students already were knowledgeable about some other strategies owing to the emphasis which she placed on these elements in these last years of Compulsory Education. Moreover, she focused on the possibilities that this approach offers inasmuch it allows students to be aware of their

own progress and as a way which encourages them to use a wider range of linguistic resources. This same extract also offers a glimpse of another of the advantages of the approach. Her opinion that it constitutes a **scaffolded process** was shared by T3:

Extract 8.6. - Teacher 3

Me gusta que está bien dosificado, los ejercicios iban como: construyendo una base para construir el siguiente nivel y el siguiente nivel hasta llegar al otro, que es como. Es un buen método. Te crea la ilusión de que con unos simples bloques puedes construir un texto. Y luego, es mucho más que eso. Pero eso ya te da una tranquilidad de ‘bueno, ya tengo una estructura’ y el resto ya es floritura, y vocabulario, y tal, y machacarlo. Porque es mucho repetir, y todo eso. Para implementarlo en (.) Pues es que esto es lo que a mi se me da mal. A mi sí me ha gustado, yo te lo compro (...) Desde luego para empezar me parece muy bien, muy buen método. Es como ‘si tienes este tipo de texto, pues así vas conectando las partes y lo vas rellenando’. Luego hay mucho esfuerzo ahí de: de pulir, de detalle y todo eso. Pero sí te proporciona un orden, y sí que me ha gustado que está bien pautado y bien pautado, de menos a más, y:: bien, lo veo como eficaz.

This shows that, for T3 and T4, the potential and strengths of the approach lie in its procedure. In other words, the clear steps and scaffolding which help learners build their own written product, the progression and the way it leads students towards independent writing inasmuch we are provided with a “structure” (a model), a kind of substitution table⁷⁵, and it is the writer’s task to fill. But she also suggested other reasons why this would be suitable:

Extract 8.7. - Teacher 3

Me parece una buena forma de que aten todas las cosas. Y es la más difícil, entonces ahora todo lo que sabes de gramática lo tengo que ver aquí. Entonces cómo me vas a poner un presente o un futuro si estás hablando de la Revolución Francesa, y si es un condicional, cuidado con qué condicional, y si pasa esto el otro va a reaccionar de la otra forma, no me mezcles condicionales, o sea, me da mucho juego ehhh Pues bien.

According to her, this genre-based approach constitutes a **tool to connect** grammar with writing in a contextualised way. That is, the use of grammar is framed within a twofold context: the act of writing itself and the topic or content object of the historical account. It is for that reason that she illustrated it with the logical use of verbal tenses and the time period in which the events accounted for took place. The previous chapters had revealed that this

⁷⁵ Scaffolding technique useful in CLIL settings which provides a writing frame from which learners can be supported in their output production (see Ball et al. 2015, p. 149-151 for some illustrations).

teacher was discontented with the lack of integration of grammar with the language activity. This different approach seems to be catering her with a tool to meet this need.

During the discussion concerning her students' writing and their evolution, she made some relevant observations for the purpose of this study. When analysing one of the texts, she was able to identify the student through her initials, highlighting that this pupil tends to use colloquial language but her style had changed once she was given the correct tools. This remark reveals that the teacher becomes aware that this approach is useful when it comes to **CALP pedagogy**. This activity provided the learner with the tools that helped her adapt her discourse to the context. In other words, it allows us to focus on academic registers and help them move away from more colloquial language. The previous chapters also showed the relevance of this issue for this particular teacher. Therefore, once again, this pedagogy is offering her the solution to a problem which she was complaining about. As the CALP acronym itself indicates, "cognition" is embedded in this process, and T3 also justified the strengths of the approach in terms of how this approach has **helped them to think** while articulating their texts in causes and effects. This statement seems to support the widely advocated notion that language and cognition cannot be separated, as detailed in 4.3.

Teacher 5 also discussed its applicability in that this is a **different way of dealing with texts**, opposing it to the current "stereotyped" way:

Extract 8.8. - Teacher 5

Pues a mi me gustó mucho porque es una es un acercamiento distinto a la forma que tenemos de ver los textos, que es muy estereotipada de ver. Me gustó, sí. Me pareció ↑súper interesante.(...) Sí. muy útil. Vamos, de tal manera que me he planteado ver cada texto que veamos de esta manera.

Teacher 6 paid close attention to the writing transformation of his students' products, analysing specific changes and commenting on some of the recurrently problematic areas for students (e.g. incorrect verbal tenses or underuse of the passive voice).

Extract 8.9. - Teacher 6

T6 - Al final es lo que hacemos o deberíamos hacer en clase. Un poco les explicamos cómo hacerlo, ¿no? La teoría de cómo llevar a cabo ese escrito, hacemos alguna práctica previa, o enseñamos modelos de cómo está ese escrito hecho y luego les damos un tiempo para que lo hagan ellos y corregimos en clase.

R - Ahá

T6 - Sí. Es la manera yo creo =

R - Lo único es que en este caso serían como géneros concretos de historia, a lo mejor otro día tocaría de biología o =

T6 - =eso es, de distintos temas.

In line with other participants, T6 also reflected on the procedure of this pedagogy as an effective way of guiding students. More interestingly, this teacher also acknowledged the potential of the approach as the way forward to establishing links with the content subjects being taught through English, an idea shared by T1, who also mentioned how this approach may come in handy for the functioning of the CLIL programme:

Extract 8.10. - Teacher 1

(...) por ejemplo se me ocurre que se podría introducir , para echar una mano en este caso a los compañeros que están dando las asignaturas bilingües.

With this statement, she established a direct connection between this approach and CLIL, between EFL and content.

Although some of the previous extracts offered some hints about the advantages of the genre-based approach, let us examine some of their perspectives in a more detailed way.

Extract 8.11. - Teacher 1

Muchas veces, utilizan las cuatro palabritas que se saben, con lo cual está bien recordarles cier- ciertos campos semánticos y recordarles ciertos conectores para que(.) que no usen siempre ↑los mismos. Y tercero, pues veo muy útil que al principio vean que han hecho una porquería entre comillas. Y una vez que se les ha explicado y demás, se les da otra vez para que sean capaces de recomponer todo aquello que: bueno, que se les ha explicado a lo largo las clases. O sea que sí, claro que verán ellos la modificación del de lo que hicieron a lo que van a hacer.

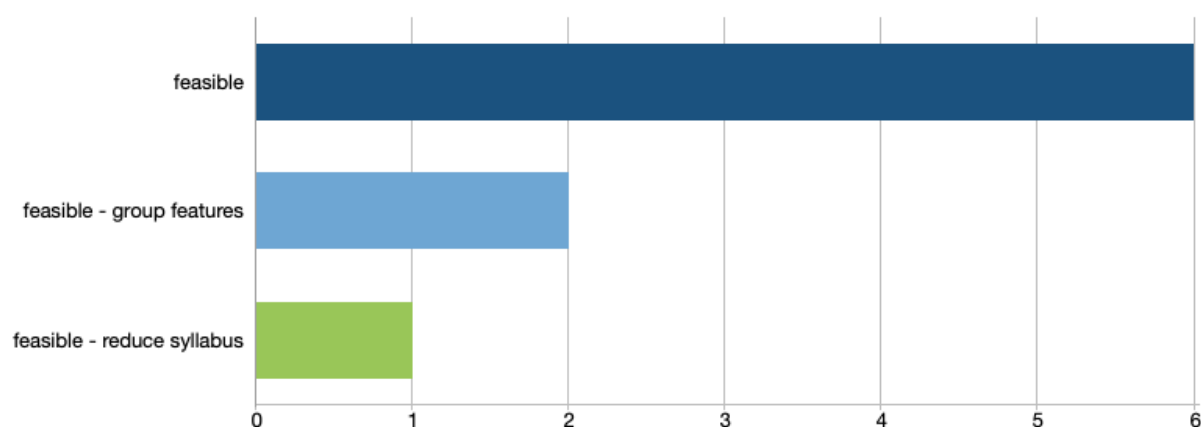
In short, and as the extract above discloses, all the participants coincided in their positive description of the approach in terms of its applicability. They also explored some of the factors which would make it useful. Moreover, most of them concluded that the transformation of their students' product at the end of the intervention proves its potential benefits.

8.3.2. The feasibility of the genre-based pedagogy: requirements, hindrances and proposals

It goes without saying that, since this intervention lasted a few sessions (they varied depending on the teacher), a longitudinal study would be needed to really determine and validate the long-term effects in the learners' written output. For that reason, the participants' remarks were not restricted to the potential benefits but they also explored how they would implement the approach in the long run. Generally speaking, all the participants agreed on the **feasibility** of the implementation of this pedagogical approach, as Figure 47 and the following statements illustrate:

Figure 47

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'feasibility of the genre-based approach'



Extract 8.12. - Teacher 1

Sí, es factible, y tampoco es (.) tampoco te lleva tanto tiempo, vaya no creo yo que, que supusiera tanto.

Extract 8.13. - Teacher 5

No creo que fuera muy complicado sinceramente. Es otra forma, otro enfoque distinto para enseñar el writing. O sea que no veo mucha complicación (...) tenemos cierta libertad para hacerlo.

However, T3 added that the implementation of the approach would be on condition that the **syllabus be reduced**, something that she claims having the autonomy to do. Moreover, T2 and T4 submit its feasibility to the **group's characteristics**:

Extract 8.14. - Teacher 2

Al final el problema es (.) llamar la atención de esos alumnos. Quizá si le vieran utilidad quiza:: sí, a lo mejor err les les ayudaría y a lo mejor mm lo aplicarían. Pero ahí tiendo a ser más pesimista. Claro, pero este mismo enfoque, este mismo formato puede ser lo mejor de lo mejor en una clase que esté más disciplinada, por utilizar un término. Pero hay clases en las que noo. Pero no ya por el formato en sí, sino porque hay una carencia de interés. A lo mejor hay gente que no le interesa nada la historia o que le cuesta le cuesta por lo que sea.

Extract 8.15. - Teacher 4

Sí son muy espabilados los alumnos, probablemente con unas cuantas clases ya van a mejorar mucho. Pero si son clases un poquito más ya normales, ¿sabes? Pues gente que a lo mejor no tiene tanta motivación o tanto interés, pues va a requerir mucho más trabajo de fondo.

In both cases, the students' motivation and interest would play a key role in the effective integration of this approach. In T2's opinion, it is also a matter of discipline. In his words, it would work better in a "well-behaved group".

In any case, all of the participants explored the issue of its feasibility, resulting in three major emerging subthemes:

- **Requirements for its feasibility:** Demands and implications for the EFL teachers' work.
- **Issues hindering its feasibility:** Factors which could present some difficulties in its implementation.
- **Proposals for feasibility:** Personal suggestions on the best ways to put this approach into practice.

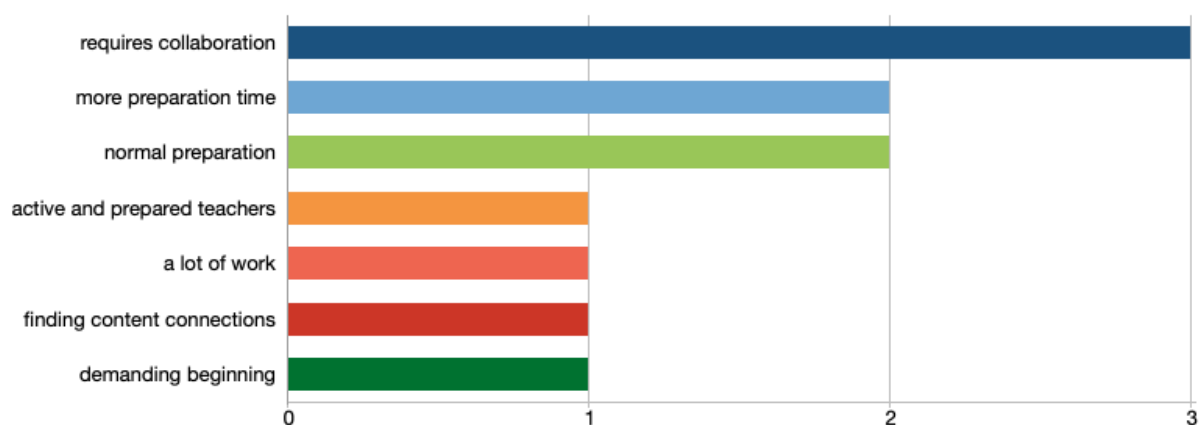
The following sections will analyse these three major themes in detail.

8.3.2.1. Requirements for its feasibility

All of the participants explored the topic of the new and extra demands which they would be expected to face in case that this approach was implemented. Figure 48 comprises the codes used:

Figure 48

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'requirements for feasibility'



Despite the lack of homogeneity in the responses, all the teachers discussed the requirements in terms of two dimensions: the amount of **planning time** and **collaboration** needed among teachers. Regarding the requirements for planning, T2 and T5 agreed that it would imply more preparation time.

Extract 8.16. - Teacher 2

Bueno, quizá más trabajo. Bueno, no más trabajo, quizá otro tipo de organización. Bueno más trabajo quizá sí a la hora de buscar más información y aplicarla, pero, yo creo que hace la función del docente más como un guía, como alguien que monitoriza la elaboración de la actividad. Es decir, da unas herramientas, pone unos ejemplos, y luego simplemente monitoriza y resuelve dudas si son necesarias.

According to this teacher, it would require more work in terms of planning (e.g. looking for information), but not in the classroom. There, just a different organisation would be necessary, referring to the role of the teacher. In line with learner-centred approaches, widely advocated in recent years, the role of the teacher would be conceived as a guide and a monitor (Huba & Freed, 2000).

Extract 8.17. - Teacher 5

Me exigiría un trabajo (.) voy a decir brutal. (ríe) Básicamente porque esto lo tienes que crear tú. Tienes que buscar los textos de referencia. No te voy a contar lo que has tenido que hacer porque ya lo sabes tú. Pero me parece un trabajo brutal. (...) Es simplemente plantear otro enfoque. Requiere tiempo y preparación.

As seen above, T5 claimed the feasibility of this pedagogy and showed his willingness to implement it. Nonetheless, this extract shows his acknowledgement of the extra amount of work in the planning stage, **a lot of work** for him, as far as the creation of materials is concerned. In contrast to T2 and T5, T4 and T6's views on this issue partially differs, stating that a genre-based approach would imply **normal preparation**, in other words, no different planning time from what their lessons require currently:

Extract 8.18. - Teacher 6

Preparación de (.) Bueno, ya lo hacemos. Pues preparar un simplee (.) previamente tienes que preparar tus clases. Entonces, bueno, pues sería preparar actividades. Igual que lo has traído preparado tú, lo trajiste. O bien a través de un Power Point, a través de una explicación teórica. Luego algún caso práctico, ¿no? Que ellos vean cómo cambia, evoluciona el texto. Bueno, pues preparación de esas actividades.

In this case, T6 agreed with the previous instances inasmuch it would require preparation of this activity. However, his conceptualisation does not seem to imply that this preparation would involve too much extra work. In his words, teachers already prepare their lessons, and this would not be any different in this regard. Teacher 4 has a similar perspective, as she claimed that her focus is already academic, so the preparation time would be no different from what it is now. Teacher 3 refers to it as being **demanding in the beginning**.

Extract 8.19. - Teacher 3

Me demanda más, pero como todo. Cuando lo vas repitiendo ya no te demanda tanto.

That is, in her opinion, this approach would not be different from any other in the sense that the implementation of something new will always be more demanding in its early stages.

As for **collaboration** with other teachers, three of the participants (T1, T3, T6) explicitly identified it as a requirement, as the following extracts reveal:

Extract 8.20. - Teacher 1

Coordinarse muy bien coordinados con los compañeros que imparten la otra asignatura. en lugar de utilizar dos horas, pues en una hora, Sería, de hecho, bastante más sencillo. En una

hora me daría tiempo. Pero habría que (.) organizarlo y coordinarse muy bien con los otros compañeros que imparten las bilingües.

This practitioner reckoned that coordination with the content teacher would be essential, particularly in terms of time efficiency. In other words, involving the content teacher, organising and planning it as a whole would ultimately result in saving time.

Extract 8.21. - Teacher 3

T3- Esto también lo que yo veo de esta fórmula es que habría que trabajar muy cerca también del profesor de historia porque ahora se queda como un poco hueco, están aplicando la fórmula, pero la escritura tiene mucha profundidad. Está un poco robot, lo han hecho en sólo una hora. Entonces, tienen esa estructura y luego les faltaría pues pulir.

R - Pulir, claro.

T3 - Que pulir es (.) la gracia e incluso con lengua. Hasta lo trabajaría con lengua española.

In this case, the respondent would cooperate with the content teacher so as to ensure that each teacher could make more emphasis in their area of expertise. This way, even if EFL is language-driven, the “content” used in these activities would still be significant and relevant for the learners. In other words, the content would no longer be a pretext subject to language. Moreover, T3 admitted the convenience of even involving the Spanish teacher. As we know, this proposal has been advocated (Pavón, 2014; Pavón & Pérez, 2018) in recent years and implemented in Andalusia as a means to make CLIL programmes more efficient. As for T6, he suggested a collaboration plan in which both content and language teachers would prepare the activities together. That is, this pedagogy would not be regarded as solely the EFL teacher’s responsibility, even if application takes place in the EFL classroom. On the contrary, it would be a dual process through which the content teacher would monitor the students’ progress and also contribute to the internalisation of the genre requirements. This perspective resonates with his statement for a teaching scenario in which content and language teachers could even be in the same classroom.

Extract 8.22. - Teacher 6

Preparación con nosotros o con el resto de profesores como hemos dicho, de Historia o Biología. Que ellos nos ayuden en los textos. Que ellos puedan ver el cambio de esos textos y ayudarles a interiorizar esos cambios que tienen que hacer.

Finally, only one of the participants delved into the **teacher's qualifications** in terms of the demands that teachers would face regarding their own profile, qualifications and skills. In spite of this being the only consideration of this kind, it is worth discussing it.

Extract 8.23. - Teacher 3

(T3 - En este instituto los profesores son muy jóvenes, ehh van muy preparados, hay mucha gente con dos carreras. O sea, aquí no creo que encontrase mucha resistencia esto. En un sitio de profesores menos preparados lo mismo es como: puff Es que esto exige que el profesor escriba muy bien en inglés y hay profesores que (.) me sorprendería (ríe).

R - Ya

T3 - Entonces entre un instituto con profesores activos pues yo creo que 'mira qué bien'. Yo que soy muy práctica quito de aquí y pongo aquí, no me voy a matar. Pero lo voy a meter en el aula, lo voy a quitar de aquí y esto es evidente que es necesario. Entonces también eso es una cosa que uno se puede encontrar.

R - Es una de las variables implícitas.

T3 - Uno de la vieja escuela pues no sé. Te puedes encontrar ahí de todo. Porque esto te exige. Tú tienes que tener muchos recursos para corregir writing bien de verdad tienes que escribir tú muy bien o haber escrito mucha escritura académica. Bueno, tampoco hace falta ser tan ambicioso. O sea, si ya les haces aplicar la formulita y aplicar el vocabulario ya tendrían (.) un nivel más decente. O sea que realmente, si está 'precocinado' para el profesor, pero te exige, estás ahí improvisando, escribiendo en tiempo real con ellos y yo tengo que ser capaz de decir lo mismo de tres formas distintas, tengo que pensar en tres conectores, tengo que darte tres opciones de vocabulario, si no, miran en el diccionario pero se tiran cuatro minutos para buscar una palabra. Tienes que tener tú soltura, ¿eh? En esto, en escritura académica.

R - Interesante lo que me cuentas.

Pues te puedes encontrar por ahí (.) (...) Supongo que entre los profesores que estén acreditados de bilingüe pues es un perfil más inquieto o más (.) Entonces ahí no habría mucha resistencia.

This extract, although lengthy, contains some relevant underlying implications. In her opinion, not all the EFL teachers' profiles would be valid for the implementation of this approach. Only "**active and prepared**" teachers would qualify. Firstly, "active" in the sense of willingness to embrace innovation (despite the additional effort it could entail). Secondly, "prepared" in terms of being in possession of appropriate academic skills. This seems to imply that not all the language teachers are "academic teachers" regarding the required writing skills, which seems to suggest that a special kind of LA would be needed. Being

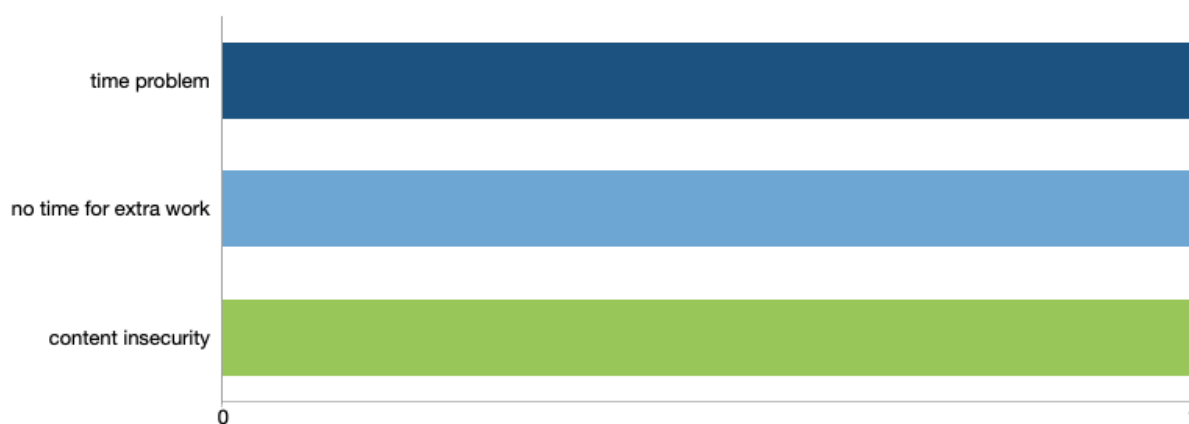
resourceful seems to fit in this category as well, since, in her words, EFL teachers would have to be prepared to offer alternatives (e.g. connectives, lexical choices, etc.) in situ. Another interesting implication concerns the teachers who are certified to teach the subject of “Advanced English”. She made a distinction between these teachers and other mainstream education practitioners. She thinks that the former would qualify perfectly. Interestingly, the reason she provided to justify this view was not only related to how proficient these teachers may be in terms of language, but the fact that they tend to be more intellectually curious.

8.3.2.2. Issues hindering its feasibility

While discussing the actual possibilities for the implementation of this pedagogical approach, two participants also mentioned some factors which may interfere with its feasibility.

Figure 49

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘issues hindering feasibility’



As mentioned above, some of the practitioners pointed at the amount of preparation and time it would demand, although they did not necessarily conceive it as a negative aspect. Only T1 and T5 did it.

Extract 8.24. - Teacher 1

Y también inconvenientes. El tiempo. Hacer un writing guiado bien hecho, pues me suponen unas cuantas clases. Que no sé hasta qué punto podemos ehh perder el tiempo, pero podemos invertir tres horas. Pues con lo apretado que vamos con el programa pues quizás los writings se harían sobre temas que el profesor en concreto controle muy bien. algo que al profesor le llame la atención y que sepa y controle. Si no controlo lo que voy a explicar, antes me lo

tengo que preparar yo. Entonces eso es un handicap. tenemos a los profesores aquí que nos pueden echar una mano. Y dos ehh a ver, es como todo, es tener ganas.

In this extract, she stated a correct application of the genre-based pedagogy would mean a substantial amount of time, which she explicitly conceptualised as a “handicap”. As she presented it, the reason for this **time problem** seems to lie in the fact that the curriculum is already quite dense. Moreover, she also suggested an additional difficulty, this time related to **content insecurity**, as she believes that EFL teachers would need to have certain knowledge of the topic covered in the writing activity. On the contrary, they would need even more preparation time so as to get familiar with the topic.

In the case of T5, extract 8.17. has already shown what it would entail for him in terms of preparation. Then, he added that he would currently **not have the time** to assume this **extra work**.

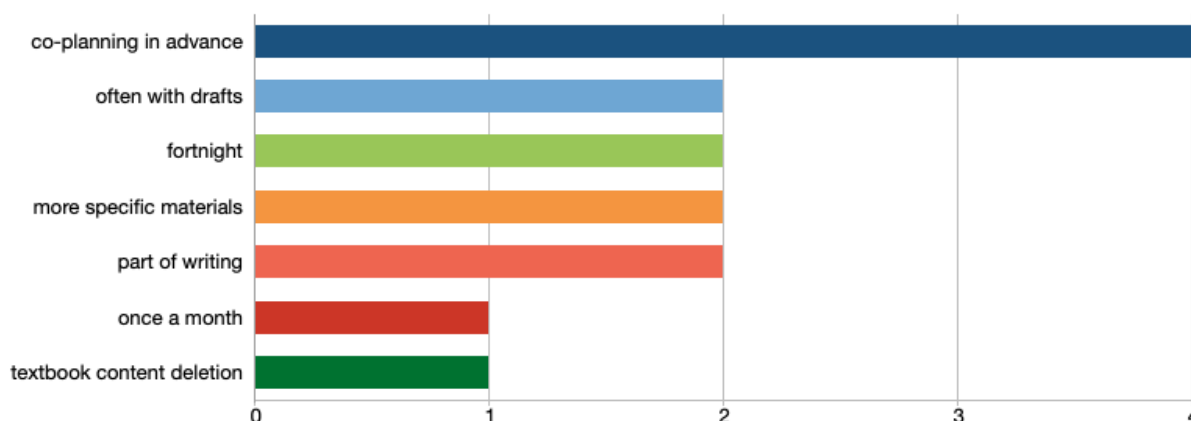
Finally, it is worth noting that, once again, T1 and T5 coincide in their views, so their perception of the lack of time may be influenced by their current position as head of the department and bilingual coordinator, due to the additional responsibilities that they share. Apart from these, no other teachers added additional obstacles for the implementation of the genre-based approach.

8.3.2.3. Proposals for its feasibility

During the intervention stage, it was observed how each teacher adapted the genre-based-learning pedagogy to their own teaching style. Similarly, they adopted different scaffolding strategies and made particular decisions about aspects such as students’ grouping. Thus, it is not surprising that one of the emerging themes precisely concerns their own individual proposals to enact and implement this pedagogy to the best of its possibilities. Let us then analyse those proposals and their recurrence.

Figure 50

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'proposals for feasibility'



First and foremost, as seen above, for some of the participants it would require collaboration with content teachers. Indeed, four of the participants' proposals (T1, T3, T5, T6) encompass **co-planning in advance**. In particular, T5 and T6 made more detailed suggestions, as the following extracts illustrate:

Extract 8.25. - Teacher 5

T5 - Pues trabajando mucho con los profes de la asignatura en concreto. Ver qué necesidades tiene específicas. Pues eso que te acabo de decir, por ejemplo. Y organizándolo. Más que nada hablándolo con los profes y ver qué necesidades tienen. Y ya está. Yo creo que ya estaría.

R - ¿Y cuándo lo harías? Porque luego volvemos el 1 de septiembre y de repente - pum. enseguida

T5 - Claro. Hombre, pues lo suyo sería eh... realizar un curso prueba por decirlo así y pues a partir de estas fechas, a partir de marzo, cerrar el tema para empezar el curso siguiente.

Extract 8.26. - Teacher 6

Hombre, nosotros podríamos utilizar en nuestras clases de inglés, ¿no? artículos que ellos vayan a utilizar en historia o darles textos científicos que vayan a utilizar en Biología, por ejemplo, o en Tecnología, para trabajar en clase. Y ellos también podrían hacer hincapié, ¿no? en las reglas gramaticales que nosotros muchas veces compartimos o nos preguntan 'oye, ¿esto lo podemos hacer? ¿esto cómo lo harías? O sea que sí que hubiese una coordinación entre nosotros, sí que podríamos compartir. Nosotros el contenido que ellos dan y ellos nuestras propuestas de vocabulario, gramática, sí.

R - ¿Y todas esas decisiones cuándo las tomarías?

T6 - Claro, es que esa coordinación yo creo que llevaría mucho tiempo. Lo que hemos dicho. Debería ser al principio (.) Claro, el primer año sería complicado. Sería una cosa que habría que trabajar. Pues como todo en la vida. Después de varios años habría un inicio, veríamos que es bueno dedicar ese tiempo en conjunto, veríamos al año siguiente que hemos fallado, podemos dedicar más tiempo, una segunda hora, a lo mejor en el tercer año crear grupos de coordinación entre las distintas asignaturas y que nos diera una hora para eso también. Luego crear a lo mejor pues algún desdoble en alguna clase y probar si funciona esa metodología. No va a ser de un año para otro, lógicamente. que ser un proceso, pero a la larga llegar a trabajar con proyectos, con metodologías no tan de memoria como hacemos ahora, sí.

These two proposals coincide in the need for working with content teachers in the planning stage. Teacher 5 explored the idea of initiating preparations in March to organise everything for the next school year, whereas T6 suggested doing so at the beginning of the year (September). In any case, the actual cooperation, activities, texts and objectives would be determined beforehand. The latter also outlined a progressive implementation plan in which the pedagogy would be piloted for a year with the aim of analysing potential errors, improvement on a second stage the subsequent year; and eventually, creating cooperation groups between content and language teachers. He even sketched an ultimate goal which would consist of a kind of interdisciplinary Project-based Learning (PBL).

Secondly, some of the proposals delved into the **frequency** with which they would enact practices framed within this pedagogy and how they would do it with regard to the current curriculum demands.

Extract 8.27. - Teacher 5

Según está estructurada la asignatura, sí, sería una cosa temporal. Más o menos como venimos haciendo hasta ahora. Una al mes. Dos o tres sesiones de 20 no estaría nada mal. Vamos, poco me parece.

This teacher suggested devoting time to this purpose **once a month**, although not correlating it with one session but with two or three short sessions of about twenty minutes. In his opinion, this is the lowest acceptable frequency, although the ideal situation would be to assign more time than this.

Extract 8.28. - Teacher 1

Se podría hacer eh... a lo mejor cada quince días ¿no? un texto de:: Historia, a otros quince días un texto de Biología, y a otros quince días un texto de Economía. ¿Por qué no? Un texto de TPR, sí, no no- tampoco le veo el problema, ni veo que sea perder el tiempo.

In this case, T1's proposal estimated a higher frequency, **once every two weeks**. Moreover, the alternation of genres is suggested according to the content subjects taught through English, in this case, History, Biology, Economy and Technology, which would result in practising a genre belonging to one specific discipline once every two months.

Extract 8.29. - Teacher 4

Yo pienso que:: es más interesante ir haciéndolo mezclándolo desde el principio hasta el final e ir tocando los diferentes temas con los diferentes tipos de textos. Por ejemplo, si al principio quieres trabajar el research paper, puedes hacer uno de tipo literario y uno de tipo científico. Es que realmente se pueden integrar y al final son muy parecidos (...) yo creo que en clase se pueden hacer pequeños fragmentos como los que hicimos también e integrarlo en el día a día. Pero cada X tiempo tendrían que entregar algo ya más sólido, algo ya más, un draft o algo (...) Uno cada 15 días sí que, uno cada 15-20 días como como poco. Más luego los pedacitos que tú puedas ir haciendo en clase. Porque luego tú puedes ir trabajando una introducción, una conclusión o tal. Y que luego ellos lo complementen.

This teacher also agrees that twice a month would be the ideal frequency. As can be observed, she visualised and outlined a potential procedure whose notion of school genres can be classified according to two big categories: Arts and Science. On each occasion, students would practise one genre belonging to one of the two areas. Consequently, they would be exposed to one genre which can be applied to the Science or Arts field once a month. Her proposal also encompassed a plan which could potentially address the recurrent lack of time for the teacher to mark so many writing activities. Such a project would involve working with short extracts, focusing on specific parts which would enable students to work with drafts which they could improve over time. This way, the product to be corrected by the teacher would be a very refined version.

Teacher 3 put forward some other additional suggestions:

Extract 8.30. - Teacher 3

Tendría que ver por qué lo sustituyo porque (.) eh hh puff bueno, lo haría más a menudo, no sé. (...) A ellos no les gusta escribir, para ellos es un dolor, se quejaban, es un esfuerzo, claro. Entonces lo haría desde principio de curso, eso sí. Que te vean cuando estás tú más seria y te toman más. Como ya crear una pauta para que digan que con este profe hay que escribir y ya está y no hay tu tía. Haría mucho en clase, haría mucho en clase, lo que te decía. Que yo no cogería esto hasta la tercera versión. Así con tu PPT y en la tercera versión ya empiezo yo a meter cosas y me hacen una cuarta corregida que les suba un punto. Entonces así, pocos textos, muchas versiones ,pero muy trabajados porque ellos (.) sí, la parte de causa y efecto, y las conexiones ¿qué conexión hay entre esta frase y esta otra? , ¿estoy añadiendo algo? Pues pongo un conector de añadir. O sea, eso no lo piensan mucho, van como lanzando frases. Menos algunos que son muy ordenados. ↑Pues no lo séEhhh sí desde el principio (.) PUes tendría que sustituir algunas cosas de aquí (coge el libro de texto) de este libro por esto (...) Tendría que ver pues donde dan la pasiva o cómo puedo conectar dónde dan alguna cosa de gramática que yo quiera aplicar al tema de la clase de Historia. Y luego tener unas plantillas como las que tú nos has dado y seguirlo.

This teacher coincided with her colleague in the proposal to work with genres often (she did not specify the exact frequency) but with **drafts**, so that the learners could progressively improve the writing prior to its submission for assessment. Because of the time constraints mentioned above, this extract also suggests that the inclusion of this to the curriculum would imply the deletion of something else. As concluded in chapter 6, she finds the curriculum rather condensed. It may be due to the relevance of this situation for her that she recapitulated this issue in the concluding remarks:

Extract 8.31. - Teacher 3

Y para hacerlo por libre, ya te digo, quito esto de aquí, pongo, tenemos libertad de cátedra, podemos hacer muchas cosas si cubres los contenidos mínimos (...) Porque los textos vienen en todas las secciones : un mail, una carta de queja, un no sé qué. Sea realmente si hiciéramos esto y además esto, estaríamos bastante, tendríamos que rebajar mucho las otras cosas. Pero vamos, sí que vale la pena. Un libro de ESP con pautas de escritura sería magnífico, y si no, el libro de ESP y esto aparte.

She insisted on the fact that teachers are allowed to make personal decisions and choices to a certain extent, as long as the basic contents are ensured. For that reason, she would have to confront the dilemma about whether to eliminate other types of writing

activities or to complement them. In any case, this extract shows her acknowledging the fact that implementing this approach would be at the cost of something else in the syllabus. Furthermore, in accordance with her previous suggestions, she concluded her remark putting forward an ESP approach focusing on academic writing (adapted to this level), as the way forward to integrate all the different aspects of the equation. To do so, more **specific materials** would be needed, a proposal also made by T4.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the idea proposed by T2, which could solve the dilemma posed by T3:

Extract 8.32. - Teacher 2

T2 - Añadiría, no sé cómo lo añadiría, pero intentaría que fuera parte de la unidad. Es decir, que fuera parte de las skills, sí.

R - O sea, dentro de la unidad como una skill más.

T2 - Como una skill más. O bueno, como una skill más dentro del writing, probablemente. Yo es como lo metería. Pero eso adaptándolo a mi asignatura.

According to him, it would be best to incorporate this genre-based pedagogy as **part** of the general practice of the **writing skill**. That is, it would be regarded as one of the areas of content⁷⁶ of the language subject but it would not replace them.

All in all, the main result in terms of feasibility would be the common belief that incorporating the genre-based approach is possible and doable. Although some natural modifications should have to be made to the syllabus, organisation or planning, none of these constitute major issues.

8.4. Results from the GenRe instrument

The GenRe instrument, as well as the original CoRe, was designed as an assisting tool which allows teachers to represent what they are going to teach and how they are going to deal with the content to enhance learning (Loughran et al., 2012). It was introduced in this study as a means of gaining some further insights into how the teachers under scrutiny would personally implement a genre-based pedagogy, drawing on the linguistic difficulties and scenarios posed by this pedagogy and any other particular feature surrounding the participants' workplaces and groups of students. As detailed in the methodological section (see 5.5.3.), this adaptation of the GenRe instrument does not attempt to ascertain teachers'

⁷⁶ Content understood as content, skills and procedures.

knowledge on content and/or on language, but on the teaching of subject-specific genres from a competence point of view. In Morton's words (2012), "it is quite a demanding instrument to use, as it focuses on issues that may be tacit knowledge for teachers, and which they may have never had to articulate before" (p. 124). For that reason, it was given to teachers some days prior to the intervention so that they could fill it in at their own pace, while they got acquainted with the genre-based pedagogy and put it into practice. Having finished the intervention phase, it was to be brought to the interview to comment on it. The ultimate goal was to find out about participants' opinions of the relevance and feasibility of this pedagogy, but this time giving them more space and time to reflect upon it in a context other than the interview. Consequently, this tool provides the means to triangulate and complement the interviews as far as RQ3 is concerned.

As stated in 5.5.3., the major categories which guided the analysis correspond to the different sections of the GenRe instrument. However, in the course of the analysis, three major themes emerged (see Appendix P for the compilation of codes derived from the analysis):

- Representation of goals and relevance of genre-based learning
- Linguistic and contextual factors and limitations
- Suggested teaching procedures

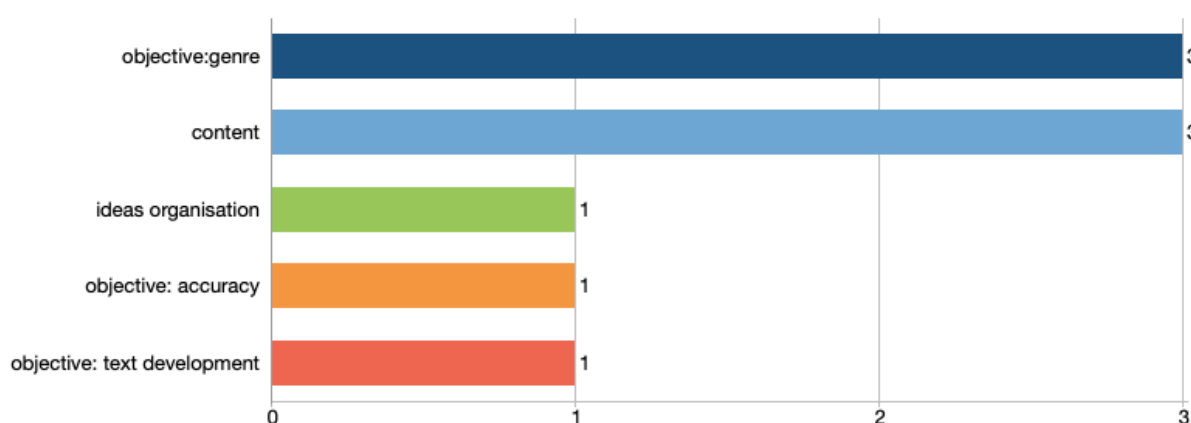
The following subsections will show the codes used during the analysis and the main results obtained.

8.4.1. Goals and relevance of genre-based learning

The first issue addressed in the GenRe instrument is related to the teachers' conceptualisation of what they are going to teach and why it is important for the students to know it. In this case, it is a skill that we are dealing with; therefore, the reasons why students should develop this competence.

Figure 51

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘goals of the genre-based approach’



The most relevant finding is that half the participants (T1, T3 and T5) associated the language which is learnt here with **content** of the discipline of History, attributing it to “Social Science vocabulary” because “it is essential in History” in the words of T1; or “because it is needed in other subjects, such as History”, according to T5. But many of the aims of genre-based learning are associated with linguistic aspects. For three of the teachers, the purpose is **genre compliance** (T2, T4, T5), **accuracy** (T3) or **text development** (T6). **ideas organisation**. Interestingly, T3 goes one step further and associates content and language, specifying that the use of the genres will help learners to organise (content) ideas. The following extracts taken from the instrument illustrate these points:

GenRe 1 - Teacher 2

I would like my students to be able to develop a text related to a specific content by using specific structures, expressions and tenses connected to a genre⁷⁷.

GenRe 2 - Teacher 3

How to organise their ideas, how to connect them, how to write for their subject exams, how to relate grammar to the goal of the text.

GenRe 3 - Teacher 4

The main goal is to make students aware of the difference between oral communication and written performance, and they learn the main strategies to create genre-based texts (...) Hence,

⁷⁷ The participants filled in this document in English.

they must learn to adapt their spontaneous oral speech and flow of thoughts to the conventions of structured and purpose-based texts by applying appropriate formats, register, language, etc.

GenRe 4 - Teacher 6

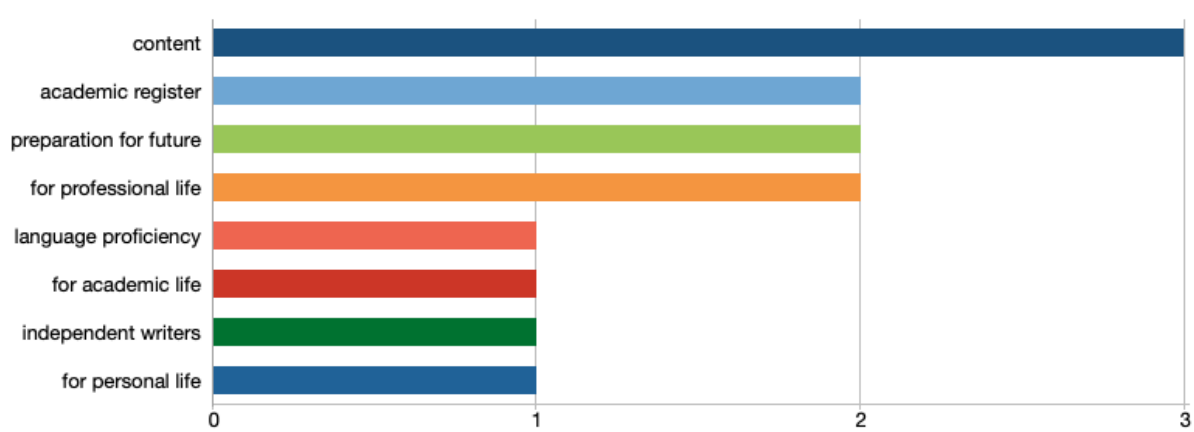
I would intend my students to learn how to develop a text without making important errors. Accuracy in the use of tenses, vocabulary and expressions would be of great importance.

The first teacher sets the goal of having students write in consonance to any distinct genre. Specifically, his words establish a connection between the type of text and the content. In the second case, the focus is on text organisation and transition between ideas, but again taking into account the subject content. In accordance with her previous statements, T3 highlighted here the objective of using grammar in context. In other words, for these two teachers the goal would be twofold: the development of the discourse competence, understood as the ability to combine form and meaning in a meaningful unit; and sociocultural competence, understood as the ability to adjust the language to any given social context, being both framed within the notion of communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). Such seems to be the view of T4, who also insisted on the differences between more “spontaneous” language and the adequacy to different types of texts according to specific conventions, taking into account field, tenor and mode. In other cases, such as the last extract, the objective is purely linguistic and focused on accuracy.

The participants also explore the relevance of genre-based learning in relation to the objectives which they had mentioned. Figure 52 shows the codes during the analysis.

Figure 52

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘relevance of genre-based learning’



Once again, T1, T3 and T5 related the relevance of teaching of this particular competence with the benefits it could have for the content discipline. It must be highlighted that half the participants mostly related the relevance of genre-based learning to their **professional life (T4, T6)**, their **academic life (T4)** and **personal life (T6)**, in **preparation for their future (T2, T4)** as adults. Therefore, students leaving Secondary Compulsory Education are expected to be in possession of enough linguistic resources so as to communicate in those spheres; which, according to T5, is related to the C1 level which learners leaving the “advanced English curriculum” are supposed to attain. For him, the genre-based approach used in their EFL classroom contributes to developing the necessary **language proficiency** that they will need. Let us see how T2 and T6, who also related this competence to the public and occupational domains, underlining the suitability of this approach in terms of preparation for their future professional lives:

GenRe 5 - Teacher 2

English is nowadays a Lingua Franca. It is spoken all over the world in fields like business, economics and many others. We want our students to get prepared for it.

GenRe 6 - Teacher 6

Written texts are really important when communicating with other people, institutions or enterprises. Students will use written texts in their personal and professional lives (...) It is spoken, used and understood by a lot of people and in many countries.

As can be observed, in both cases, the eventual goal seems to be intertwined with the current role of English as a Lingua Franca. Thus, attaining this discursive competence in different domains, and in the academic one, would not only benefit students in terms of their dealing with the content subjects, but also in terms of successful communication in the globalised society. Moreover, for T2, it would enable students to become **independent writers**.

Lastly, delving into the academic domain, T3 and T4 claimed that such approach is advantageous for developing **academic registers**:

GenRe 7 - Teacher 3

They need it for their exams. They are in their zone of comfort of “TV series English” and they need to be able to command a middle school level academic register.

GenRe 8 - Teacher 4

To my understanding, to know how to express properly in all kinds of contexts, both orally and in writing, is capital for a well-rounded adult. The sooner they develop their skills to read comprehensively and to manage writing standards, the more they will develop their potential as future learners and professionals. In my view, this should be one of the main pillars of young-adults' education.

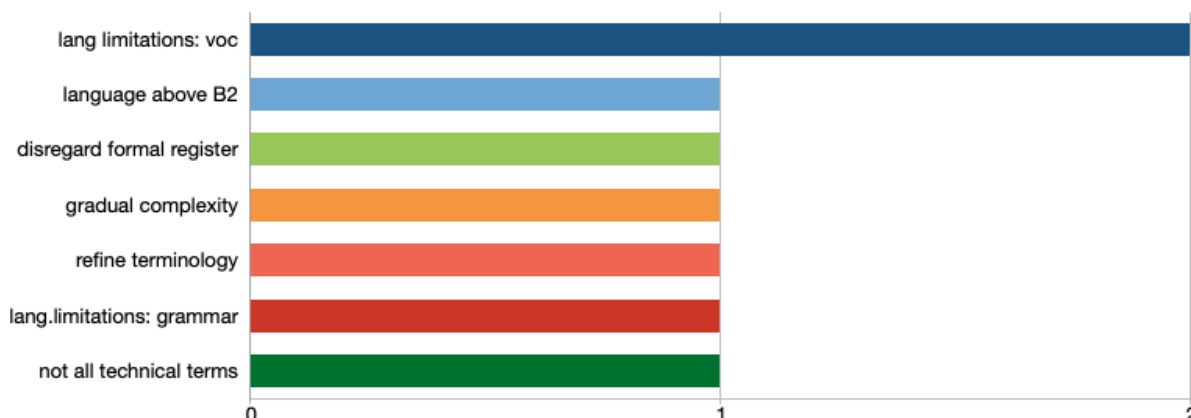
Here, T3 insisted on her perception that we should move beyond informal registers and attain the academic appropriateness expected of middle school students. As this last extract by T4 illustrates, she came back to the idea that writing adequacy is also decisive for their professional life.

8.4.2. Linguistic and contextual factors and limitations

At this stage, participants were asked about features which may influence or might interfere with the potential implementation of the genre-based approach. It must be taken into account that many of the items intended to refer mostly to purely linguistic factors, in contrast to those discussed in 8.3.2.1 and 8.3.2.2., which were related to contextual and organisational factors. However, and surprisingly, many of the answers did not strictly adhere to purely linguistic issues but other contextual factors in their representations of possible limitations. This main finding could suggest that the main difficulties when implementing this approach are not related to the language demands which it would pose but to other factors. Thus, two major themes emerged. On the one hand, factors and limitations related to linguistic issues; on the other hand, factors and limitations related to contextual situations.

Figure 53

Frequency and distribution of codes within 'linguistic factors and limitations'



In terms of other language requirements, the GenRe enquired about decisions concerning linguistic progression, that is, what language should be considered but may be more appropriate to introduce at later stages. Most of the participants agreed that it is important to adjust the level of lexis or cohesive devices to the linguistic level of the students. Teacher 3 highlighted the relevance of this **gradual complexity**, T6 would not use all the specific **technical terms** at this level whereas T2 made reference to how he would later revise written products to **refine terminology**. Teacher 5 would not use any **language above B2** level. The following extracts illustrate some of the stylistic features which they would not pay immediate attention to:

GenRe 9 - Teacher 2

Other nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs could be introduced later to make the text more complete.

GenRe 10 - Teacher 4

Aspects related to advanced cohesion and cohesive devices and lexical-semantic level, for example more academic expressions or verbs to describe processes.

GenRe 11 - Teacher 5

On this level, at the end of secondary education, a B2 standard level is required at the end of the school year. More sophisticated essays on different subjects will be dealt with in coming years, so use of more specific linkers, vocabulary or language style are not needed at this time.

These extracts serve as illustrations of how these teachers would accommodate the teaching of this competence to the current learners' level of competence, leaving aside other complex stylistic devices, at least momentarily. Teacher 3 provided an interesting reflection:

GenRe 12 - Teacher 3

I know it takes a long time and a lot of practice to acquire. It involves a command of connectors, knowing well the conventions of each genre they are going to use, and an interdisciplinary mind connecting grammar and syntax to the specific vocabulary acquired in the content class. It also involves other conventions of the academic genres, avoiding colloquialisms, changing the tone to a more impersonal tone, etc.

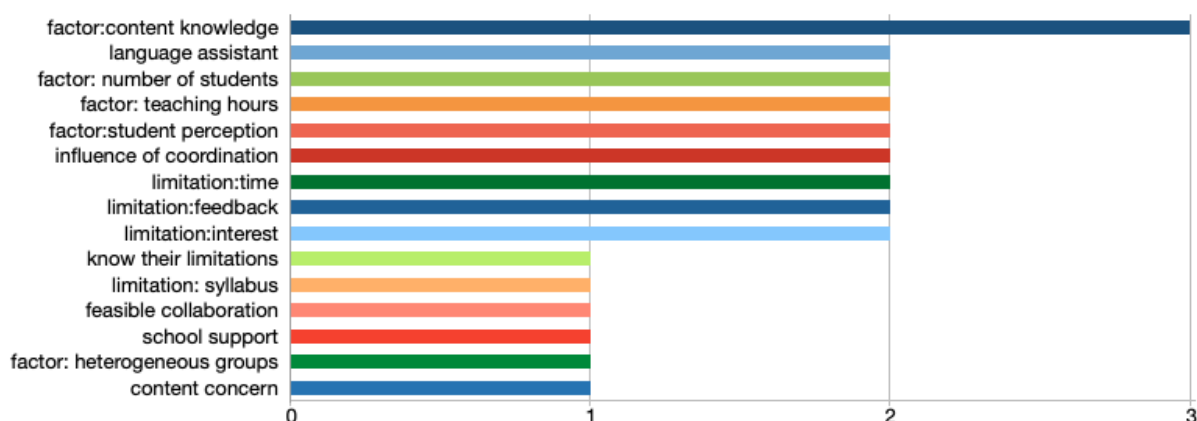
What can be observed here is acknowledgment of the difficulty to reach a good level of competence, mainly due to the multiple demands involved while accommodating discourse to specific genres; namely, linking words, specific conventions, formal registers or subject-specific vocabulary. Despite this demand, it did not represent a limitation for T3.

Nevertheless, other linguistic aspects were actually conceptualised as constraints. Once again, T1 stated that EFL teachers could have difficulties with both the **subject-specific vocabulary**. Teacher 2 agrees with his colleague and adds that the issue could also be in the use of **grammar**. For T3, another language-related limitation could be the students' disregard of formal registers. She kept her argument that learners consider that they already have a good level of English, so they fail to realise the importance of attaining formal registers (on the whole).

Figure 54 comprises the codes referring to the contextual factors which go beyond the classroom boundaries and which could have certain impact on decision-making regarding the practical implementation of the approach.

Figure 54

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘contextual factors and limitations’



One of the determining factors seems to be related to the students' previous **content knowledge** on the matter or **content concern**, referring to how determining it could be if the particular content has already been addressed in the non-linguistic area. This fact would definitely influence the implementation of genre-based pedagogies for T1, T2, T4 and T6. Nevertheless, there are contextual factors which teachers would take into consideration. For instance, **teacher coordination** (T1 and T3) and the amount of **teaching hours** (T5 and T6), as the following extracts illustrate:

GenRe 13 - Teacher 3

This school is open and interested in academic excellence so they would probably support this teaching. It might also be possible to get collaborators from the content subjects departments.

GenRe 14 - Teacher 5

We have one session a day, 5 days a week, which I find adequate. Having a language assistant in one or two of those lessons is also necessary.

According to T3, establishing some kind of **collaboration** with the content teachers in pursuit of better academic competence would be **feasible**. For both participants in school C, the number of teaching hours a week must be taken into consideration, but T5 finds the current distribution suitable for this enterprise. Apart from these suggestions, these two teachers would not only value the involvement of the content departments, but also the collaboration of the **language assistants**. For T3, another pillar would be the **school support** while something to take into account for T6 would be the **number of students** in the

classroom.

If we focus on limitations in particular, we can see that they are mainly related to timing issues in all of its dimensions. The limited **time** available was pointed out by T4 and T5, and by T6, who made reference to the **syllabus** which they have to comply with. This time constraint is associated by T3 and T4 with the process of giving **feedback**:

GenRe 15 - Teacher 3

Lots of correction for the teacher, which students tend to ignore just looking at their grades, so I would do activities in pairs or groups and present them in class, e.g. how to write the first paragraph of a historical account, or the conclusion.

GenRe 16 - Teacher 4

Secondly, the lack of time, they need constant individual feedback which is highly challenging for teachers since we have 32 students in class average. Finally, many students struggle really hard to find the way to express in their own language, no wonder in a second language.

In line with her interview's statements, T3 saw the amount of correction a hindering factor, pointing at the fact that learners tend to not pay attention to the feedback which could help them improve their future writing. For this reason, in this extract she reaffirmed the type of group activities that would contribute to reducing the workload as far as marking is concerned. Interestingly, this response is related to another limitation: the students' **lack of interest**, of great importance for T2 and T6. These practitioners acknowledged that one of the possible limitations could be the students' attitude towards writing itself, assuming that engaging learners in writing activities is more complex and even disappointing for teachers.

GenRe 17 - Teacher 6

Moreover, students are usually more interested in other skills such as listening or speaking (...) Some might not be interested in the task, the excessive number of students in the class, some might not understand the importance of managing written English.

Particularly, this extract also seems to suggest that it could be a matter of making pupils understand the actual relevance of writing correctly. In other words, making students aware of the pertinence of this skill could have some impact in the smoothness of the implementation of writing pedagogies. In fact, T5 and T6 stated in the interview that the

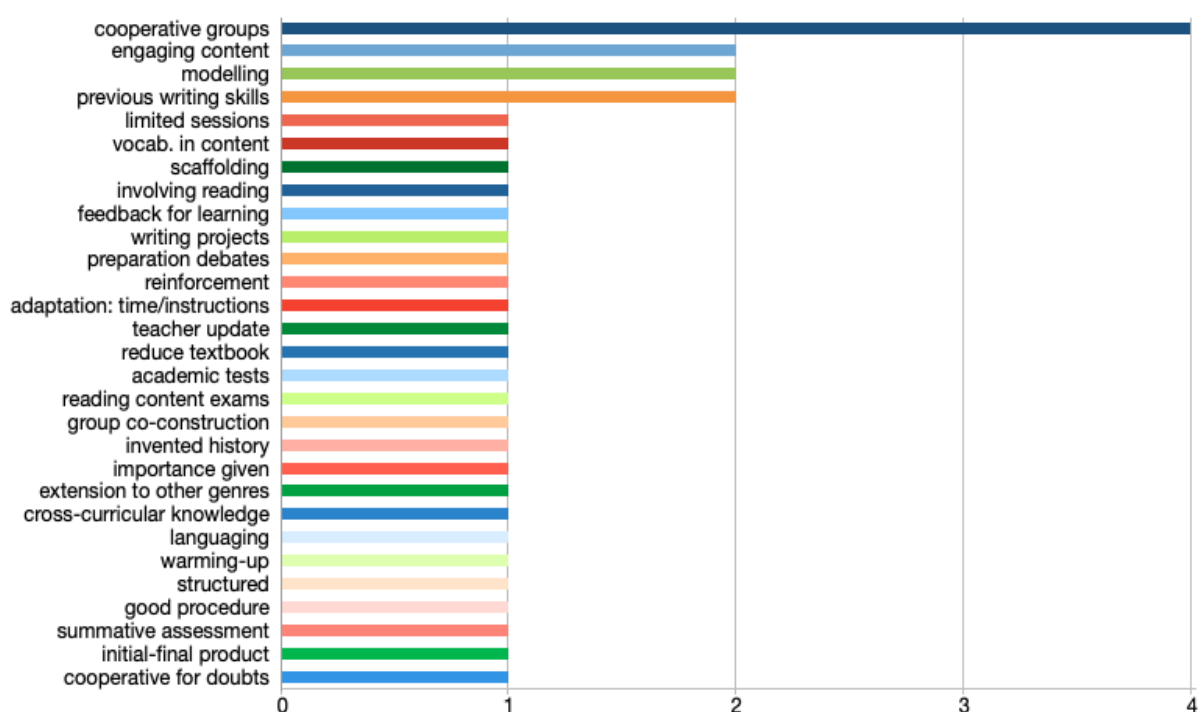
students had enjoyed taking part in the genre-based pedagogy. As seen above, for the participants at school C, the teaching of this competence would also be determined by the learners' current level, knowledge and skills. For T5, the existence of **heterogeneous groups** could potentially be a limiting factor, especially for those learners with lower levels.

8.4.3. Suggested teaching procedures

In the light of all these linguistic and contextual limitations and factors, the participants listed the teaching procedures which they would adopt when following a genre-based approach. These are personal initiatives and suggestions which, in their opinion and in consonance with their teaching style, would make the implementation of a genre-based approach more effective, as well as more engaging for the learners. Due to this “personal” nature, the responses were manifold, as can be observed in the list of codes:

Figure 55

Frequency and distribution of codes within ‘GenRe procedures’



Many of the participants (T1, T3, T4, T6) share the idea that putting genre-based learning into practice would involve **cooperative** (and collaborative) groups. More specifically, T1 pointed out that this can be helpful when solving **queries**. T3 stated that she would make more use of procedures such as the **group co-construction**, which was enacted

in stage 2 of the learning and teaching circle.

Another group of responses clearly referred to the use of **scaffolding** techniques as necessary procedures. For instance, T2 also would exploit one of the features already part of the intervention because it was a **good procedure**: its **structured** nature. In his opinion, this would progressively make learners independent writers. This teacher also suggested the use of **modelling**, a technique that T4 would also use but involving reading to provide learners with models:

GenRe 18 - Teacher 2

To make sure that the students use the language effectively, examples of works would be shown, as well as other examples given by the teacher himself, in which grammar and vocabulary needed for the development of the task would be explained.

GenRe 19 - Teacher 4

I believe reading is part and parcel of the writing process. These readings become the source and templates for their future assignments.

I also use diagrams and outlines to be filled with both sides or arguments or work out the structure of the text. In addition, students approach the different paragraphs separately. I usually start with body paragraphs, I provide them with opening statements and they have to write supporting sentences or the other way round. Once they understand how to build the body, we focus on the introductory paragraph (opening statement, background information and thesis statement) which for what I know it is usually the hardest for them since the conclusion is more intuitive and mirrors the introduction.

She discussed some of the scaffolding strategies which she utilises and would also work in this genre-based approach. In T4's opinion, involving reading would have the additional advantage of equipping learners with models which would serve as a reference and future inspiration. Modelling is a recurrent scaffolding strategy, which has also been listed as a recommended technique in CLIL (see Walki, 2006). This is also the case of the rest of the scaffolding techniques mentioned by T4, such as the use frames.

Other scaffolding-related techniques which were mentioned were **warming-up** to build on previous knowledge (T1) or even **adaptation of timing and instructions** (T6), also considering **previous writing skills** (T6).

Another dimension which emerged was feedback and assessment. For T4, it is essential to undertake constant **feedback for learning** purposes, including peer and group

assessment practices. Teacher 1 also judges relevant to include **formative assessment**. In contrast, T3 suggested readapting evaluation to have more **academic writing tests** in EFL which measure their subject-disciplinary language competence. In order to ascertain the students' understanding and progress, other proposals were to systematise the comparison between an **initial and a final product** of the same writing (T6) as it was done during the intervention or checking the impact of this approach by means of an **reading** and carrying out an analysis of the students' writing in their **content subjects' exams** (T3). Teacher 2 resorts to the notion of **linguaging** (Swain, 2006): if learners are able to verbalise knowledge according to the genre expectations, it would be an indicator of success.

To engage students, T3 talked about “**invented history**”, which would consist of mixing creative and academic writing, that is, fabricating fake historical facts. Teacher 6 would **limit** the number of **sessions** devoted and use interesting and relevant topics for the students. In this regard, T4 suggested making use of **preparation debates** and **writing projects**, aiming at fostering the ability to develop better arguments and reasoning skills. She advised choosing the writing topics carefully, taking into account what motivates them and using this opportunity to foster critical thinking as well.

GenRe 20 - Teacher 4

The contents should be diverse and students related, otherwise the genre-based approach could be a bit overwhelming. It is important to find topics that engage students' interest and connect those with the genre we are dealing with. For example, students tend to happily embrace assignments related to morally questionable and controversial issues such as death penalty, advertisement or models for the use of new technologies, alongside with anything connected to their role of young adults in society. They are also fond of anecdotes or curiosities related to science and literature. Additionally, writing tasks usually give them the chance to take a closer look at topics they cannot cope with in other subjects such as History or Economy, allowing them to widen their knowledge and raise critical thinking.

To conclude, there were other suggestions which cannot be subscribed to one particular domain but are equally worth of consideration. Teacher 3, for instance, would reduce the use of the textbook, although it could result in families complaining about paying for a textbook which would not be used. She also added that other procedures would involve the **teacher**, who would have to be **updated** in terms of academic competence and genre conventions. Teacher 6 would especially **reinforce** grammar and expressions applicable to

the specific genre. Drawing on the assumption that collaboration with content teachers would be essential, T5 suggested analysing what students are able to do before initiating this process also involves resorting to examine it from the perspective of the content subject. Then, he would separate the teaching of subject-specific **vocabulary**, which should be the responsibility of the **content teacher**, so that the language teacher could focus on “language use” issues. In his view, this organisation would allow them to coordinate a final task.

8.5. Discussion and synthesis of the findings

This final section will contrast the results obtained from the post-intervention section of the interview and the GenRe instrument, aiming at obtaining a better triangulation of the data and complementing the findings. First of all, the results reported in the previous chapter have shown that the teaching of CALP is of utmost importance for most of the participants. Once this has been assumed as their responsibility, the findings reveal that they find the genre-based pedagogy useful for this enterprise.

After the intervention experience, the participants’ view is positive in all cases. Their perspective regarding the genre-based approach is that it is **useful**, **necessary** and **advantageous** at different levels.

It must be noted that, although all the participants reported finding the genre-based pedagogy relevant, they underlined mostly **linguistic reasons** over content reasons in both sets of data. That is, even if they are aware that this would have a positive impact on the non-linguistic subject performance as well, our participants keep prioritising language over content. On the bright side, their representation of “linguistic reasons” which make this approach beneficial comprise areas such as “genre adequacy” or “academic purposes”; that is, attaining a discursive competence in different domains. This is also reflected in the intervention; although four of the participants explicitly link the relevance of the genre they are learning to the discipline of History, they relate its purpose to ‘writing’.

Although the participants adapted the Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC) to their own personal teaching styles, all of them had something in common. They made use of a variety of teaching strategies but with a shared common goal: the **explicit attention to form**. This could be an indicator of the usefulness of this approach as a counterbalanced approach (Lyster, 2007).

Its potential for implementation has been explored both in the interviews, in which varied themes emerged, and in the GenRe instrument, which allowed us to examine its feasibility in terms of more specific aspects.

Regarding the advantages which make the genre-based approach applicable to their context, the participants have highlighted the scaffolding procedures, a different approach to text which favours a contextualised grammar treatment or usefulness for school genre and register adequacy. Hence, these results confirm that this approach could provide the **linguistic scaffolding for genre and register** decoding (Gierlinger, 2017) challenging the traditional grammar pathway (Coyle, 2015) for the benefit of textual skills enhancement (Halbach, 2018). The GenRe instrument has also revealed that the benefits have to do with the tools this approach provides for the future life of learners in different dimensions. These aspects are associated with the different domains appearing in the LOMCE curriculum, which draw on those determined by the CEFR. These domains are the following: personal, public, educational or academic, occupational or professional fields (BOE, 2015, p.422).

One of the main findings is that these EFL teachers do find the genre-based approach **feasible** to implement, although under **certain conditions**. Even T5, despite his apparent resistance to change discussed in the previous chapter, has shown sincere enthusiasm towards the potential of a genre-based approach, which could suggest that, with proper guidance and support, such initial opposition could be overcome, as Banegas (2019) and Meskill and Oliveira (2019) suggest. Interestingly, in broader terms the participants appear to associate linguistic factors with “conditions”; that is, aspects which they would need to take into account, whereas they tend to conceptualise the extra-linguistic factors as “limitations”. For example, some participants mentioned that they would have to take into account the current level of students and leave some subject-specific vocabulary and stylistic features for later in the educational ladder. In other words, they would adapt the genre and register requirements to make it suitable for the language of schooling (Beacco et al., 2010) at this level of Secondary Education.

As for the non-linguistic factors, the interview findings were confirmed by the GenRe instrument, particularly when it comes to two aspects. On the one hand, the collaboration and coordination between content and language teachers that this approach would require. On the other hand, time, a recurrent issue affecting their teaching, is mentioned again as an influencing factor. However, ‘time’ is not particularly conceptualised as something negative. These teachers believe that it could demand more preparation time at the beginning, but once used to it, it would not require more planning time than a regular lesson.

This instrument has also revealed the consistency in teachers' responses in some cases; for instance, T1, who restates that the lack of content knowledge could be a potential drawback for EFL teachers; or T2, who insists on the effect of students' attitude. In other cases, the GenRe revealed **more constraints** than what was exposed during the interviews. For example, the fact that the students' level or previous knowledge must be taken into consideration. However, it should be noted that the participants think of these as factors which would influence the implementation of genre-based learning, and not so much as impediments.

It can also be observed that the proposals for implementation were more generic in the interviews, whereas more **specific suggestions** for the classroom were provided in the GenRe instrument. Here, many ideas were put forward, in many cases referring to methodological decisions and students' grouping, such as working with multiple drafts, as suggested elsewhere (Coyle et al., 2018; Meyer, 2016). A very interesting illustration is collaborative and cooperative work, which the majority of the participants refer to as a profitable initiative to be embedded within genre-based pedagogies. For T3, implementing this approach in combination with groupwork is also beneficial to counter the amount of correction and feedback that teachers would have to assume otherwise. Abundant were also the ideas concerned with scaffolding techniques such as modelling and bridging (see Walki, 2006) or the use of frames, which make an excellent resource to help students develop subject-based writing skills (Lewis & Wray, 1998). This view complies with constructivist models and learning theories, which advocate the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1985), by which learners need this scaffolded support until they are able to, in this case, write independently. This proposal, combined with a systematic implementation of the pedagogical intervention suggested in this study, would respond to the CLIL demands which claim for "an approach which provides subject-specific scaffolding for writing, over a period dictated by the writing support needs of learners studying through an L2 (Ball et al., 2015, p. 159). In any case, what all of these ideas reveal is that EFL teachers, as language specialists, can have much to say and contribute to in the CLIL setting.

8.7. Chapter summary

This chapter has detailed the results obtained from exploring the possibilities of implementation of CLIL-oriented genre-based pedagogies in the EFL subject. Section 8.2. has presented the main observations regarding the genre-based pedagogy put into practice by

the participants. Next, through the analysis of the interviews and the GenRe instrument, sections 8.4. and 8.5. have shown that our participants see the implementation of genre-pedagogies as beneficial and feasible, adding some personal suggestions and thoughts about possible requirements or limitations. These reflections offer valuable information which must be taken into consideration for further investigation.

9. Moving ahead: pedagogical implications and future directions for the EFL profession

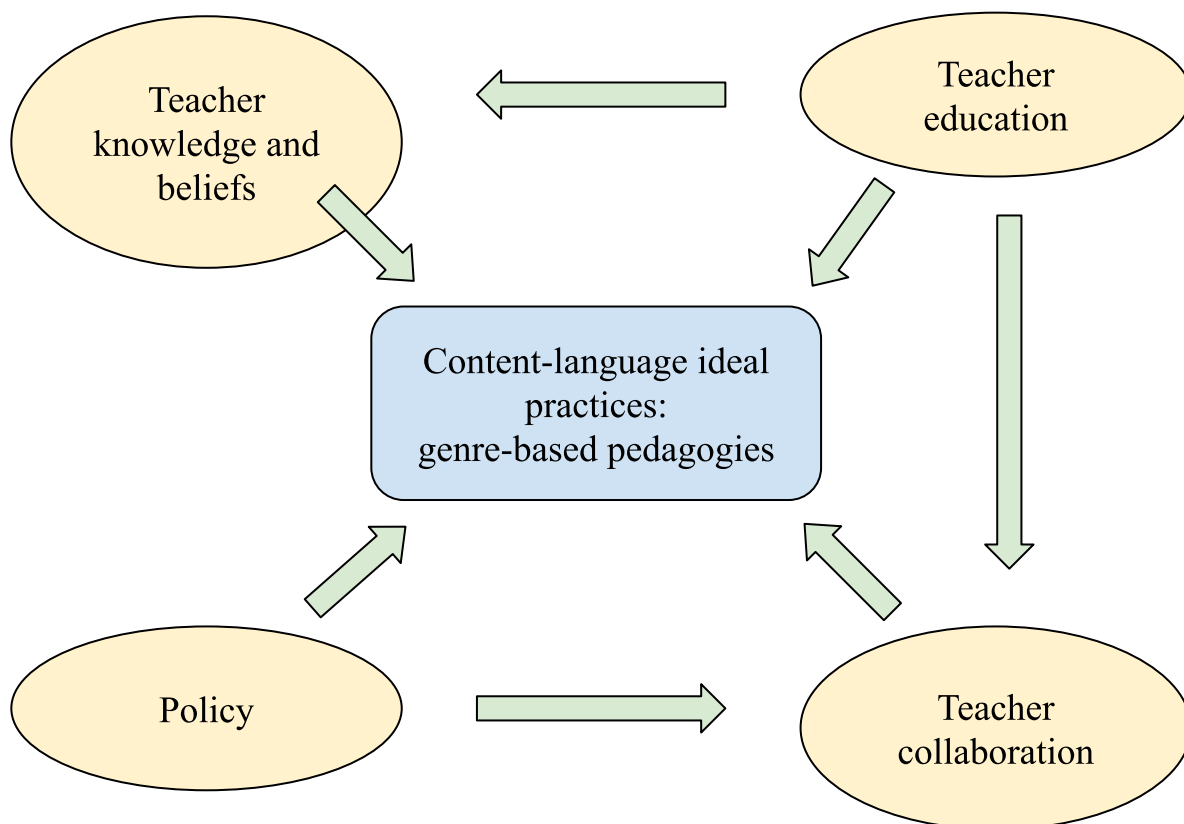
9.1. Introduction

Having explored in the three previous chapters the reshaping of the EFL teachers' roles which has gradually taken place, the teachers' own beliefs about their ideal role in CLIL and the potential of genre-based pedagogies as the way forward, this chapter discusses how the three perspectives examined in this dissertation are related. This will allow us to reflect on the main implications that emerge from this study and to get a better understanding of the way forward for EFL teachers.

Figure 56 shows how the different variables involved relate to each other to shape desired practices such as genre-based pedagogy, implemented by EFL teachers, as a feasible initiative to enhance effective content-language integration and learning.

Figure 56

Interplay of elements influencing new roles and practices in the EFL profession



Note: author's own elaboration

Figure 56 shows that genre-based pedagogies can become an effective tool to materialise the involvement of EFL teachers, but they will be a reality only if certain conditions are met. These practices need to become institutionalised in the policy and articulated by means of content-language teacher collaboration, which also needs more organisational support. Tailored teacher education will also be essential for this enterprise, which cannot be undertaken without considering the variables of knowledge and beliefs (teacher cognition).

Undoubtedly, any further transformation of their role to attained ideal practices must be accompanied by supporting actions which take into account teachers' knowledge, beliefs and assumptions as well as their particular needs. This takes us to explore some pedagogical implications which derive from the findings presented in this dissertation.

9.2. Implications and future directions for policy and curriculum developers

From the policy perspective, several aspects should be considered. The analysis of the curriculum and syllabi has revealed differences in their implementation, especially in the case of the state-subsidiary school. Even in the state schools, teachers understand and treat literature or textual genres differently. It is for this reason that some mechanisms should be envisaged to ensure that the new curricular directions are embraced by all CLIL schools in Secondary Education. To do so, it would be advisable for curriculum and syllabi documents to include more **specific guidelines when it comes to the new teaching roles**. The current documents fail to provide language teachers with more concrete support and specifications, which are restricted to a few superficial orientations. Teachers cannot be simply told that their subject is the space to provide the linguistic support that pupils need to face CLIL subjects successfully, because it can result in a myriad of personal interpretations and diverse classroom practices. Thus, the new “advanced English curriculum” or any other new guideline should not be limited to a few lines on paper but accompanied by a series of actions which support teachers in the transformation of their professional role.

This study’s insights into the daily work of EFL teachers have revealed that some of the **occurring transformations are getting ahead despite little policy modifications**. Our participants have reported that the new scenario has pushed them to find new methodological alternatives or look for and create new materials for the classroom. When it comes to learners’ motivation, some teachers have complained that, precisely because of their higher level and greater exposure to English, Secondary students are **losing interest in the subject** itself (rather than in the language), increasing thus the difficulty for teachers to motivate them. This serves as another illustration of how teacher roles, responsibilities and daily work have evolved faster than policy.

For all these reasons, the voices of practitioners should be heard in any development of further official regulations. So far, **many of the new responsibilities** embraced by EFL teachers **have emerged in an informal and bottom-up** way, a tendency reported by previous research (see Julián & Fonseca, 2017, for a complete account) and confirmed by this study. For instance, if we analyse the specific case of teacher collaboration, our participants have shown willingness to cooperate but have also listed some challenges such as the lack of time to meet with content teachers. However positive the personal initiatives reported by our

participants may be in the sense that they “recompense for policy weaknesses” (Creese, 2005, p.45), it is time for more stable top-down prescriptions. Therefore, another important implication is the need for **more institutional support**, starting from the school management level. Implementing a CLIL programme transforms the entire educational setting, so schedules should be designed in such a way that they explicitly allocate time slots for content and language teachers to meet and work together. It may be the case that management teams lack enough information about CLIL and need further support from above in terms of human or economic resources. In short, and following Talbot et al.’s (2021) recommendation, policy makers should offer teachers clearer guidelines and establish clear expectations in order to support them in their new professional roles, in combination with respect towards their autonomy. Taking into consideration teachers’ views and experiences is understood here as part of such autonomy.

Engaging EFL teachers more actively should be a point of departure. That is, “making language teachers active participants, collaborative designers and change agents” (San Isidro, 2020, p.149) in the syllabus design in CLIL Secondary settings by involving them in the analysis and planning of common language objectives across subjects and, subsequently, development of subject-specific literacies. The present study has corroborated that EFL teachers do not participate in such design, which is almost non-existent. In this sense, Madrid Region could benefit from the experiences of other regions such as Andalusia and their “Languages across the curriculum” project, or the results reported by San Isidro and Lasagabaster in their Galician longitudinal study (see San Isidro and Lasagabaster, 2020). Indeed, a type of Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) or Pluriliteracies approach could become the way forward in the final reconciliation of content and language subjects and teachers. To do so, the urgent need is to map the language needs across horizontal and vertical levels (Lin, 2016, p.77).

Regarding curriculum design and development, the “advanced English curriculum” has been clearly modified in the right direction. However, it is still insufficient, particularly when defining what “the type of language that EFL teachers need to support” really means. Our participants have explored some of the deficiencies which they perceive and some proposals for modifications. As some aspects seem to be obsolete but coexist with a dense curriculum, one possible recommendation is to make room for more relevant content, particularly for CLIL contexts. In order to do so, curriculum developers should consider, once again, the insufficient time reported by teachers like our participants. Additions to the existing curricular contents should not imply further workload and responsibilities. At least,

processes like these should take into account the participants' voices and support them. Only in this way can we guarantee the desired impact and that teachers welcome this type of transformation.

One question which arises is whether these language teachers would feel equally comfortable if the content introduced in their subjects were more Science-oriented, and not only disciplines more related with Arts and Social Science. This issue, also brought up during the interviews, could pose an obstacle for language teachers (Cummins and Lyster, 2016).

Curricula documents tend to introduce certain core pedagogies which are expected to be endorsed in the classroom. Therefore, it follows that the EFL curriculum for CLIL settings should incorporate clearer guidelines in this regard as well. Our participants' statements and the analysis of the curriculum have revealed that current directions are insufficient and that, on many occasions, **teachers are left alone in finding suitable materials or motivating methodologies** which engage students, who, according to some of our participants, have lost interest in the EFL subject. Against this backdrop, any further curricular reform could incorporate the proposals of Leaton-Gray et al. (2018), who suggest establishing clear pedagogies which make language expectations explicit and visible, favouring supportive and engaging learning environments (see p.53).

For future curricular reforms, the new CEFR can-do **academic descriptors** (see Shaw, 2020) may provide valuable support for both language and content teachers, as they could be incorporated into the curriculum as assessment criteria and learning standards functioning as benchmarks. Ideally, language and content teachers should be familiar with them, understanding such criteria as something that transcend the barriers of each independent subject and which can only be met through collaborative practices. Initiatives like this could become part of EFL teachers' new professional role. More specific ideas in this regard will be explored in 8.2.4., which will focus on genre-based pedagogies.

The ideal eventual implication for policy and curricular reform would be the articulation of an **integrated curriculum**. Through institutionalised mechanisms of collaboration, the cross-curricular and subject-disciplinary literacy requirements which the language(s) teachers have contributed to identify can be made explicit in any planning template which can be shared by all the teachers. Models such as the CDFs construct (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016) or the Pluriliteracies approach (Coyle et al., 2020; Meyer et al., 2015) could be considered for the layout of these templates, so as to be updated and aligned with the latest research and CLIL conceptualisation. Close or similar topics across subjects could be synchronised so that different school genres could be addressed concurrently in

content and language subjects. If necessary, a new structure for the school year organisation could be envisaged. Both participants at school A have suggested one possibility to do so; namely, using historical time period as the criterion to organise the division of school terms organisation. In doing so, opportunities would open up to design what Lin (2016) calls “a curriculum spiral to reinforce and consolidate different kinds of language functions, genres and academic vocabulary in the different academic subject curriculums as well as the language curriculums at the same year level and across different year levels” (p.85).

To end this section, it must be highlighted that the results of our research indicate that some of these transformations have been initiated somehow, but the new teacher role and curricular reforms need to be systematised and institutionalised in any further policy modification.

9.3. Implications and future directions for teacher education

Any curricular reform or policy modification should be accompanied by proper teacher education. For EFL teachers to undertake any new duty or responsibility such as the identification or establishment of language curricular demands, it seems reasonable to provide them with enough **information about the role of language(s) in CLIL** beforehand. In other words, a misconception about the role of language(s) could have a negative impact on everything else, including on their own teacher role. It goes without saying that EFL teachers are not expected to be fully knowledgeable about all the linguistic specificities of subject-disciplinary literacies prior to their first contact with CLIL programmes, but their existent linguistic expertise, sensitivity and awareness may be complemented with some specific knowledge and training so that they, in turn, become more aware of the language functions, genres and discourse of the school disciplines taught through the foreign language.

As De Costa and Norton (2017) summarise, “language teaching is enhanced by effective teacher training, both inservice and preservice” (p.11). For this reason, no longer should any teacher education programme on CLIL disregard language teachers as a potential target audience. In the last years, CLIL modules have been implemented in numerous Degrees in Teaching and even new Master’s degrees have been designed, but mostly addressed at Primary Education. Pre-service teacher education for Secondary Education teachers (both content and language) is nevertheless still limited. This constitutes another reason why in-service education becomes even more important. So, new MA programmes with a specific focus on CLIL in Secondary settings need to be designed and implemented.

Nonetheless, EFL practitioners would also benefit from **training in other areas beyond language**. The results of this study suggest that EFL teachers need more shared knowledge about the basics of CLIL, its principles and benefits. To complement their knowledge about the place of language in the curriculum, they would benefit from information about the latest models that can be implemented collaboratively. Moreover, although our participants comply with the principles of communicative approaches, some of them have reported the still significant presence of structuralist approaches, particularly in grammar treatment. Hence, revisiting **theoretical models such as Systemic Functional Linguistics** may be helpful for EFL teachers inasmuch it provides an umbrella and practical applications for CLIL settings (see 4.4.1). The participants' experiences have also evinced the need for a methodological transformation in the field, which has fallen on the teachers' initiatives on many occasions. Therefore, it is advisable to support language teachers with **education on methodological alternatives and pedagogies** (e.g. genre-based learning) which specifically serve the needs and purposes of CLIL and for which the EFL subject must develop desired practices accordingly.

This type of training could make use of resources like **planning tools, templates or rubrics** which follow any of the recent models for CLIL. EFL teachers could work together with content teachers to not only identify the language demands of each of the CLIL subjects, but also to plan for classroom tasks and projects. Some instances of activities which could be developed in these teacher education sessions are: brainstorming of the most common linguistic structures in each discipline, language audits, finding classroom or textbook tasks and identification of the linguistic and cognitive demands, etc. In absence of an official CLIL curriculum, a very valuable group dynamic is to select learning standards from the state or regional curriculum, identify the linguistic and cognitive demands and design a task, activity or project which meets those demands. On many occasions, those cognitive requirements and associated linguistic functions which learners need to participate in learning activities are already given (in Spanish) in the list of assessment criteria and learning standards for each of the disciplines. For instance, one criterion and associated learning standard in the 4th ESO curriculum of Biology and Geology are the following:

Assessment criterion: Contrastar argumentos a favor de la recogida selectiva de residuos y su repercusión a nivel familiar y social.

Learning standard: Argumenta los pros y los contras del reciclaje y de la reutilización de recursos materiales (BOCM, 2015, p.42).⁷⁸

In this case, the language teacher can identify and establish the appropriate linguistic resources which enable students to offer arguments for and against. Those linguistic tools should also be suitable in terms of register adequacy. Moreover, for a more profound and long-lasting effect on learning, the language teachers could plan for parallel tasks which put into practice expressions to give opinion or to support arguments. Language functions such as arguing for and against an issue are common to most of the disciplines at this educational level, so teachers of various content subjects could be part of the same group of work during these teacher education sessions. As there seems to be a clear consensus that language and cognition are not disconnected, when designing tasks aiming at meeting the above-mentioned learning standard, teachers should take into consideration that arguing is to be classified as a Higher Order Thinking Skill (Anderson et al., 2001), so the linguistic demands must be placed accordingly.

Such teacher education may take diverse forms, ranging from more **formal courses or lectures, to seminars, workshops or time and exchanges abroad**. Even **small-scale collaboration projects** can be implemented, followed by sessions in which the participating teachers can share their impressions or reflect on further improvement. In short, any action to accompany the process of transformation affecting CLIL Secondary settings and teaching roles will be welcomed in pursuit of a gradual improvement and effectiveness of CLIL programmes. In that sense, more discussion between researchers and practitioners may also be beneficial to that end, as has been claimed for CLIL settings: “University and school partnership for in-service CLIL teacher training should be strengthened and made available to teachers regardless of work experience” (Pappa, 2021, p.28). To do so, seminars or teacher development days could be organised so that practitioners can receive further support in the development of their professional role. As mentioned above, the positive experiences reported by San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2020) in the longitudinal study that accompanied their teacher education project in Galicia may be replicated in other settings like Madrid. Workshops and seminars like these could serve as a space for negotiation in which content and language teachers can discuss, reflect and plan for cognitive and linguistic progression, develop appropriate assessment criteria and learning standards, etc. Some universities, such as the UCM and its INTER-COM project have already tailored initiatives which involve the

⁷⁸ Contrast arguments for and against the selected waste collection and its impact on social and family. life/Offer arguments for and against recycling and the reuse of material resources.

collaboration of content and language teachers in higher education and which could provide Secondary education with some inspiration. Such is the case of the UPV/EHU⁷⁹, which has developed a team-teaching project involving needs analysis, seminar and discussion groups, or analysis of written tasks, among others, in order to improve and enhance learning outcomes. The result has even been a booklet with materials for students (see Lasagabaster et al., 2021). Moreover, if the establishment of specific in-service education guided by researchers were established, these spaces could also provide valuable data to monitor and gain insights into teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge about the role of language in contexts of integration and about their own responsibilities, practices and identities.

Moreover, our participants have shown their concern about how their pupils' lack of linguistic adequacy to various genres and registers is not limited to their foreign language, but it affects **their competence in their L1** as well. Thus, any teacher education initiative should involve L1 teachers, in this case Spanish, to make them aware of the relevant place of language (in general) in the curriculum. Going back to the example used above, learning to provide arguments for and against again is also part of the curriculum of the L1. Thus, having teachers of Spanish take part in these sessions so that certain consensus can be reached in terms of focus, methodologies or types of tasks (e.g. debates, writing argumentative texts, etc.) may be beneficial inasmuch pupils will develop the transferrable competence to argue properly in any of the school languages.

Undoubtedly, organising this kind of teacher education sessions requires much negotiation and conversation. According to Sasajima (2015), the **school culture and relations among teachers** must be considered beforehand, as it may affect the teachers' perception of their own identity, also when discussing their roles during those sessions. That is one of the reasons why all this professional transformation undergone by EFL teachers cannot overlook the impact on teacher cognition, for which some other implications emerge and will be outlined next.

9.4. Implications and future directions for the inclusion of teacher cognition

One of the main findings of this dissertation is that the role of EFL teachers in CLIL Secondary settings is undergoing a transformation. Nonetheless, such transformation is one step ahead of policy itself. Thus, without proper institutional support, much of the teachers'

⁷⁹ University of the Basque Country/Universidad del País Vasco/ Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea.

practices will be contingent on their own personal initiatives, knowledge or assumptions. It is for this reason that their teacher's cognition cannot be overlooked in all this pedagogical transformation. The insights into our participants' teacher cognition have corroborated that future research and implementation of CLIL programmes cannot disregard the relevance of this variable, also in the case of language teachers. Regarding the scope of teacher knowledge and, more specifically the category of PCK, the previous section has already outlined the direction in which this aspect needs to be revisited in the particular case of EFL teachers working in CLIL Secondary settings, realised and reinforced by means of teacher education. At the end of the day, language teachers must be in possession of solid knowledge of their own subject, prior to any curriculum negotiation with content teachers (Arkoudis, 2006, p.416-417).

But much of the focus of the necessary teacher education will be on aspects having a certain impact on teacher beliefs and assumptions. Two important implications emerge from this. On the one hand, it is accepted that **teacher beliefs are dynamic** and can evolve over time (Pajares, 1992), shaped by numerous factors (Borg, 2003, Kubanyiova, 2014), among which we can find in-service teacher education. Davidson (2006), Sasajima (2013, 2015) or Banegas (2019) have all proved how teacher education can reshape teachers' beliefs, assumptions (e.g. on the role of language) or even identity, so **any teacher education programme should take this into account and the evolution of those beliefs could be monitored by research**. It will be necessary to investigate the interaction between the contextual factors in CLIL Secondary settings and the potential **EFL teacher identity tensions**. For example, the curricular pressures, workload or time constraints mentioned by some of our participants may be preventing them from enacting practices (e.g. collaboration with content teachers, cross-curricular projects, etc.) which are inconsistent with their beliefs and affecting the whole effectiveness of CLIL. Another illustration of the relevance of teacher cognition can be found in the new demands, expectations and profiles of CLIL Secondary EFL learners, which may be posing an identity crisis on our language teachers. These are a couple of examples taken from the findings of this study but they evince the profound implications and impact of these factors.

On the other hand, it is precisely because of the delicate nature of teacher beliefs and identity that such issue must be addressed carefully in teacher education. That is another reason why EFL teachers must be given a voice and take a more active role in all this transformation. Talbot and Gruber (2021) insist that teachers working in Integrated Content and Language (ICL) approaches are pushed out of their comfort zone because of their wider

responsibilities and roles (p.6). This study has shown that EFL teachers are also positioned in a similar situation, **outside their comfort zone**. Moreover, the general decline of students' appreciation of English as a subject itself seems to be causing certain discomfort and the rethinking of values and teaching practices which, in turn, can have an effect on teacher identity. In this regard and for future considerations, teacher education programmes must pay due attention to experienced in-service teachers since they find themselves questioning long-established practices and beliefs (Dafouz, 2021).

In scenarios of innovation and curricular reform like the one depicted here, it may be advantageous to **examine the core and peripheral set of beliefs**, as well as potential **resistance to change**. As Pajares (1992) argued, core beliefs are rather static, whereas the peripheral ones can evolve over time. Following this assumption, the principles of communicative approaches seem to be the dominant core beliefs among EFL teachers. Although these beliefs are compatible with CLIL tenets; it might be necessary to monitor the extent to which EFL teachers are adaptable to mould their peripheral beliefs to fully reconcile with CLIL and what is expected of them in these settings. In accordance with Borg's (2008) view, teachers will be willing to accept any form of innovation provided that it complies with their practices and beliefs. Despite the divergence of beliefs in some particular topics, this study has found no resistance among participants to assume their new roles and to accept the genre-based learning proposal with enthusiasm. Thus, the main implication is that, with adequate education and support, these EFL teachers will undoubtedly favour ideal practices for the optimal effectiveness of CLIL programmes. These positive results are not necessarily applicable to all EFL Secondary teachers, as they will be contingent on each teacher's set of beliefs, knowledge, assumptions and perception of their own identity. Hence, in order to design suitable tailored teacher education programmes, it is of utmost importance to look at all these variables first.

9.6. Implications and future directions for genre-based learning pedagogies

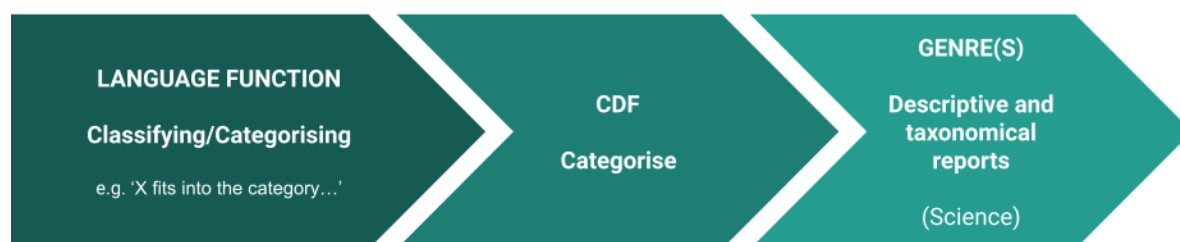
To raise more language awareness, and more specifically, for EFL teachers to be familiar with the role of language in CLIL settings, the teacher education sessions and courses explored in the previous section could be organised from the most general to the most specific aspects, a criterion which is equally valid to structure how all this will be taught to learners. The first module could be devoted to **general academic language**, aiming at

identifying **transferable language functions** common to all the content subjects and aligned with suitable cognitive demands (e.g. language to compare and contrast, to give reasons and introduce arguments, for cause and effect, to sequence information, etc.). From here, the focus of the next step could be on the **specificities of each subject-specific language features and discourse**, putting **genres** at the centre of the agenda. The CDF construct (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016) can be of great value, since CDFs are embedded in all the school genres despite not being equally present in all disciplines (see 4.4.2.). They could work as the basic level structure from which we can construct larger genres. Next, specific text types and genres could be worked with.

Let us illustrate this idea with one practical example. The language function of CLASSIFYING and CATEGORISING is conveyed by means of different linguistic realisations such as “X can be classified... according to” or “X can be categorised ... depending on”, “X consists of (a number of) varieties”, “X fits into the category...”, etc. Naturally, more or less complex structures will be offered to students according to their age, school year and cognitive maturity. These language functions can be arranged as part of the CATEGORISE (former CLASSIFY) CDF (see table 4). And this CDF can be found in school genres such as the descriptive and taxonomical reports in Science.

Figure 57

Example of a scaffolded construction of a genre: A tool for teachers



Note: author's own elaboration

These language functions and CDFs constitute the core structure, from which specific genre moves are created. Using the same example, descriptive reports are organised into

1. Definition and classification
2. Description of the features : Phase 1, 2, 3, etc. (as many as necessary),

and taxonomical reports are structured as follows:

1. Classification system

2. Types: Type 1, 2, 3, etc. (as many as necessary)

(Adapted from Llinares et al., 2012, p.117-119)

Notwithstanding their strong presence in textbooks and activities, these types of reports are not exclusive to the discipline of Science, but they are also frequent in other areas such as Geography. Although slightly different, they naturally share certain properties. As one of our participants suggested, EFL teachers could introduce the genre's general features, in this case, reports, with a focus on Science areas first, and then on Social Science and Arts. This should ideally be accompanied by parallel work with content teachers to **identify common genres** in their textbooks and tasks, aiming at sequencing the contents of the English subject in such a way that prepares students to deal with the content subjects effectively. Lo (2020) conceptualises this type of joint effort as “genre-based collaboration”, through which language teachers can contribute to help students “better express their science knowledge with appropriate academic genres” (p.39). Assuming that these text types and genres will also be part of the curricula and syllabi of the subject through their L1 such coordinated efforts can incorporate other teachers as well, including the L1. This enables Secondary Schools to work with school genres in a cross-curricular way, following LAC and pluriliteracies approaches mentioned earlier. Nonetheless, as already stated and found in this study, the current “advanced English curriculum” needs to be revisited so as to move from the current superficial focus on general academic language to a **more specific reference to subject-specific disciplinary literacy**. The result will be more homogeneous implementation of pedagogies and practices which favour the development of subject-specific disciplinary language from the space of the EFL subject.

As corroborated throughout this study, assuming the effect of the current curriculum is rather superficial; other mechanisms are necessary to develop this subject-specific linguistic competence, and, in turn, to narrow the language gap. The curriculum for “Advanced English” already emphasises textual work, but it mostly refers to macro-genres. In our context, it could be more useful to maintain this textual focus, but complement it with **more specific genres**.

The **teaching-learning circle pedagogy** to teach and consolidate genre-based learning, which has been the object of intervention, has **proved to be valid** to that end. Indeed, the participating teachers have reported its advantages and applicability, and have shared many ideas for implementation, both in the interviews and the GenRe instrument.

Thus, as they see it as feasible, it is worth investigating and enhancing its possibilities of implementation as part of a new curriculum through which we can “widen the scope and extend the focus to those meanings and functions that are necessary to understand and deliver academic content successfully” (Llinares et al., 2012, p.189). Moreover, the application of genre-based pedagogies could help to solve some teachers’ comments of learners’ inability to adjust their oral and written output to more formal registers when necessary. By doing this, as learners progress through Secondary education, they will be more and more exposed to discourse which makes use of more abstract but explicit lexis, complex syntax, more elaborated coherence and cohesion devices, nominalisations or higher lexical density. Because of its focus on academic language, the introduction of genre-based learning has the potential to cope with this problem. If this issue is due to the fact that learners find it difficult to read and produce school texts in English, the scaffolding devices provided throughout the TLC may be effective to solve it. If, on the contrary, it is motivated by the students’ lack of interest towards the English subject itself, extra effort will be necessary to convince learners of its utility and find new ways to motivate them. Rose (2012) suggested that students find bottom-up approaches boring because they are excessively focused on the bottom level (mostly grammar), and because of its decontextualised use. The genre-based pedagogy constitutes an integrative approach, combining bottom-up with top-down strategies (see 4.4.1.), so learners may find these procedures more motivating. This is something that deserves further investigation. As for the written products resulting from the intervention process, whilst the students’ written products have not been used as data, their outcomes and positive experience of the participants have enlightening implications for future directions. Many of these students will eventually attend university, maybe in EMI courses, they might participate in Erasmus programmes, etc. So the academic tools and competences developed through the implementation of genre-based learning and other similar pedagogies are not uniquely valid for the CLIL Secondary period, inasmuch the transferable skills learnt will also contribute to bridge the gap between high school and university writing, which Hüttner (2008) identifies as an important issue. And such responsibility also rests with language teachers.

9.7. Chapter summary

After analysing and discussing the results in the three previous chapters, they have converged in this chapter so as to explore the implications which arise. The implications for

future policy and curriculum development have been explored first, followed by the future directions which derive from them in terms of teacher education. This chapter has also contrasted the evolution of EFL teacher roles in the context which occupies us with the knowledge, beliefs and assumptions shared by the respondents in this study. One essential implication to ponder is the significance of teacher cognition in a process of professional development and educational reform such as the one depicted in this study. Finally, this chapter has also discussed the implications for an eventual implementation of genre-based learning pedagogies with a focus on the role of EFL teachers.

10. Concluding remarks

10.1. Introduction

This dissertation has intended to contribute to research on EFL in (Spanish) Secondary Education in light of CLIL implementation, by focusing on an essential agent who has not deserved sufficient attention so far: the EFL teachers and their roles, both inside and outside their classroom. To gain further insights into their current position in these educational contexts, more specifically in Madrid Region, and future prospects for them, the issue of the evolution of their roles has been examined from three different perspectives, whose theoretical underpinnings can be found in chapters 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The first one has been nurtured from research on Focus-on-Form (FoF) and Language Awareness (LA) in CLIL, paying special attention to what the literature has said about the language gap in these settings and how the figure of language teachers can be situated and revisited so that they can help to deal with this issue. Secondly, the theoretical framework has helped us understand its relevance and impact of teacher cognition, particularly in the case of curricular reform and transformation of roles, as is the case here. The last theoretical perspective comes from SFL. The evolution of the role of language has been explored, with a focus on subject-disciplinary literacies and pedagogies such as genre-based learning, which can bring valuable contributions to the new responsibilities of EFL teachers. Chapter 5 has presented the participants, data collection procedures and research design. The next three chapters have analysed the results obtained, each of the chapters being devoted to one of the three dimensions mentioned above. Although these chapters have included a separate discussion, chapter 9 has looked at the implications and possible future directions which emerge when considering the three perspectives together. This chapter will conclude by summarising the answers to each of the three research questions formulated and will close with some limitations and suggestions for further research.

10.2. RQ1: The current shift of EFL teacher roles to support the learning of subject-specific disciplinary language

The findings of this study have indeed revealed a change in the roles that EFL teachers' working in CLIL Secondary settings traditionally played. However, these are yet insufficient and poorly regulated. To gain deeper insight into the real impact of such transformation, the existing policy (official curriculum and school syllabi) has been contrasted with the participants' testimony (questionnaires and interviews). The official 'advanced curriculum' for the English subject in Madrid has actually considered new responsibilities for EFL teachers, certainly in the direction of supporting the development of the much needed linguistic competence for CLIL settings; but the vague guidelines found in this document result in a lack of consistency when translated into each school and classroom. The absence of more prescriptions from the managerial teams and policy developers regarding the scope of the language subject and the new roles of EFL teachers runs parallel with the teachers' personal initiatives. The (scarce) top-down regulations contrast with the bottom-up realities. That is, in the end, the actions which language teachers may take depend, to a large extent, from their bottom-up practices, their perception of the role of language in CLIL or the understanding of their own roles in all this transformation. The case of this last variable confirms the need to consider the scope of RQ2. The particular situation of teacher collaboration best illustrates this situation: all the instances in which content and language teachers have been paired up have emerged from their own personal efforts and clearly constitute isolated practices. The lack of regulations about collaboration, alongside other constraints (e.g. available time, absence of meetings or curriculum pressures) have pushed practitioners to make their own decisions in this regard, and mostly based on their own understanding of ideal practices.

Regarding the specific new roles, aiming at guaranteeing language awareness and attention to subject literacy (explored by the literature in chapter 2 and synthesised in figure 3 (section 2.7), our participants do not take part in the design of CLIL syllabi, let alone through the establishment of common language requirements and objectives. Moreover, only on isolated occasions do they collaborate with content teachers in the design and implementation of shared tasks or projects. As for advice concerning language obstacles in content subjects, only one of the schools have considered some type of protocol. In terms of the EFL subject adaptation to the CLIL scenario, we have analysed the new 'advanced English curriculum'

focus, but our respondents have also reported some new tasks and responsibilities such as the need to find more motivating materials or new methodologies.

Thus, the role of EFL teachers in CLIL Secondary settings is certainly undergoing a transformation, but the whole school would benefit from a more guided transformation towards the goal of offering students the specific linguistic support which they need.

10.3. RQ2: EFL teachers' understanding of their own ideal role in CLIL

First and foremost, some individual idiosyncrasies have logically been observed as far as teachers' knowledge, beliefs and assumptions are concerned. Notwithstanding, the exploration of these practitioners' perceptions has revealed that, irrespective of their actual practices, it seems natural for them that EFL teachers should be actively involved in CLIL programmes, which they do not regard as a threat to their job. They have shown approval of their new roles suggested by the literature, including collaborative practices with content teachers; although the realisation of such beliefs is not always possible due to other external constraints such as insufficient time or lack of regulation. Moreover, the majority of the participants have agreed that it is the EFL teachers' responsibility to guide the process of acquisition of academic skills and competences in educational settings like theirs.

The results concerning their perception of their own roles and their views about aspects of CLIL programmes such as its benefits or the role of language has enabled us to gain illuminating insights into the extent to which these beliefs can have an effect on desired practices. Concerning some of the specific beliefs which are compatible with CLIL scenarios, the respondents seem to align with them, since they endorse functional views and approaches to language teaching. Moreover, they side with the idea of the multilingual and functionally competent speaker, as recommended by Cenoz and Gorter (2020), and not so much with the ideal of attaining native-like speaker competence.

In contrast, there is no homogeneity when it comes to the knowledge about CLIL and the role of language, which may be symptomatic of a deficient teacher education, and can hinder desired practices. Interestingly, when they share their own visions or suggestions for future directions (e.g. genre-based learning), their linguistic prioritisation is clearly visible. That is, they easily see the benefits for language learning, but not yet for content. In other words, in spite of the setting transformation resulting from CLIL implementation, a strong identity as language teachers is maintained. Also in terms of teacher identity issues, although

they do not feel that their professional role is in danger, some specific concerns have been identified. Such is the case of language accuracy or FoF practices, which are assets which distinguish EFL teachers and that the participants use to vindicate the relevance of their role.

In short, and following Talbot and Gruber (2021), for educational reforms such as CLIL to be successful, much of it will depend on the teachers' identities, beliefs or attitudes (p.296). All in all, the beliefs reported here are positive and can definitely influence teachers' actions towards the desired content-language integration practices. Although many of these ideal practices have not been yet adopted due to different circumstances, these EFL teachers are generally prone to assuming new roles and responsibilities. Having this mind and offering them the necessary support, good practices in pursuit of effective content and language integration can be eventually attained.

10.4. RQ3: The feasibility and potential of genre-based learning

This study has put into practice one of the suggestions for the improvement of CLIL effectiveness, one specific type of genre-based learning pedagogies, and examined its acceptance among EFL teachers with the eventual goal of evaluating its possibilities for future implementation.

The post-intervention interviews and the GenRe instrument have enabled us to explore the effectiveness and possibilities of a hypothetical implementation of genre-based pedagogies in the EFL subject as a means to exercise the co-responsibility of developing disciplinary literacy. The results have shown that the participating teachers conceptualise this approach in positive terms and valid to that end. Although they acknowledge the overarching advantages, as stated in the previous paragraphs, they still list the potential benefits mostly in terms of language, and not of content.

Moreover, the results have revealed that the implementation of this pedagogy is feasible, in the participants' opinion. They have shown their willingness to implement this pedagogy and no major hindrances have been found for a potential standardisation of this practice. Indeed, these teachers have even shared some possible ideas and suggestions about how they would organise it or how they would cooperate with content teachers for its implementation. Its implementation appears to be doable in the future, but taking into consideration other variables which have been brought up during this study; namely, the need for time, management support, etc. In short, their responses let us be enthusiastic about the

applicability, possibilities and opportunities of genre-based learning as an effective practice to complement and support the development of learners' subject-specific literacy.

10.5. Limitations of this investigation

Admittedly, the use of a multi-case study perspective, like the one employed in this research, prevents us from generalisations. However, a quantitative and statistical analysis was never the goal of this dissertation. Instead, the three settings and six teachers involved in this multi-case study attempt to offer what is understood as analytic generalisation. As Dale (2020) claims in her study of eight cases, “transferability is applicable in the sense that the cases are all examples taken from the messy realities of language teachers’ professional lives” (p.154). That is, the daily experiences of the EFL teachers reported here, “may help to bridge the gap between formal and practical theories of language teaching” (ibid.), particularly in a complex scenario such as CLIL Secondary settings.

In our study, the three high schools and six teachers represent different approaches and routes to the same reality: the reshaping of their professional roles. The practices, beliefs, suggestions and even contradictions displayed throughout these pages represent a point of departure for further research and discussion on the ongoing transformation of EFL teachers’ professional self, responsibilities and scope of their own subject. Much of it is context-bound, also in this particular case influenced by the fact that so is CLIL implementation. Thus, what content and language teachers might be experiencing in the region of Madrid may not be necessarily the same as practitioners encounter in other places. Still, as Rallis and Rossman describe (2009), “what is learned in one study can still be useful for other settings, especially since the rich detail presented through qualitative research allows readers to decide what learning they can apply in other settings” (p. 268). That is, the experiences shown here hopefully will be useful for other researchers, policy developers, school management teams, language teachers and the rest of the stakeholders involved.

Regarding the use of a pedagogical intervention, the sessions have been designed by the author of this dissertation, creating and adapting specific materials drawing on the theoretical and methodological principles of genre-based learning and the TLC, and applying them to our scenario. These materials in particular, together with the genre-based learning pedagogy as a tool for EFL teachers could be extended to other practitioners to keep evaluating them and to validate the approach before it can become common-practice.

10.6. Further research

The current investigation intended to open new paths for further research. To explore the possibilities and effect of the genre-based learning approach in the EFL subject, it would be interesting to apply this approach to at least a complete school year, using various school genres pertinent to “CLIL subjects”. In doing so, the actual progression of students’ competence could be monitored and assessed, ideally, by a team of teachers and researchers. This would also allow them to gradually refine and improve the materials, techniques, procedures, and scaffolding strategies. Moreover, supposing genre-based learning were eventually included and prescribed in the new curricula, it would be advisable to develop a specific account of the school genres proper to our culture in Spanish Secondary Education settings. That is, much of the research on academic genres is based on the findings and classification of the Sydney school. But it should not be assumed that all the essential language features of each genre are shared by all cultural contexts (Morton, 2010). Thus, a taxonomy of the most common disciplinary genres in Secondary Education in the specific case of Spain could be developed so that a more far-reaching needs analysis can be carried out and, in turn, have a more-refined language agenda.

Another necessary line of research related to the implementation of this pedagogy would be to examine learners’ motivation. It is language teachers and not the students who have been the focus of this investigation; nonetheless, two interesting remarks are worth investigating further. On the one hand, two of the participants explicitly mentioned that their pupils were enthusiastic with the pedagogical intervention experience. This generates some additional optimism about future directions of genre-based learning implementation and encourages us to investigate the relation between this approach and learners’ motivation. On the other hand, some of the teachers have shown their concern for the lack of students’ interest in the English subject, rather than the language itself, because of the numerous opportunities for exposure (CLIL content subjects and extramural exposure such as online resources or platforms). This suggests that it may be relevant to examine whether other EFL teachers working in CLIL contexts share this perception and, should it be a spreading situation, to analyse how a shift of focus in the EFL subject could impact learners’ engagement.

Even the socioeconomic variable could be considered for further research. It may be interesting thus to investigate how the differences between state and subsidiary schools may affect both teachers’ roles and students’ learning.

Another area for further research which EFL teacher identity in CLIL Secondary settings could benefit from is teacher cognition. This dissertation has addressed teacher cognition and some of the elements which constitute it as a determining variable which mediates classroom actions. Because of their teacher education and the peculiarities of their engagement in CLIL programmes (presented in Chapter 2 and analysed in Chapter 6), we can observe that their identity as language teachers is strong. Thus, the teacher identity issue should be the object of further investigation. At the Secondary education level, it could be beneficial to adapt some existing studies carried out in EMI contexts, which are witnessing research projects and initiatives addressing how new identities are construed and constructed in these settings and, in turn, support practitioners' professional self-development (e.g. see Dafouz, 2018; Farrell, 2020).

Finally, it must be mentioned that, at the time of finishing this Doctoral Thesis, a new Education Act has been passed and will be shortly implemented in Spain (Organic Law 3/2020, December 29). Thus, a new curriculum is expected to be developed in the following months, and further adapted by each of the 17 Spanish regions, including Madrid. For the time being, and during the months in which this research design was being devised and the data collected the LOMCE curriculum (Organic Law 8/2013, December 9) was and still is in place. Therefore, it will be interesting and necessary to examine whether there are new roles assigned to EFL teachers and whether a different approach on the subject of English is adopted – one which aligns more closely with the principles developed in this study.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A. EXAMPLE OF HISTORICAL ACCOUNT

Text was written by a 12-13 year-old student, writing about the changes in South-East Asian politics before and during the Vietnam War (Retrieved from Christie & Derewianka, 2010).

The Vietnam War (excerpts from longer text)

Background

THE COLONIAL ERA

In the nineteenth century, many European countries established colonies in South-East Asia. France expanded its colonial empire to Indochina. In twenty years France had a grip on Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia.

Account sequence:

Phase 1

WORLD WAR II

The French were defeated by Germany in France while the French colonies were invaded by Germany's ally the Japanese. The Japanese Empire expanded down through Burma, Thailand, and into Singapore, Papua New Guinea and reached for the northern tips of Australia. Towards the end of the war << when the Japanese were thinking of surrendering >> the Americans dropped the first ever atomic bomb on Hiroshima. The Japanese were kept in Vietnam for a few years to maintain law and order until the French could send civil servants to take over.

Account sequence:

Phase 2

THE RISE OF THE VIET MINH

When the Viet Minh had beaten the Japanese with the aid of the United States, the Vietnamese took pride and realized that they could become independent. So, << when the French came back to rule, >> they were confronted with the independence movement of the Vietnamese people. The French tried to fight the Vietnamese but failed miserably and dramatically because they were using the wrong tactics for the wrong place. They went out in large groups of men and vehicles in formation. Their tactics were unable to match the guerilla tactics of camouflage and hit and run. The French left and abandoned their colonial empire. While the French were leaving the Americans came in, not to claim territory but to help the South Vietnamese to fight the North Vietnamese in fear [[of communism spreading down into the Pacific region]]. Their concept was based on the Domino Theory i.e. communism [[spreading from one country to the next]]. Unfortunately the Americans had problems telling [[who was who, // who was friend // and who was foe]], as only the North Vietnamese wore uniform. The Vietcong << (also called VC who were local force rebels

[[who fought for communism]]) >> also wore the same black pyjama like clothes as the civilians.

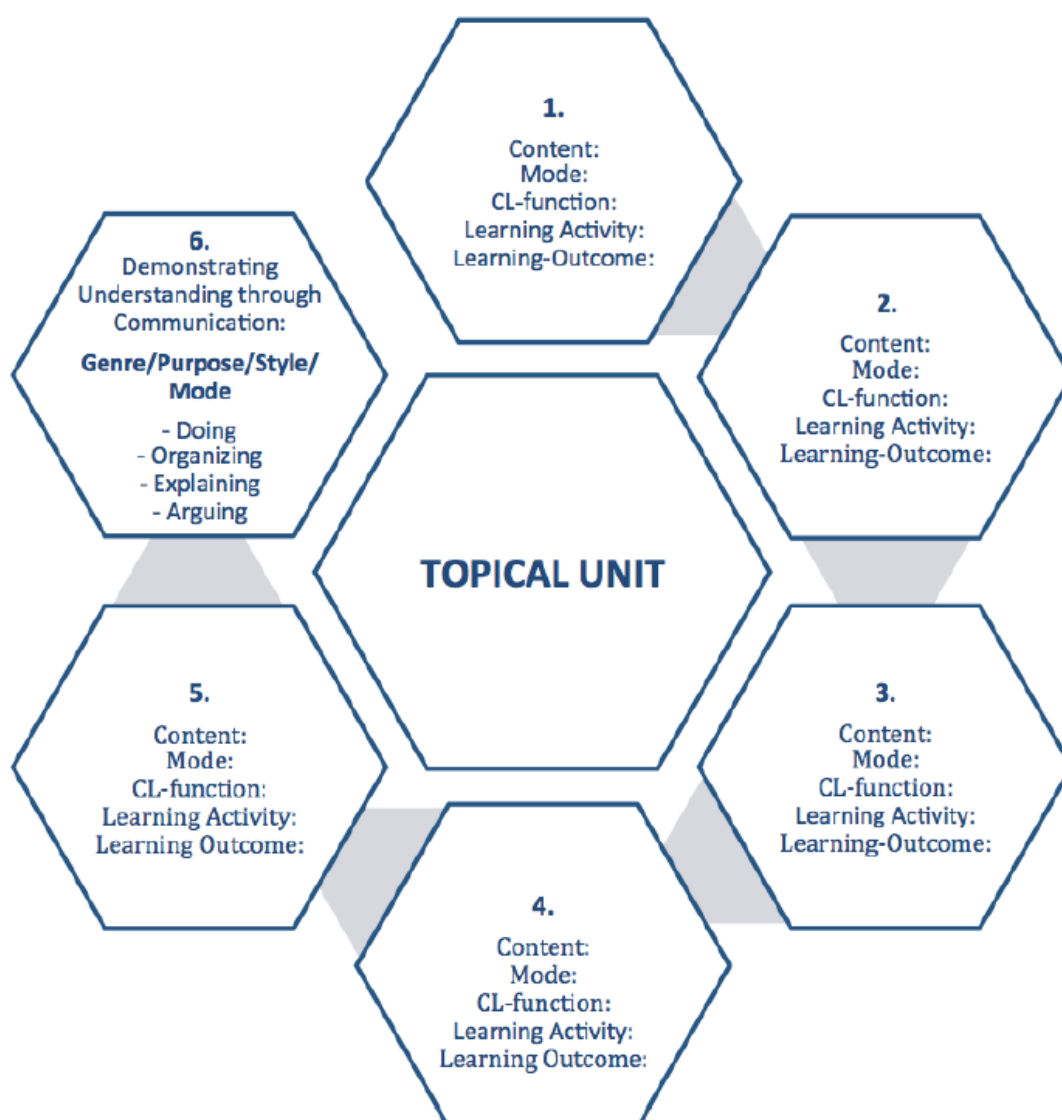
Deduction

Conclusion: The importance of the Vietnam war in history is [[that it turned Vietnam from a foreign controlled country into an independent, communist country]]. It also showed that the biggest and richest countries such as America and Russia are not invincible as the Vietnamese proved.

APPENDIX B. PLURILITERACIES PLANNING TOOL AND TEMPLATE

(Retrieved from Meyer, O.; Halbach, A.& Coyle, D.(2015). *A Pluriliteracies approach to teaching for learning: putting a pluriliteracies approach into practice*. Council of Europe: European Centre for Modern Languages.

PLANNING TOOL



TEMPLATE

CULTURE (BI-FOCAL LENS: BROADER CULTURAL ASPECTS AND DISCIPLINARY CULTURE) DISCIPLINARY FILTER DETERMINES HOW CONTENT IS BEING PROCESSED - WHICH DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS ARE USED TO CONCEPTUALIZE CONTENT? - WHICH STRATEGIES/SKILLS ARE NEEDED TO CONSTRUCT MEANING?			
CONTENT TO BE CONCEPTUALIZED			
Mode (Input) - Text (written, audio, video) - Chart - Diagram - Map - Historical Source, etc.	Processing Level - Beginner - Intermediate - Advanced		
COGNITION: CONCEPTUALIZING AND COMMUNICATING FOR KNOWLEDGE CONSTRUCTION			
Cognitive Discourse Functions - Naming/Labeling - Describing - Explaining - Reporting - Evaluating - Arguing - Hypothesizing - Experimenting - Simulating - Modeling, etc.	CDFs - Beginner - Intermediate - Advanced		
COMMUNICATION: DEMONSTRATING UNDERSTANDING/ MAKING MEANING			
Purpose	Intercultural filter: On/off	Literacy Level	
Genre	Doing: - procedure - practical report	- Beginner - Intermediate - Advanced	
	Organizing: - descriptive report - taxonomic report		
	Explaining: - sequential - causal - factorial - consequential - theoretical		
	Arguing: a) argument - analytical argument - hortatory argument b) discussion		
Style	formal/informal		
Mode (Output)			
Learning Objectives (planning the what)		Learning Activities (planning the how)	
Demonstrating Understanding: How do I know my learners know?			

APPENDIX C. CONSENT FORM

Participant informed-consent form

Marta Jaén

You have been selected to take part in this study for a PhD at UCM because you are an English teacher in a 'bilingual school' in Madrid.

Fourteen years have passed since the implementation of bilingual education (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in the CAM and experts and researchers are constantly looking for ways to improve the programme and make it more successful. The involvement of the language specialist (you!) is precisely one of those areas for improvement. One of the suggestions that has been made is to adapt the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) subject so that it can be conceived as a space where students can learn to develop oral and written texts which they will need to produce in the bilingual subjects as part of the curricula (e.g. lab report in Science or a biographical account in History). Of course, such a transformation does not involve eliminating the current EFL curricula; it simply adds new objectives and content that might reshape your subject.

For instance, and taking the lab report as an example again, it would be the EFL teacher's responsibility to teach the specific linguistic structures needed for the report. We would also be in charge of teaching discourse organisation, text structure and genre movements specific to writing a lab report (e.g. materials, procedure, conclusions).

The purpose of this study is to get to know how you feel about introducing this approach in your lessons, which has been proposed to support the acquisition of academic skills and competences in a CLIL setting.

Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw from it at any moment. Any personal data collected will only be used for the purpose of this study and they will be treated confidentially.

Thank you very much for your participation! Your contribution to this project could be very important for the future of the bilingual programme.

The researcher

The participant

APPENDIX D. QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire for the EFL teacher

Marta Jaén

PERSONAL INFORMATION

None of your details will appear in the thesis. This information is only necessary for research reasons.

Name:	
Age:	
Experience as an English teacher	
Experience in a bilingual school	
Level of Studies	
Specific CLIL training	

QUESTIONS

1. In your context, are you responsible for...?				
1.1 Identifying and establishing language objectives for content subjects?				
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Usually
1.2 Teaching academic language that is necessary for content subjects?				
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1.3 dealing with specific language problems that arise in content subjects?				
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

1.4 introducing content (from other subject curricula) in your lessons?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Usually

2. Have you ever helped content teachers to...?**2.1 design and plan an activity**

Yes	No

2.2 If so, how often have you done it?

Only occasionally	Sometimes	Often

2.3 correct one of their exams/activities?

Yes	No

2.4 If so, how often have you done it?

Only occasionally	Sometimes	Often

3. Does your school have specific guidelines which regulate your cooperation with the content teacher?

Yes	No

3.1 If so, are these guidelines included in the syllabi (programaciones) or policy documents (e.g. proyecto educativo, organización de centro, and so on)

Yes	No

4. Would you say you have a proactive role in the bilingual programme?

Yes	No

5. How much do you know about CLIL?

Nothing (0)	A little (1-5)	A lot (6-10)

6. Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statement: CLIL benefits content learning.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

7. Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statement: CLIL benefits language learning.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

8.Say whether you agree or not with the following statement: CLIL teachers need knowledge of language pedagogy.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

9.Should Foreign Language Teaching be restricted to the EFL classroom?

Yes	No

10. Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statement: 'I feel my role as an English teacher threatened because many subjects are now taught in English'.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

11. Do you think that your EFL subject (as it is described in the official curriculum) is relevant for your current students?

Totally irrelevant	Irrelevant	Relevant	Totally relevant

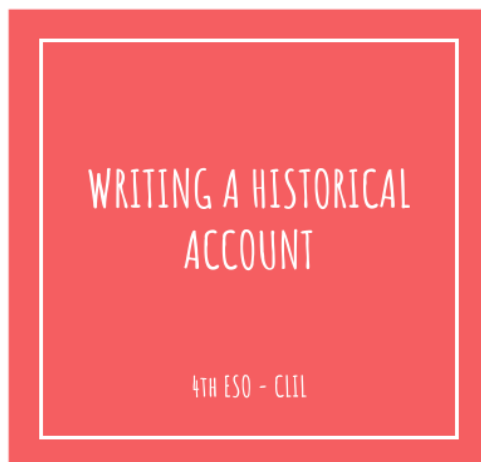
12.Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statement: "Students find the EFL subject purposeless"

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

13.Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statement: EFL lessons need to be adapted to become more relevant and useful for the subjects taught through English.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

APPENDIX E. THE PEDAGOGICAL INTERVENTION - PPT



BACKGROUND- Already existing - **Revolutionary atmosphere** after the **American Revolution**. The French Revolution **outbreak in 1789** with the storming of the Bastille.

ACCOUNT SEQUENCE- Series of various connected factors

EVENT/ACTION AS CAUSE	EFFECT
Social: Weakening of the anachronistic feudal system, ancient régime and autocratic monarchy	Increase of bourgeoisie's (wealthy commoners) demand of power vs the privileges of the First and Second states (clergy and Nobility, who did not pay any tax).
Cultural: The Enlightenment	Attack the authority and power of the absolutist king and the catholic church.
Economic: high expenditure on the wars of the XVIII century + crop failure/bad harvest.	Weak and unstable situation: debt and famine.

1. DECONSTRUCTION STAGE

BRAINSTORMING: WRITING A HISTORICAL ACCOUNT

- What type of text is a historical account?
- Why is it important in the field of History?
- What are the features of a historical account?

Example

1. BACKGROUND
2. ACCOUNT SEQUENCE
3. DEDUCTION

End of slavery in the United States: Slavery had been practiced in British North America from early colonial days, and was recognized in the Thirteen Colonies at the time of the Declaration of Independence in 1776
When the United States was founded, the status of slave was largely limited to those of African descent, creating a system and legacy in which race played an influential role. The United States was polarized by slavery into slave and free states along the Mason-Dixon Line, which separated Maryland (slave) and Pennsylvania (free).
The 1860 Civil War, which caused a huge disruption of Southern life, with many slaves either escaping or being liberated by the Union armies. The war effectively ended slavery, before the Thirteenth Amendment (December 1865) formally outlawed the institution throughout the United States

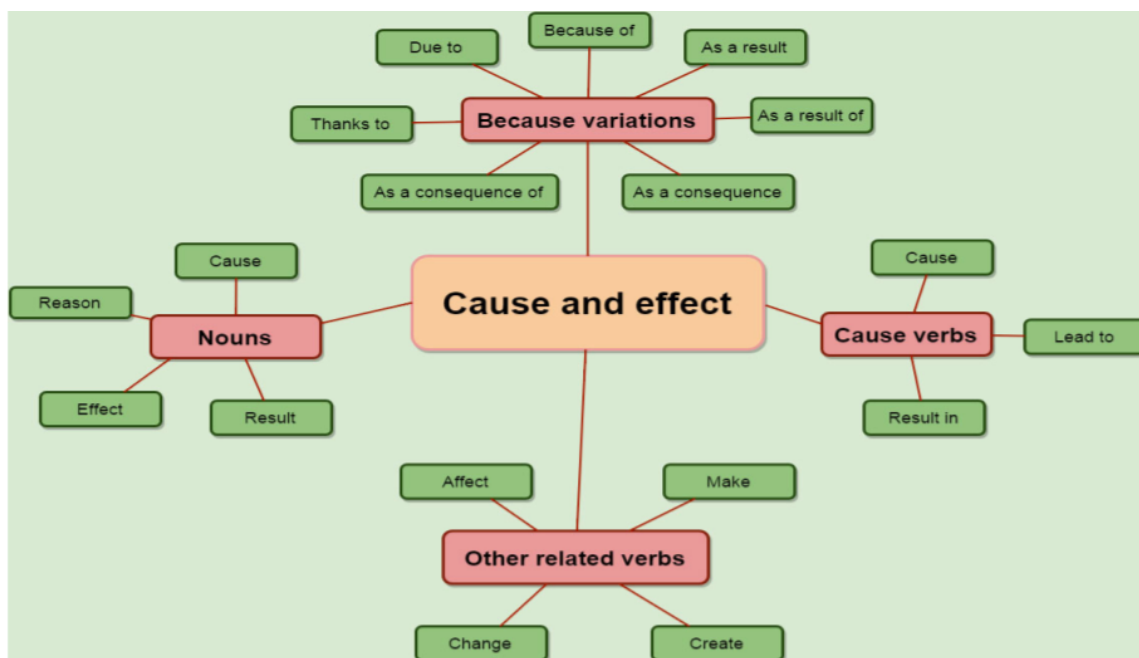
Sample Analysis: What has happened to the Aborigines since the time of white settlement?

Background	In the late 18th century, when the English colonised Australia, there were small tribes, or colonies of Aboriginal natives who had lived harmoniously and in tune with their surroundings for 40 000 years. However, there were no signs of agriculture or the Aborigines depending on the land. According to English law, this meant that they need not be recognised as rightful residents. The English immediately assumed that Australia was 'terra nullius', or uninhabited; to them it was an unsettled land which they did not have to conquer to gain power.
Account sequence	As a result of their belief in 'terra nullius', from 1788 onwards, the English began to occupy sacred land and use Aboriginal hunting and fishing grounds. This abuse by the new British government soon led to Aborigines becoming involved in a physical struggle for power. The first main period of Aboriginal resistance was from 1794 to 1816 when the Eora people, under the leadership of Pemulwuy, resisted the Europeans through guerrilla warfare. This Aboriginal resistance resulted in the colonisers using different methods of control. In the 19th century Protection stations were set up where Aborigines were encouraged to replace their traditional lifestyles with European ones. Many Aborigines resisted, however, and as a result were shot or poisoned. In 1909, the continuation of Aboriginal resistance led to the NSW Aborigines Protection Act which gave the Aborigines Protection Board the power to remove Aboriginal children from their own families and place them into white families, often as cheap labour. In response to these injustices the Aboriginal community began to fight for their rights. In 1967, they won the right to vote and in 1983 their struggle resulted in the creation of the NSW Aboriginal Land Rights Act. Their fight for land rights continues to-day. The Mabo case is a recent example of their success.
Deduction	The events of European settlement <u>show</u> the extent of Aboriginal losses. They also <u>show</u> the resistance of the Aboriginal people and some of the gains that they have made. This is <u>an indication</u> that their struggle will continue and more gains will be made. In this way the enormous losses that Aboriginal people have undergone as a result of European colonisation might, to some extent, be compensated for.

EXPRESSING CAUSE AND EFFECT

- **Nouns:** reason, factor, cause,
- **Verbs:** cause, make, affect, lead to, produce, result (in), contribute, give rise, generate
- **Conjunctions:** as, since, because
- **Transitions:** As a result, as a consequence, consequently, thus, therefore

***Expressing change:** increase, decrease, remain, go up, drop, reduce.



LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF HISTORICAL ACCOUNTS

- **Passive voice** - focus on **events**: Peace was signed in Versailles.
- **Past tenses**
- **Action verbs become things** e.g. The League **failed** to stop Germany from rearming ... → The League's **failure** to stop Germany from rearming
- **Abstract nouns**: nationalism, alliances, treaty, etc

ACTIVITY: PUZZLE

Put the different chunks of the following text in order to create a historical account.

From farm to cities

Sample Text (from Cayton, Perry, Reed, & Winkler, 2000, p. 217)

From Farms to Cities

Women and men alike took part in the migration from rural to urban America. As factories produced more of the goods that farm women had once made, the need for women's labor on farms declined. In addition, as new machines replaced manual labor on many farms, the need for male farmhands shrank. The result was a striking shift in the nation's population. Between 1880 and 1910, the percentage of the nation's population living on farms fell from 72 to 54 percent.

Many African Americans took part in this internal migration. In 1870 fewer than a half million of the nation's 5 million African Americans lived outside of the South. But after Reconstruction ended in 1877, segregation and acts of racial violence against African Americans increased. By 1890, partly as a result of these pressures, another 150,000 black southerners had left the South, and many rural African Americans had moved into nearby cities. Then, in the 1910s, the boll weevil destroyed cotton crops and floods ruined Alabama and Mississippi farmlands. These disasters drove several hundred thousand more African Americans out of the South, mostly to Northern cities.

ACTIVITY: FILL THE GAPS WITH LANGUAGE OF CAUSE AND EFFECT

- WWI **broke up** when Franz Ferdinand was assassinated by a Serbian student in Sarajevo. _____ there was a great feeling of nationalism in their time and militarism dominated countries, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. The alliances formed in that time _____ the five main powers **go** to war.
 - When the French and Indian War took place (1754 – 1763), King George III lost a great deal of money _____ buying expensive supplies for his army and the colonies. _____ pay off his debt, he imposed taxes on the colonies without their consent.
 - Innovation and new technology was obviously the **key** _____ in the success of Industrial Revolution.
-

ACTIVITY: ACTIONS BECOME THINGS

- The League **failed** to stop Germany from rearming ... → The League's **failure** to stop Germany from rearming.

Now you try!

- The European settlers **arrived** in 1788. Two years after their _____, conflicts between blacks and whites began.
- The Aborigines **resisted** the Europeans. The black _____ lasted until 1816.
- In 1794, the Eora people **attacked** the settlement of Brickfield. During this _____ 36 people and 14 Eora were killed.

Adapted from Coffin, 2006

2. JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

Joint Construction Stage: Population in England

BACKGROUND- 18th/19th centuries: the population in England increased dramatically. 1750: 7 million. 1900: 37 million.

ACCOUNT SEQUENCE -

EVENT/ACTION AS CAUSE	EFFECT
People married earlier	larger families
Great advances in medicine	higher life expectancy e.g women: 33 years old in 1750 - 48 years old in 1900 Deaths at birth: 65% in 1750 - 15% in 1900
Improvements in agriculture and transport	Cheaper/more available food

DEDUCTION -

Enter your text here!

BACKGROUND:

ACCOUNT SEQUENCE:

DEDUCTION:



3. INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTION STAGE

Independent Construction Stage



Now it's your turn to write a text on your own. The topic will be the 'French Revolution' and you will have to explain the factors that led to it.

Please follow the guidelines about text structure, language to express cause and effect and other linguistic features that you may need to use.

BACKGROUND- Already existing - **Revolutionary atmosphere** after the **American Revolution**. The French Revolution **outbreak in 1789** with the storming of the Bastille.

ACCOUNT SEQUENCE- Series of various connected factors

EVENT/ACTION AS CAUSE	EFFECT
Social: Weakening of the anachronistic feudal system, ancient régime and autocratic monarchy	Increase of bourgeoisie's (wealthy commoners) demand of power vs the privileges of the First and Second states (clergy and Nobility, who did not pay any tax).
Cultural: The Enlightenment	Attack the authority and power of the absolutist king and the catholic church.
Economic: high expenditure on the wars of the XVIII century + crop failure/bad harvest.	Weak and unstable situation: debt and famine.

CHECKLIST



- Have you organised your writing in paragraphs?
- Have you included proper transitions (another reason why...) and discourse markers (as a result, ...)
- Have you introduced a wide range of language to express cause and effect?
- Have you used passive voice?
- Have you written abstract nouns?



APPENDIX F. THE PEDAGOGICAL INTERVENTION: STUDENTS' HANDOUT

Students' handout

Marta Jaén

March 2019

WRITING PRACTICE

Activity 1 - Today, you are going to write about the French Revolution, which broke out in 1789 with the storming of the Bastille. You will have to write a composition about the causes of the French Revolution using the following information:

EVENT/ACTION AS CAUSE	EFFECT
Social: Weakening of the anachronistic feudal system, ancient régime and autocratic monarchy	Increase of bourgeoisie's (wealthy commoners) demand of power vs the privileges of the First and Second states (clergy and Nobility, who did not pay any tax).
Cultural: The Enlightenment	Attack the authority and power of the absolutist king and the catholic church.
Economic: high expenditure on the wars of the XVIII century + crop failure/bad harvest.	Weak and unstable situation: debt and famine.

This is not an exam, but it is essential that you work on this **INDIVIDUALLY**. If you have any doubt, raise your hand.

The type of text that you just wrote is a **HISTORICAL ACCOUNT** of an important event, which you need to learn to write in 4th ESO, so let's practice now!

Historical accounts consist of three different **sections**:

1. **BACKGROUND** - Background information about the event (what, who, where, when).
2. **ACCOUNT SEQUENCE** - The different reasons why the event took place. Try to follow this rule: one cause = one paragraph. Do not forget to introduce each cause with the proper transition (Another factor ...)

3. DEDUCTION - This part is not always compulsory. This is a kind of personal conclusion in which you should conclude/mention why this event was so important.

Let's see an example:

Sample Analysis: What has happened to the Aborigines since the time of white settlement?

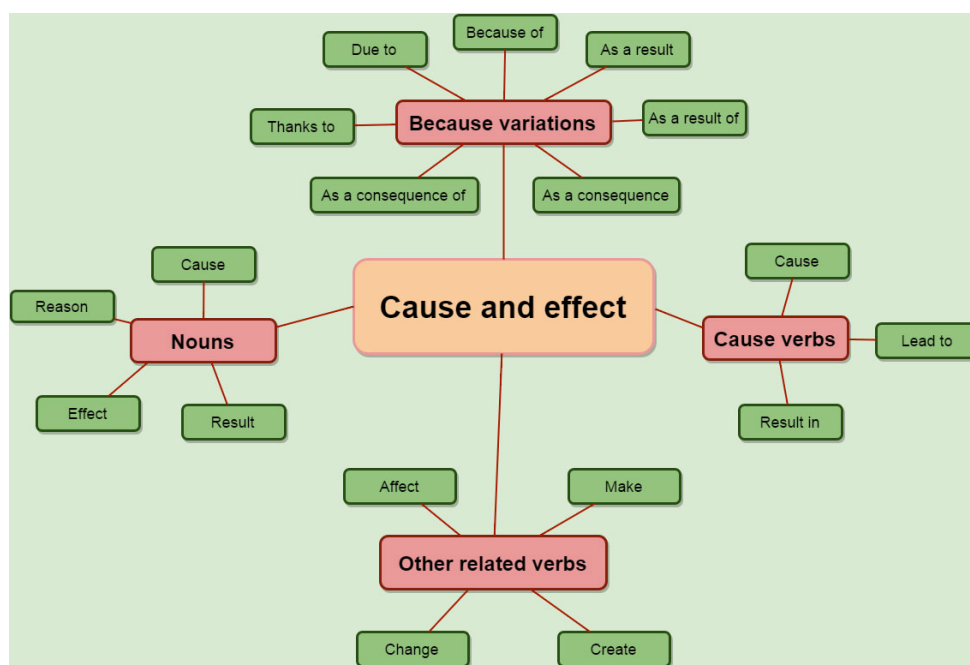
Background	In the late 18th century, when the English colonised Australia, there were small tribes, or colonies of Aboriginal natives who had lived harmoniously and in tune with their surroundings for 40 000 years. However, there were no signs of agriculture or the Aborigines depending on the land. According to English law, this meant that they need not be recognised as rightful residents. The English immediately assumed that Australia was 'terra nullius', or uninhabited; to them it was an unsettled land which they did not have to conquer to gain power.
Account sequence	As a result of their belief in 'terra nullius', from 1788 onwards, the English began to occupy sacred land and use Aboriginal hunting and fishing grounds. This abuse by the new British government soon led to Aborigines becoming involved in a physical struggle for power. The first main period of Aboriginal resistance was from 1794 to 1816 when the Eora people, under the leadership of Pemulwuy, resisted the Europeans through guerrilla warfare. This Aboriginal resistance resulted in the colonisers using different methods of control. In the 19th century Protection stations were set up where Aborigines were encouraged to replace their traditional lifestyles with European ones. Many Aborigines resisted, however, and as a result were shot or poisoned. In 1909, the continuation of Aboriginal resistance led to the NSW Aborigines Protection Act which gave the Aborigines Protection Board the power to remove Aboriginal children from their own families and place them into white families, often as cheap labour. In response to these injustices the Aboriginal community began to fight for their rights. In 1967, they won the right to vote and in 1983 their struggle resulted in the creation of the NSW Aboriginal Land Rights Act. Their fight for land rights continues to-day. The Mabo case is a recent example of their success.
Deduction	The events of European settlement <u>show</u> the extent of Aboriginal losses. They also <u>show</u> the resistance of the Aboriginal people and some of the gains that they have made. This is <u>an indication</u> that their struggle will continue and more gains will be made. In this way the enormous losses that Aboriginal people have undergone as a result of European colonisation might, to some extent, be compensated for.

What **language** should you use to write historical accounts?

- LANGUAGE TO EXPRESS CAUSE AND EFFECT
 - Nouns: reason, factor, cause,
 - Verbs: cause, make, affect, lead to, produce, result (in), contribute, give rise, generate
 - Conjunctions: as, since, because
 - Transitions: As a result, as a consequence, consequently, thus, therefore

*Expressing change: increase, decrease, remain, go up, drop, reduce.

- OTHER LINGUISTIC FEATURES
- Passive voice - focus on **events**: Peace was signed in Versailles.
- Past tenses
- Action verbs become things e.g. The League **failed** to stop Germany from rearming ...
The League's **failure** to stop Germany from rearming
- Abstract nouns: nationalism, alliances, treaty, etc



Activity 2 - Work in groups. You will be given extracts taken from a historical account. Put the different chunks in order to create a historical account.

Activity 3 - Fill the gaps with language of cause and effect.

- WWI **broke up** when Franz Ferdinand was assassinated by a Serbian student in Sarajevo. _____ there was a great feeling of nationalism in their time and militarism dominated countries, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. The alliances formed in that time _____ the five main powers go to war.
- When the French and Indian War took place (1754 – 1763), King George III lost a great deal of money _____ buying expensive supplies for his army and the colonies. _____ _____ pay off his debt, he imposed taxes on the colonies without their consent.
- Innovation and new technology was obviously the key _____ in the success of Industrial Revolution.

Activity 4 - Actions become things:

The League **failed** to stop Germany from rearming ---- The League's **failure** to stop Germany from rearming.

Now you try!

- The European settlers arrived in 1788. Two years after their _____, conflicts between blacks and whites began.
- The Aborigines resisted the Europeans. The black _____ lasted until 1816.
- In 1794, the Eora people attacked the settlement of Brickfield. During this _____ 36 people and 14 Eora were killed.

Activity 5 - Now, let's write one historical account together using all the information in the table and the instructions on how to write a historical account. The topic will be the population growth which was essential for the Industrial Revolution in the XIX.

- **BACKGROUND**- 18th/19th centuries: the population in England increased dramatically. 1750: 7 million. 1900: 37 million.
- **ACCOUNT SEQUENCE** -

EVENT/ACTION AS CAUSE	EFFECT
People married earlier	larger families
Great advances in medicine	higher life expectancy e.g women: 33 years old in 1750 - 48 years old in 1900 Deaths at birth: 65% in 1750 - 15% in 1900
Improvements in agriculture and transport	Cheaper/more available food

- **DEDUCTION** - Your own

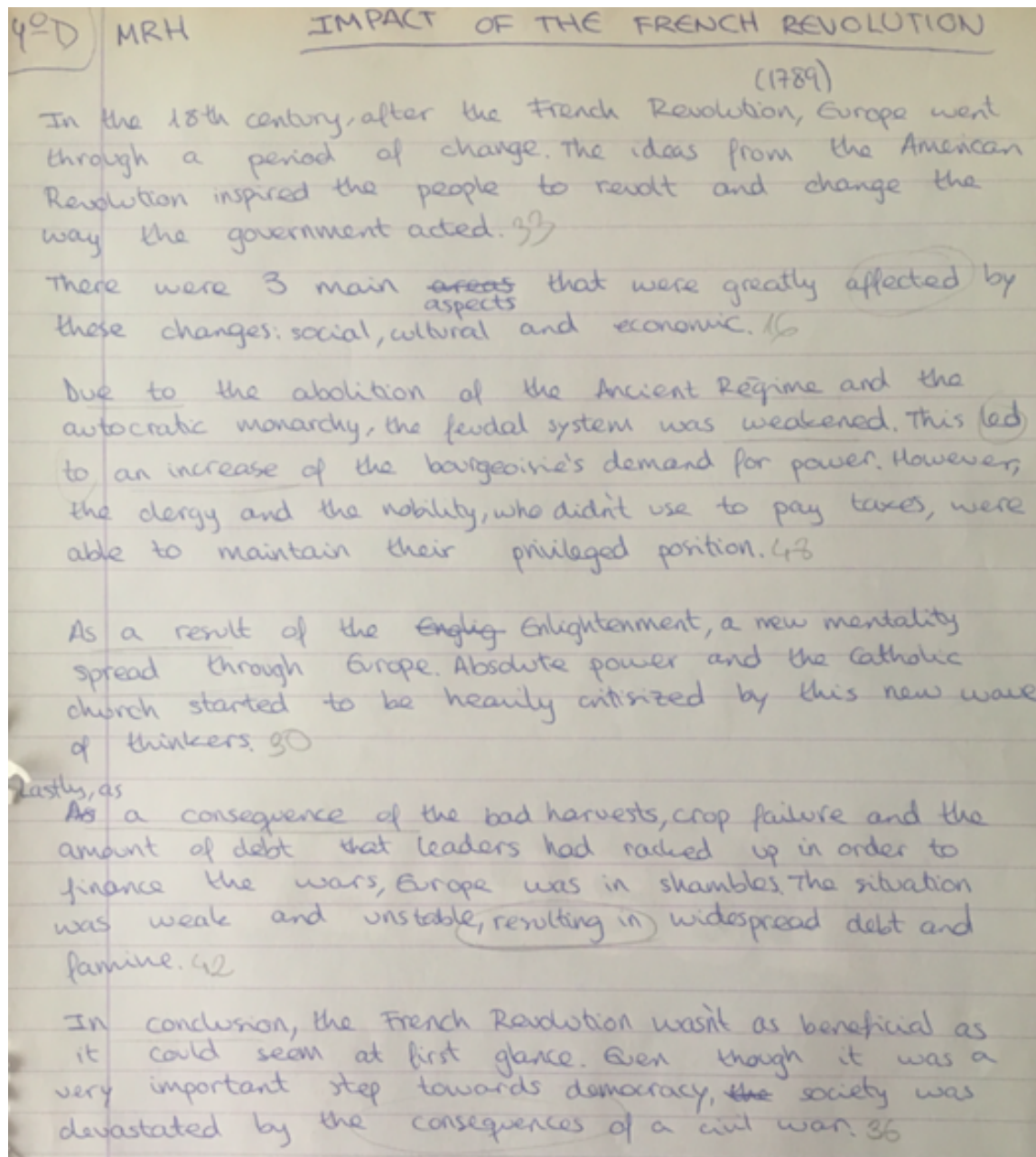
Activity 6- Finally, you are going to re-do the first text you wrote (French Revolution). Please organise your discourse taking into account:

- Text structure: Background - Account Sequence - Deduction
- Discourse markers
- Language of cause and effect
- Passive voice
- Abstract nouns
- Etc

Thanks for your cooperation!!!

APPENDIX G. STUDENTS' PRODUCT

Illustration of a final product and some tables showing how the students' initial and final product were analysed and commented on during the interview.



L.G.G.

Paragraphs	One	Four
Length	53	110
Transition words	None (only three sentences separated mostly by commas)	At the beginning of each paragraph: One of the cause) Another key factor The last reason
cause and effect vocabulary	made a huge change	Same + causing Due to resulted in
'Change' vocabulary	start, begin, fall down	a huge change (nominalization) the weakening of (nominalization) an increase of (nomin.)
Other subject specific vocabulary	bourgeoisie, revealed against, ancient regime, autocratic monarchy, Enlightenment	Same + broke out (st had used started/began three times in the first version), absolutist king, expenditure, famine, anachronistic, crop failure
Genre movements: background + account sequence + (deduction)	No	Yes
Other remarks	High frequency of nominalizations (and lexical density) in contrast to the first contribution, in which all processes were S+V action processes	

P.C.D.

Paragraphs	3 (Introduced by bullet points)	4
Length	103	137
Transition words	None (bullet points)	Some causes are One of them Another one And finally, ...
cause and effect vocabulary	The effect is/are (same structure repeated twice)	The effect was caused Were protagonists of the effect of
‘Change’ vocabulary	The increase of	The increase of
Other subject specific vocabulary	Take place Clergy, nobility, first and second states, autocratic monarchy, ancient regime, feudal system, absolutist king, high expenditure	Broke out Same
Genre movements: background + account sequence + (deduction)	No background- The account sequence is introduced by bullet points	Yes (even deduction)
Other remarks	First text: definition of the causes. Lexical density increases slightly	

APPENDIX H. THE PEDAGOGICAL INTERVENTION: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

INTRODUCTION + GENERAL FEATURES	
Are aims/objectives clearly specified? genre for history, etc.	
Is there a recap of previous knowledge?	
Does the teacher make explicit the importance of learning this?	
Explicit references to the school subject this genre is practised.	
Does the teacher check understanding?	

What is the role of grammar? Grammatical explanations connected with genre-based instruction	
Does the teacher explain the linguistic features of the genre?	
Does the teacher explain the text structure of this genre?	
Does the teacher provide instructional scaffolding?	
Does the teacher resource to the L1? In which situations?	

STAGE 1 - DECONSTRUCTION STAGE	
Explains the text structure specific to the school genre	
Explains the linguistic features proper to this genre	
Strategies used to help understanding of the specific genre	
STAGE 2 - JOINT CONSTRUCTION STAGE	
Scaffolding strategies	
Students' interventions	

STAGE 3 - INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTION STAGE	
Students write individually	
Any relevant procedure	

APPENDIX I. THE GENRE INSTRUMENT

GenRe instrument

Marta Jaén

Now, you will fill in a table about the specific proposal of introducing a genre-based approach (what we have been doing in the last few days) in your EFL subject.

Imagine you are going to start teaching your students how to develop texts adapted to the specific genres and registers of the bilingual subjects in your schools (Science, History, Geography, Economy, Technology, and so on). Please, complete this table following the guidelines in the left column.

You may find the table a bit abstract. That's why you can think of a practical example of one specific type of text developed by students in 4th ESO in the subject of History (e.g. a historical account). I would like you to reflect about the **specific language** you will need to teach.

1. What you intend your students to learn/ What language you intend your students to learn/use in order to carry out this task.	
2. Why it is important for students to learn this/acquire this competence. (Why it is important for students to learn/use this particular language.	
3. What else you know about this competence and you don't intend your students to know yet. /What other language related to the writing of a (insert genre, i.e. historical account) that might be important but can be introduced later.	<i>Cualquier otro conocimiento acerca de la competencia de escribir textos siguiendo géneros académicos concretos que por vuestra formación podáis saber y no consideráis necesario transmitirles a ellos aún (e.g. conectores más complejos, géneros más complicados, vocabulario más específico, etc)</i>
4. Difficulties/limitations connected with teaching this competence. / Language limitations and difficulties that students are likely to have when dealing with this task (the task of writing a -insert genre-i.e. historical account).	<i>Limitación de cualquier tipo (incluido de tiempo, espacio, recursos) que penséis que pueda surgir.</i>
5. Knowledge about students' thinking and use of language which could influence your teaching of this competence. / 5. Knowledge of students' use of language that will influence your teaching of this (insert genre-i.e. historical account).	<i>Vosotros conocéis a vuestros alumnos mejor que nadie y lleváis tiempo enseñando a adolescentes - ¿cómo os condicionaría eso a tomar decisiones en el aula si implementaséis un genre-based approach?/Cualquier otro aspecto que consideréis relevante referido a su nivel de inglés en general, el manejo del lenguaje académico, etc.</i>
6. Other factors that influence your teaching of this competence. Other factors related to your setting (bilingual school) which will influence your teaching of this.	<i>Cualquier otro aspecto que tenga que ver con el colegio en sí que os pueda influir: número de horas, auxiliar de conversación, etc.</i>
7. Teaching procedures and particular reasons for using these to engage them with the learning of this competence./ How you might adapt teaching procedures taking into account your specific setting	<i>Cualquier técnica, procedimiento, actividad, metodología complementaria, etc que se os pueda ocurrir para 'enganchar' más a los alumnos a aprender esta competencia escrita.</i>
8. Specific ways of ascertaining/verifying students' understanding or confusion around this competence. The extent to which language (proper to i.e. historical accounts) may make difficult to carry out this particular task and how you will make sure that your students use the language effectively.	<i>Imaginándonos en el proceso de estar ya implementando la enseñanza de esta competencia - ¿cómo comprobaríais que han entendido, que saben hacerlo, etc?</i>

APPENDIX L. ADVANCED ENGLISH CURRICULUM

BLOQUE 1 - COMPRENSIÓN DE TEXTOS ORALES CONTENIDOS ESPECÍFICOS		
CONTENIDOS	CRITERIOS DE EVALUACIÓN	ESTÁNDARES DE APRENDIZAJE EVALUABLES
a) Comprensión de la interacción relacionada con las actividades de aula, especialmente durante el trabajo en parejas y grupos, así como en la interacción con el docente, y las presentaciones y los debates b) Anticipación del contenido en reportajes, documentales, debates y discursos c) Comprensión general de reportajes, discursos y debates tanto formales y preparados como espontáneos d) Comprensión de resúmenes de datos e investigaciones acerca de un tema conocido e) Comprensión de reportajes, programas de TV y películas en inglés estándar, y en inglés no estándar cuando la imagen contribuye a la comprensión f) Identificación de la intención del hablante: aclarar una idea, guiar a la audiencia mediante preguntas retóricas, la utilización de la ironía, etc. g) Diferenciación entre hechos y opiniones en debates y presentaciones tanto preparadas como improvisadas h) Evaluación de la objetividad en la presentación de ideas, descripción de hechos, etc. i) Inferencia de puntos de vista y opiniones que no	Entender la interacción relacionada con las actividades de aula (instrucciones, preguntas, comentarios, etc.) tanto con los docentes, como de los compañeros y compañeras en situaciones de trabajo en parejas y grupos. Identificar el sentido general en descripciones, debates y discursos tanto formal y preparado como espontáneos, así como en documentales, programas de TV y películas en inglés estándar, y en inglés no estándar cuando la imagen contribuye a la comprensión. Comprender ideas principales de diálogos o monólogos a pesar de la presencia de vocabulario desconocido, o de la calidad deficiente de la grabación, presencia de ruidos de fondo, etc. Identificar puntos de vista en una argumentación estructurada o improvisada en inglés estándar en debates y discursos grabados o en los que participa, incluso aunque estos no se expresen de manera abierta. Distinguir entre ideas principales y justificaciones y ejemplos en un debate, discurso o presentación en inglés estándar, o no estándar siempre que el tema sea conocido. Distinguir entre hechos y opiniones, así como	Entiende lo que se le dice en transacciones y gestiones cotidianas del aula. Identifica las ideas principales y secundarias en una conversación, discurso o un debate formal o informal de cierta duración entre dos o más interlocutores que tiene lugar en su presencia, o de la que visualiza o escucha una grabación, y en la que se tratan temas conocidos o de actualidad. Comprende las ideas principales de textos en los que la presencia de vocabulario desconocido, la deficiente calidad de la grabación o la presencia de ruidos de fondo dificultan la comprensión. Entiende las ideas principales y los detalles más significativos en descripciones, conferencias, reportajes y documentales. Comprende, en una conversación informal, debate, presentación o discurso, en los que participa o de los que visualiza o escucha una grabación, explicaciones o justificaciones de puntos de vista y opiniones sobre diversos asuntos de interés personal, temas de actualidad o más abstractos. Identifica las ideas principales y secundarias de

se expresan de manera abierta j) Diferenciación entre ideas principales y justificaciones y ejemplos en debates y en presentaciones bien estructuradas e improvisadas en inglés estándar o no estándar, siempre que el tema sea conocido k) Capacidad de seguir una conversación espontánea rápida lo suficientemente bien como para poder intervenir en ella l) Comprensión de información específica en presentaciones, conversaciones y debates complejos desde el punto de vista lingüístico, siempre que el tema sea conocido m) Identificación de la intención del hablante y sus sentimientos a partir de parámetros lingüísticos (elección de léxico y estructuras sintácticas) y paralingüísticos (ritmo, acentuación, entonación, lenguaje corporal) n) Capacidad de identificar y analizar el papel de los elementos ficcionales (localización, personajes y tiempo narrativo) en películas o) Capacidad de reconstruir el mensaje del texto a pesar de la presencia de vocabulario desconocido, o de la calidad deficiente de la grabación, presencia de ruidos de fondo, etc.	evaluar la objetividad en la presentación de ideas, descripción de hechos, etc. en presentaciones tanto preparadas como improvisadas. Identificar la intención del hablante en textos descriptivos y argumentativos: clarificar una idea, guiar a la audiencia mediante preguntas retóricas, utilización de la ironía, etc. así como a partir de elementos lingüísticos y paralingüísticos. Conocer y saber aplicar las estrategias adecuadas para la comprensión del sentido general, la información esencial, de los puntos e ideas principales o los detalles relevantes del texto. Utilizar para la comprensión del texto conocimientos previos, tanto relacionados con la lengua como provenientes de la cultura general, que ayuden a resolver errores en la comprensión. Discriminar patrones sonoros, acentuales, rítmicos y de entonación, y utilizarlos para ayudar a la comprensión. Analizar los elementos ficcionales en películas (localización, personajes, narración).	documentales, programas de TV y películas en inglés estándar o en inglés no estándar. Identifica el punto de vista, los sentimientos y la intención del hablante en textos descriptivos y argumentativos sobre temas conocidos o de actualidad. Distingue entre hechos y opiniones en debates, discursos y conferencias sobre temas conocidos o de actualidad, y evalúa la objetividad de los mismos. Utiliza estrategias de comprensión oral apropiadas a cada tipo de texto.
BLOQUE 2 - PRODUCCIÓN DE TEXTOS ORALES: EXPRESIÓN E INTERACCIÓN		
CONTENIDOS ESPECÍFICOS		
CONTENIDOS	CRITERIOS DE EVALUACIÓN	ESTÁNDARES DE APRENDIZAJE EVALUABLES
a) Participación en la interacción cotidiana en el aula, especialmente en el trabajo en parejas y	Participar de manera espontánea y natural en la interacción en clase, tanto con los compañeros	Hace presentaciones bien estructuradas, ensayadas previamente y con apoyo visual (p. ej.

grupos, así como en la interacción con el docente b) Participación en debates: presentar opiniones propias con precisión, rebatir las opiniones de los demás, pedir aclaración, hacer preguntas, etc. c) Producción de presentaciones detalladas, con una estructura clara y preparada de antemano sobre temas o cuestiones de su interés en diferentes formatos (reportaje, discursos, presentaciones) d) Capacidad de estructurar una presentación o intervención en un debate de manera coherente y convincente, distinguiendo entre ideas principales y secundarias, utilizando ejemplos y elementos estilísticos (ironía, exageración, personificación, pregunta retórica, etc.) para dar fuerza a los puntos de vista y argumentos utilizados e) Capacidad de desviarse del guión preparado en debates y presentaciones para responder a intervenciones de otros participantes o a peticiones de aclaración f) Capacidad de iniciar, mantener y llevar a término conversaciones en contextos más o menos formales así como de reparar los problemas que puedan aparecer mediante la repetición, paráfrasis o aclaración g) Capacidad de responder a preguntas y peticiones de aclaración o repetición y corregir errores si han llevado a confusión h) Utilización efectiva de conectores típicos del lenguaje hablado para identificar la relación entre ideas i) Capacidad de diferenciar entre un registro más o menos formal y de escoger el más adecuado para cada situación comunicativa	como con el docente. Producir textos de longitud media preparados de antemano (presentaciones, discursos, etc.), tanto en conversación cara a cara como por medios técnicos, en un registro formal, informal o neutro, en los que se presentan información, ideas y opiniones, se justifican de manera convincente, y se formulan hipótesis y propuestas de solución. Participar en debates sobre temas conocidos y de actualidad siendo capaz de presentar opiniones con claridad, rebatir opiniones de los demás, pedir aclaraciones, hacer preguntas, desviarse del guión preparado, etc. Conocer y saber aplicar las estrategias más adecuadas para iniciar, mantener y llevar a término textos orales monológicos o dialógicos de longitud media, explotando los recursos de los que se dispone: utilización de frases hechas, muletillas, paráfrasis cuando no se conocen las palabras precisas, reformulaciones, etc. Estructurar una presentación o intervención en un debate de manera coherente y convincente, distinguiendo entre ideas principales y secundarias, utilizando ejemplos y elementos estilísticos (ironía, exageración, personificación, pregunta retórica, etc.) para dar fuerza a los puntos de vista y argumentos utilizados. Construir argumentaciones coherentes y convincentes utilizando ilustraciones y gráficos para dar fuerza a las mismas, así como evaluar la calidad y fuerza de una argumentación. Mostrar un buen control sobre un amplio repertorio de estructuras sintácticas comunes y avanzadas, aunque se pueden producir errores al	PowerPoint, vídeo), sobre aspectos concretos de temas de interés personal o de actualidad, organizando la información de manera coherente, explicando las ideas principales con claridad, ilustrando las explicaciones con ejemplos y respondiendo a preguntas de los oyentes. Produce argumentaciones y comentarios críticos bien estructurados, utilizando los conectores adecuados, así como datos, gráficos e ilustraciones para dar fuerza a las argumentaciones. Participa adecuadamente en conversaciones informales cara a cara sobre asuntos cotidianos o menos habituales, en las que intercambia información y expresa y justifica opiniones y puntos de vista; describe de forma coherente situaciones y hechos relacionados con temas de actualidad; propone soluciones y genera hipótesis y expresa y justifica valoraciones e interpretaciones de textos; narra y describe de forma coherente hechos complejos ocurridos en el pasado; hace predicciones sobre situaciones futuras complejas; expresa planes e intenciones detallados sobre un futuro más o menos cercano. Inicia intercambios y contribuye a ellos con relativa facilidad, siendo capaz de reformular sus intervenciones o pedir aclaración en caso de problemas en la comunicación. Utiliza frases hechas y muletillas para ganar tiempo en una situación real de comunicación. Adapta su registro a la situación comunicativa. Su pronunciación, ritmo, acentuación y entonación son adecuadas, siendo capaz de utilizar la acentuación, el ritmo y la entonación

j) Capacidad de describir y explicar un gráfico o una ilustración para dar fuerza a una argumentación k) Capacidad de expresar ideas concretas y abstractas, hacer propuestas, generar hipótesis, etc. l) Capacidad de resumir lo escuchado a modo de clarificación m) Capacidad de utilizar sinónimos, aproximaciones y paráfrasis en situaciones en las que no conoce un determinado término n) Capacidad de expresar actitudes y puntos de vista de manera indirecta o) Capacidad de recabar y seleccionar información pertinente de diferentes fuentes así como de resumirla para una presentación p) Utilización efectiva de recursos de las TIC para las presentaciones orales en diferentes modalidades (visual, audiovisual, digital) q) Pronunciación, acentuación, entonación y ritmo sin errores que lleven a confusión	hablar de temas desconocidos o abstractos. Seleccionar los elementos adecuados de coherencia y de cohesión textual para organizar el discurso de manera eficaz. Conocer y utilizar léxico oral relativo a asuntos cotidianos y de interés general, así como a temas más abstractos, y seleccionar el léxico apropiado al contexto y la audiencia. Pronunciar y entonar los enunciados de manera clara y comprensible, utilizando estos recursos para añadir expresividad al mensaje. Mantener el ritmo del discurso con la fluidez suficiente para hacer comprensible el mensaje incluso en intervenciones más extensas, aunque pueda producirse alguna pausa, vacilación o reformulación de lo que se quiere expresar en situaciones menos habituales o en intervenciones más largas.	para añadir expresividad al mensaje. Utiliza una variedad de léxico, estructuras y colocaciones, en ocasiones complejas, aunque todavía comete errores cuando se trata de temas menos conocidos o abstractos. Utiliza los recursos TIC para producir presentaciones orales en diferentes formatos de manera efectiva, y en las que el elemento visual contribuye claramente a construir un mensaje claro y convincente.
BLOQUE 3 - COMPRENSIÓN DE TEXTOS ESCRITOS CONTENIDOS ESPECÍFICOS		
CONTENIDOS	CRITERIOS DE EVALUACIÓN	ESTÁNDARES DE APRENDIZAJE EVALUABLES
a) Anticipación del contenido en textos tanto literarios como argumentativos y de opinión con diferentes niveles de formalidad b) Capacidad de adaptar la estrategia lectora a las características del texto y las necesidades de la tarea (skimming, scanning, extensive reading,	Identificar la información general y detallada en textos, tanto en formato impreso como en soporte digital, breve y extenso, escritos en un estilo literario o no literario, que traten de asuntos cotidianos o temas de actualidad, y que contengan una amplia variedad estructuras gramaticales y	Entiende el sentido general, los puntos principales y los detalles de textos argumentativos, de análisis literario y de opinión, a pesar de la presencia de vocabulario desconocido. Distingue entre ideas principales y secundarias, así como entre hechos y opiniones, en textos

intensive reading) c) Comprensión general y detallada de textos literarios, argumentativos y de opinión con diferentes niveles de formalidad d) Diferenciación entre ideas principales y justificaciones y ejemplos en textos argumentativos de opinión e) Identificación de la intención del autor y sus puntos de vista a partir de parámetros lingüísticos (elección de léxico y estructuras sintácticas) f) Capacidad de comprender el efecto y el significado de elementos estilísticos y estrategias discursivas en textos literarios y no literarios (ironía, metáfora, personificación, generalización, etc.) g) Comprensión del texto a pesar de la presencia de vocabulario desconocido h) Capacidad de identificar y analizar el papel de los elementos ficcionales (localización, personajes y narración) en textos literarios de diferentes géneros (narración, poesía y teatro) i) Capacidad de identificar cuándo un autor está utilizando las ideas de otro (paráfrasis o cita), y cuándo las ideas son propias j) Capacidad crítica para evaluar la calidad de un texto en cuanto a su argumentación, objetividad, efectividad y calidad de las fuentes utilizadas k) Inferencia de puntos de vista y opiniones que no se expresan de manera abierta l) Identificación de los principios organizativos que estructuran un texto m) Apoyo de las interpretaciones del significado, del efecto o de la calidad de un texto en	elementos léxicos. Conocer y saber aplicar las estrategias más adecuadas para la comprensión de los puntos e ideas principales o los detalles relevantes de textos tanto breves como extensos. Identificar e inferir la intención y el punto de vista del autor, y localizar los elementos lingüísticos que los expresan. Apoyar las inferencias hechas acerca del significado y efecto del texto en evidencias tomadas del mismo. Identificar los elementos estilísticos (ironía, metáfora, personificación, generalización, etc.) y las estrategias discursivas (secuenciación de las ideas, etc.), así como los principios organizativos en textos literarios y no literarios. Identificar y analizar el papel de los elementos ficcionales (localización, personajes y narración) en textos literarios de diferentes géneros (narración, poesía, teatro). Comprender el léxico escrito tanto estudiado previamente como desconocido, mediante la utilización de conocimientos lingüísticos y el uso del contexto y co-texto. Distinguir entre ideas propias y ajenas en un texto. Evaluar, con la ayuda de parámetros dados, la calidad de un texto en función de su argumentación, objetividad y la calidad de las fuentes de información utilizadas y justificar esta evaluación con evidencias tomadas del texto.	argumentativos, de análisis literario y de opinión, a pesar de la presencia de vocabulario desconocido. Entiende textos literarios de diferentes géneros y estilos, siempre que sean adecuados a su nivel de madurez. Comprende y explica el papel de los elementos ficcionales (localización, personajes y narración) en textos literarios de diferentes géneros (narración, poesía, teatro). Identifica la intención del autor y sus puntos de vista, así como el significado y el efecto del texto, y sabe justificar estas interpretaciones con evidencias tomadas del texto. Distingue entre ideas propias del autor y aquellas que toma de otras fuentes. Es capaz de evaluar la calidad de un texto en relación a su argumentación, objetividad y la calidad de las fuentes utilizadas con ayuda de parámetros dados y justifica esta evaluación adecuadamente.

evidencias tomadas del mismo		
BLOQUE 4 - PRODUCCIÓN DE TEXTOS ESCRITOS: EXPRESIÓN E INTERACCIÓN CONTENIDOS ESPECÍFICOS		
CONTENIDOS	CRITERIOS DE EVALUACIÓN	ESTÁNDARES DE APRENDIZAJE EVALUABLES
a) Producción de textos argumentativos y de opinión tanto formal como informal con la ayuda de modelos b) Capacidad de expresar una misma idea utilizando registros diferentes c) Utilización de diferentes niveles de abstracción en las diferentes partes del texto d) Capacidad de describir y explicar un gráfico, una tabla o ilustración como parte de un texto informativo e) Capacidad de combinar diferentes sub-géneros en un mismo texto (resumen, descripción, comentario crítico, etc.) f) Capacidad de expresar y describir un problema o un hecho con cierto grado de detalle g) Capacidad de construir argumentaciones coherentes con una estructura lógica clara h) Capacidad de expresar el resultado de un análisis literario que identifica y analiza el papel de los elementos ficcionales (localización, personajes y narración) en textos literarios de diferentes géneros (narración, poesía y teatro) i) Elaboración de las ideas principales en un texto argumentativo y expositivo mediante ejemplos, explicaciones y justificaciones j) Utilización de evidencias para dar fuerza a la	Escribir, en papel o en soporte electrónico, textos de longitud media o extensa, coherentes y de estructura clara, sobre temas de interés personal, o asuntos de actualidad, en un registro formal, neutro o informal, utilizando adecuadamente los recursos de coherencia y cohesión, las convenciones ortográficas y los signos de puntuación, y mostrando dominio de expresiones, estructuras y léxico de uso frecuente, tanto de carácter general como más específico. Conocer, seleccionar y aplicar las estrategias más adecuadas para elaborar textos escritos, entendiendo que la escritura es un proceso iterativo. Incorporar a la producción del texto escrito los conocimientos adquiridos mediante la investigación y búsqueda de fuentes fiables, dando fuerza a las descripciones y argumentaciones mediante la utilización de datos, gráficos e ilustraciones, así como mediante otros recursos tales como la secuenciación de ideas. Estructurar el texto escrito de manera eficaz utilizando elementos de cohesión y coherencia adecuados, división en párrafos con conexión lógica entre ellos, así como una introducción y conclusión eficaces, también en el	Redacta textos argumentativos, de análisis y de opinión, sobre temas de su interés o de actualidad, respetando las características de los diferentes tipos de texto (ensayo, entrada de blog, comentario crítico, etc.). Expresa y describe un problema o hecho con cierto grado de detalle, y construye argumentaciones de forma efectiva y lógica, utilizando evidencias y datos para dar fuerza a la argumentación, y citando sus fuentes correctamente. Estructura los textos que escribe en párrafos creando una conexión lógica entre los mismos y aplicando un principio organizativo claro. Redacta una introducción y conclusión efectivas. Elabora las ideas principales de un texto mediante ejemplos y explicaciones, utilizando de esta manera diferentes niveles de abstracción en diferentes partes del texto. Combina con eficacia diferentes sub-géneros textuales para construir un texto más complejo. Adapta la estructura del texto y su registro, a las características propias de cada género textual, así como a la situación comunicativa, audiencia y función, apoyándose para ello en los

argumentación (evidencias del texto comentado, datos, estadísticas, etc.) de manera que estén perfectamente integradas en el texto escrito k) Capacidad de recabar, seleccionar y sintetizar información de diferentes fuentes y resumirla l) Utilización de principios organizativos para estructurar de manera eficaz el texto escrito, también en el caso de un texto más extenso m) Utilización de elementos para asegurar la coherencia y la cohesión de los textos (conectores; utilización correcta de las referencias; sinónimos, etc.) n) Utilización de una variedad de estructuras oracionales para mantener el interés del lector o) Capacidad de dividir el texto en párrafos con una estructura clara, y redactar una introducción que vertebré claramente el texto (thesis statement) y una conclusión que lo cierre de manera convincente p) Capacidad de generar ideas y buscar información, planificar la estructura del texto, identificar los recursos lingüísticos necesarios, etc. q) Redacción iterativa de los textos en la que se redacta una parte, se relee, se modifica, se sigue redactando, etc.	caso de textos más extensos. Combinar diferentes sub-géneros (resumen, descripción, comentario crítico, etc.) en un mismo texto con el fin de construir textos más complejos. Escribir textos atractivos mediante la utilización de una variedad de estructuras sintácticas elementos léxicos y recursos estilísticos (exageración, ironía, etc.), así como títulos atractivos que llamen la atención del lector. Llevar a cabo las funciones requeridas por el propósito comunicativo, utilizando un repertorio amplio de exponentes comunes de dichas funciones y de los patrones discursivos habituales. Mostrar un buen control, aunque con alguna influencia de la primera lengua u otras, sobre un amplio repertorio de estructuras sintácticas. Conocer y utilizar léxico escrito de uso común relativo a asuntos cotidianos, a temas de actualidad y al análisis y la crítica literaria, así como un repertorio amplio de expresiones idiomáticas de uso frecuente. Utilizar las convenciones ortográficas, de puntuación y de formato más frecuentes con corrección, aunque todavía puede darse alguna influencia de la primera u otras lenguas; saber manejar los recursos básicos de procesamiento de textos para corregir los errores ortográficos de los textos que se producen en formato electrónico, y adaptarse a las convenciones de escritura de los diferentes tipos de texto (p. ej. comentario vs. análisis literario).	modelos trabajados. Es capaz de corregir la mayoría de errores ortográficos o problemas de estructura y secuenciación lógica, así como de coherencia y cohesión. Mantiene el interés del lector utilizando títulos interesantes, así como una variedad de estructuras gramaticales, de vocabulario, expresiones idiomáticas, recursos estilísticos (exageración, ironía, etc.) y colocaciones en textos sobre temas conocidos o de actualidad, pero todavía muestra carencias cuando escribe sobre temas más abstractos o menos conocidos. Muestra un buen nivel de corrección en la utilización de estructuras gramaticales avanzadas. Comete algunos errores cuando expresa ideas más complejas en oraciones más largas y cuando habla de temas menos conocidos, pero estos errores no interfieren en la comunicación. La ortografía y el uso de signos de puntuación son generalmente correctos.

CONTENIDOS LINGÜÍSTICOS ESPECÍFICOS		
A) Linguistic functions Describir: <i>There is / there are; The first impression we get of X is...; Its main characteristic is...</i> Definir: <i>X is a Y that...</i> Resumir: <i>This text / film is about...; On the whole, the text is saying...; In this text the author indicates / points out / emphasizes / concludes that...; To support the main claim, the author provides evidence that...</i> Construir conocimiento a partir de las ideas de otro: <i>My idea / explanation is similar to / related to...; My idea builds upon X's idea that...; I agree but would phrase it a bit differently / add something else / look at it from a different perspective</i> Justificar: <i>The reason is...; This can be seen from...; I believe this because...; My primary reason for thinking so is...; Perhaps the most convincing reason for thinking so is...</i> Dar opiniones, rebatir: <i>Based on my experience, I think / believe that...; In my opinion; As for me...; I don't agree...; I see your point, but...; Unlike X, I think / believe that; I see it differently.</i> Pedir opiniones: <i>What do you think? Do you agree? What about you? What do you make of this? What is your take on X?</i> Pedir información / aclaración: <i>Something else I'd like to know...; Could you be more specific about this? If I have understood correctly, your point is that... Sorry, but I'm not (quite) clear on... In other words, you think...</i> Parafrasear: <i>So you are saying that...; What I hear you saying is that...; In other words, you think...</i> Dar información: <i>The statistics are misleading because they do (not) show; These facts / reasons / data strongly suggest that... Yet some authors maintain that...</i> Expresar causa – efecto: <i>The most likely reason for X was Y; X wasn't caused by Y because; Several factors led to the outcome. First, ...; The change resulted in...; The X led to Y, which in turn led to Z</i> Analizar: <i>We can interpret X as...; Given the evidence, we can deduce that...; X is related to Y in so far as...; We can draw parallels between texts / characters / the setting and the narrative because...</i> Expresar interpretaciones de manera tentativa: <i>X seems to indicate that...; X could be interpreted as meaning...; We could assume X to mean...; This would mean that...</i> Argumentar: <i>Based on the evidence presented so far, I believe that... The advantages of ... outweigh the disadvantages of ... insofar as...; Although some people claim that..., opponents argue that...</i> Concluir argumentaciones: <i>At the end of the day...; summing up...; Having reached this point</i> B) Grammatical elements Utilización de expresiones adverbiales idiomáticas para expresar tiempo: <i>on the brink of / on the point of...</i> Construcciones condicionales complejas con <i>should</i>, <i>only if</i> y <i>as if / as though</i>		

Utilización de un registro académico caracterizado por construcciones pasivas (*It is generally believed that...*), nominalizaciones (*the development of the main character*), construcciones atributivas complejas (*the narrative tension created by the author in this text...*), y términos técnicos (personification)

Oraciones de relativo complejas: oraciones con preposición (*In the churchyard there is a huge stone, from which the village takes its name /... which the village takes its name from*)

Utilización de oraciones con la estructura invertida para dar énfasis (*clefing, fronting: Under no circumstances should you talk to strangers; No matter what she says, they always laugh...*)

Utilización de oraciones adverbiales reducidas (*Having had a similar experience earlier, he knew exactly how to act ...*)

Construcciones pasivas complejas (*My parrot loves to be talked to; It could be achieved; This needs to be done; It was thought that / it was assumed that...; Children love being read to; The houses had already been destroyed; This needs to be given some attention...*)

C) Lexis

Uso de expresiones comunes, frases hechas y léxico sobre temas de interés personal y general, temas cotidianos y temas relacionados con los contenidos del currículum

Reconocimiento de sinónimos y antónimos, false friends

Uso de una variedad de conectores (*due to; so; though; unless; so as; in order not to; however; on condition that...*)

Utilización de expresiones más frecuentes en el vocabulario académico según el Academic Word List, tales como: *authority; available; benefit; constitutional; economic; established; evidence; identified; legal; legislation; major; policy; principle; procedure; research; significant; similar; source; specific; structure; theory*

Comprensión de expresiones frecuentes en el vocabulario académico según el Academic Word List, tales como: *achieve; affect; appropriate; aspects; categories; chapter; complex; conclusion; consequences; cultural; design; elements; evaluation; features; final; focus; impact; items obtained; perceived; positive; potential; previous; primary; region; relevant; resources; restricted; sought; select; strategies; survey; text; traditional; transfer*

D) Phonetics

Producción de patrones de ritmo, entonación y acentuación de palabras y frases

Pronunciación correcta de los fonemas consonánticos fricativos y africados

Reconocimiento progresivo de símbolos fonéticos

APPENDIX M. GENRES IN THE ADVANCED ENGLISH CURRICULUM

TEXT TYPE AND STRUCTURE	EXAMPLES OF TEXTS	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING - INTERACTING	THINKING SKILLS	POSSIBLE SOURCE OF TEXT
Consequential explanation (multiple outcomes from one cause). Background information: topic & thesis statement; State effect, enumerate and explore causes and cause groups; Conclusion (restate thesis; consider implications)	Reports (newspaper / magazine & radio / TV). Documentaries. Political speeches & analyses Blog post	Critically evaluate information in an academic text using different criteria (logical relation, plausibility, strength of the argument, etc. Understand cause and effect relationships in a text of some complexity. Identify purpose and tone of extended text.	Describe / hypothesize about cause- effect relationships using appropriate discourse markers. Skillfully convey information and ideas about complex topics. Use data or evidence from academic texts to support argumentation. Create an effective thesis statement that holds the text together. Create logical sequence of ideas to construct a convincing explanation.	Evaluate a claim or hypothesis. Identify logical flaws in a presentation. Understand documentaries, interviews and political speeches in standard speech. Understand cause and effect relationship in formal and informal conversation at natural speed. Identify main and supporting ideas, examples, etc. in presentations, debates and speeches. Recognize the purpose and tone of a speech and presentation.	Present ideas with precision. Talk about possible events and actions, ad their consequences. Give well-structured presentations with clear main and supporting ideas about familiar topics. Exchange complex information if given time to do some research. Suggest alternative explanations in a discussion. Explain / hypothesize about cause and effect. Express a point of view skillfully with the help of supporting ideas and examples. Use graphs and figures to give strength to argumentation.	Distinguish between facts and opinions. Build on other people's ideas to construct own ideas. Use graphic organizers to aid understanding and plan own text. Evaluate the strength of an argumentation.	Magazines (Time, Newsweek, National Geographic). TED talks. Final speech from "The King's Speech".
Argumentative essay (more than one point of view)	Panel discussion. Debate (also in	Identify the organizing principle used for structuring	Use structure skillfully to achieve the desired effect in a	Identify speaker's resources that may influence the	Present ideas and arguments with precision and	Evaluate the strength and soundness of an argumentation.	Opinion columns from newspapers

Introduction (background + thesis statement) present both sides of controversy either as blocks or looking at argument and counterargument; Conclusion	games like Just a Minute). Formal written essay. Informal writing (letter, email...) presenting arguments in favour and against a decision that needs to be taken.	the text. Identify strategies used by the author to convince the reader (sequencing of arguments; exaggeration; generalisation, etc.). Evaluate the quality of the argumentation looking at pre-established criteria (strength of argument; logical relation, etc.). Understand intended double meanings of words in a text.	text. Establish logical connections between argument and the next. Write coherent texts with varying degree of formality and using a range of different sentence structures.	meaning of what is said (irony, rhetorical questions, etc.). Follow and evaluate abstract argumentation. Understand a group discussion, even when it is animated.	strength Use of linguistic and Paralinguistic devices to highlight the important points in a presentation, discussion or debate. Interact with other speakers naturally, providing clarification or presenting counterarguments.	Just a Minute TV debates	Films: MyFair Lady; Untouchable <i>The Boy in the Striped Pjamas</i> by John Boyne Interpretations of literary texts (e.g. The Red Wheel Barrow https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yM_nN_Zak2os or Crash course in literature https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MSYw02dJNY&list=PL8dp
Critical / analytical response to a literary text Background; thesis; arguments; Conclusion	Analytical essay based on a film / novel. Debate about conflicting interpretations of an aspect of a film / novel.	Use relevant material from academic textbooks and articles to support or challenge an interpretation. Recognize poetic and stylistic devices in literary texts and understand their effect. Understand intended double meanings of words in a text.	Write a well-structured, clear academic paper. Clearly convey results of the analysis of a text. Introduce and reference sources in written academic work; use citations effectively. Combine the genre requirements of different text to create a convincing critical / analytical response essay.	Understand formal lectures on literary texts. Identify when the speaker is referring to the text and when s/he is explaining his/her opinions. Identify change of focus and topic in an extended presentation or lecture.	Participate actively in group work or literary circles. Volunteer own interpretations and analyses, in tentative language where appropriate. Present own or group's analyses and interpretations in a formal, well-structured presentation. Use evidence from the text as necessary.	Identify the main tensions in a literary text or film. Identify the development of characters, structure of the narrative and the role of the setting in a narrative text. Identify academic sources to aid interpretation and analysis and use them effectively.	Identify the main tensions in a literary text or film. Identify the development of characters, structure of the narrative and the role of the setting in a narrative text. Identify academic sources to aid interpretation and analysis and use them effectively.

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Personal response: Introduction: title, author and publication; one sentence summary; thesis statement; discussion of what you liked / disliked / (dis)agreed with referring to the text. Conclusion re-stating thesis statement.	Comment on a film / book / text / theatre play / concert / TV show. Film / book, etc. review.	Critically evaluate the strength of a judgement / comment on a film, book, etc. Position oneself in relation to the opinion expressed. Distinguish facts from evaluation and opinion.	Summarize and comment on a wide range of texts / cultural artifacts. Write personal texts (blog post, email, etc.) commenting on films / TV shows / books, etc. Take notes of the main points in a presentation delivered in fast speech.	Understand the meaning and use of stylistic devices such as exaggeration, irony, ordering of ideas, use of rhetorical questions, etc. Distinguish between summary and evaluation. Identify digressions and paraphrases in a longer, academic presentation. Understand extended text without the help of images.	Adapt the degree of formality of the presentation to its audience. Position oneself in relation to the opinion expressed. Distinguish facts from evaluation and opinion. Summarise the plot of a book / film in a few sentences. Use a range of evaluative language effectively. Answer questions about a presentation spontaneously and with some degree of linguistic complexity.	Use graphic organizers to aid understanding and plan own text. Distinguish between commenting and plot telling.	Reviews of film / book / theatre from amazon.uk, for example. More formal reviews from https://www.teenreads.com or https://www.emilysrearing.com ; http://www.goodchoiceading.com/ (books), or https://www.teenink.com/reviews/ (films)	“My favourite books” videos from YouTube

Suggested non-fiction resources:

Channel One News Teen Kids News CNN Student News PBS Newshour Extra Youth Radio HuffPost Teen
 NPR News Time Newsela Poynter
 National Geographic TED Ed
 Crash Course Videos
 Videos from the British Library YouTube Channel
 The Learning Network from NY Times

Suggested literary works:

We were Liars by E. Lockhart
Me and Earl and the Dying Girl by Jesse Andrews
Where Things Come Back by John Corey
The Outsiders by S. E. Hinton
Mosquitoland by David Amold
Salt to Sea by Ruta Sepetys

APPENDIX N. INTERVIEW ANALYSIS: DISTRIBUTION AND GROUPING OF CODES

Codified codes in MAXQDA

Color	Código	Segmentos codificados (todos los documentos)
●	no time for extra work	1
●	feasible - reduce syllabus	1
●	coordination meetings	1
●	normal preparation	2
●	alternatives to teach grammar	1
●	ideal	1
●	methodological alternatives	1
●	smaller groups	1
●	relevance of writing	1
●	writings per term	2
●	more teaching hours	1
●	little progress in EFL	4
●	sts awareness	1
●	for expression and comprehension	1
●	more demanding	2
●	same mission	3
●	emphasis on speaking	1
●	necessary	3
●	fantastic	1
●	sts like genre-based pedagogy	3
●	once a month	1
●	no CALP responsibility	3
●	a lot of work	3
●	different text treatment	1
●	common objectives proposal	2
●	unfeasible merged curriculum	1
●	Cambridge writing activities	1
●	changes in the curriculum	1
●	for functional interactions	3
●	help	1
●	lack of established function	1

●	different students	1
●	different objectives	1
●	different reality	1
●	different expectations	1
●	too much grammar	1
●	protocols	3
●	Soft CLIL/language driven	1
●	gradual lack of interest	2
●	irrelevant subject	2
●	CALP social demand	1
●	advantage of L1	1
●	more culture, literature, history	1
●	more phonetics	1
●	Soft CLIL	2
●	for register adequacy	2
●	for accuracy	1
●	involved	1
●	need to update	3
●	GAP-insecure teachers	3
●	no linguistic tools to access content	2
●	negative effects on content	7
●	need of interdisciplinarity	1
●	difficult to motivate	2
●	CALP for future	1
●	more academic tools	2
●	relevant	1
●	CALP through texts	1
●	co-planning in advance	6
●	native-like problems	1
●	active and prepared teachers	4
●	demanding beginning	1
●	finding content connections	1
●	textbook content deletion	1
●	often with drafts	4
●	higher level	5
●	Help to think	1
●	Pedagogy for CALP	2
●	more specific materials	3
●	way to connect	3

●	Effective	1
●	ESP-CLIL	3
●	materials creation	5
●	more relevant readings	2
●	more relevant content	2
●	interdisciplinary attitude	1
●	for general culture	4
●	for language reinforcement and maintenance	3
●	not official responsibility	2
●	textbook as basic content	2
●	superficial content	5
●	traditional books	1
●	reduce syllabus	1
●	need to connect	4
●	challenge-formal register	3
●	ambitious	4
●	need to write	1
●	advanced pedagogy	3
●	dense syllabus	1
●	lack of interdisciplinarity	1
●	lack of connection writing-grammar	1
●	lowering filter	5
●	filter to avoid language gap	2
●	comprehensible output	1
●	vehicular language	2
●	content prioritisation	2
●	natural practice	2
●	textual work	2
●	literature as an extra	6
●	content simplification	3
●	part of writing	4
●	interesting	4
●	more preparation time	2
●	feasible - group features	6
●	willing to implement	2
●	CALP problem	4
●	colloquial language	5
●	possibilities to apply	1
●	not extrapolated grammar	4

●	merged curriculum to change perception	1
●	prescribed collaboration needed	4
●	bottom-up	4
●	lack of formal collaboration	8
●	collaboration experience recall	5
●	isolated informal collaboration	9
●	interdepartmental work	2
●	integrating grammar - writing	3
●	grammar through sentences	4
●	expand for anglosphere culture	1
●	need to update	1
●	other sources of input	3
●	sts internal awareness	4
●	take advantage of the EFL teacher	7
●	same function	1
●	language of instruction	2
●	guide	1
●	for contextualised language use	4
●	for fluency	1
●	connecting role of EFL	3
●	needed adaptation	1
●	genre-based for language gap	1
●	language gap	8
●	active methodology for language gap	2
●	specific academic language	6
●	writing improvement	7
●	scaffolded process	4
●	enriching approach	1
●	requires collaboration	7
●	content insecurity	3
●	revealing data	8
●	time problem	2
●	advantages	1
●	vocabulary problem	1
●	Transition word problem	3
●	CALP assessment	6
●	CALP responsibility	9
●	L1 CALP	4
●	grammar partially extrapolated	3

●	fortnight	2
●	approach to help	1
●	feasible	12
●	useful approach	8
●	integrating grammar - speaking	4
●	teacher-dependent	3
●	sts find it useful	3
●	instrument	2
●	meetings needed	5
●	bilingual coordinator	1
●	lack of time	7
●	common objectives informally	1
●	time period organisation	1
●	assessment agreement	1
●	not established common objectives	5
●	merged curriculum	9
●	time period organisation	2
●	language reinforcement	5
●	new materials - texts	1
●	confirmation of role transformation	5
●	school management involvement	1
●	lack of predisposition	4
●	GAP - Teachers' fault	1
●	structures across subjects	1
●	specific academic language	1
●	proved positive academic results	1
●	enriching	1
●	not-interference	1
●	dual-focused	2

Synthesis of second-cycle coding for emerging themes

RQ1

(PRA)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Grammar issues	grammar through sentences	1	T2
		too much grammar	1	T5
		lack of connection writing-grammar	2	T2,T3
	alternative practices for grammar integration	integrating grammar - speaking	4	T1, T2, T5, T6
		integrating grammar - writing	3	T2, T3, T6
(TRA)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Evolution of teacher roles: innovation and new tasks	New materials - texts	2	T1, T6
		Textual work	2	T3, T4
		Language of instruction	2	T2, T5
		Literature as an extra	2	T3, T4
		Ambitious	2	T3 (x2), T4
		Advanced pedagogy as an extra/Methodological alternatives	2	T3, T4
		Materials creation	2	T3, T6
		Emphasis on speaking	1	T6
		More teaching hours	1	T6
		More demanding	1	T6
		Confirmation of role transformation	2	T1, T4
	Transformation of the school	Different expectations	1	T5

	setting	Different reality	1 (x2)	T5
		Different objectives	1	T5
		Different students	1	T5
		High level	4	T3, T4, T5, T6
(SUP)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Support - official position	Not official responsibility	2	T3, T5
		Lack of established functions	1	T5
(COL)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Lack of formal collaboration		5	T2, T3, T4, T5, T6
	Existing collaboration	coordination meetings	1	T5
	Isolated informal collaboration/bottom-up	collaboration experience recall	3	T2, T3, T4
		bottom-up	4	T2(x2), T3, T5, T6(x2)
	Factors hindering collaboration	Lack of time	4	T1, T3, T4, T5, T6
		Lack of predisposition	1	T1 (x2)
(GAP)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Language gap		4	T2, T4, T5, T6
	Causes	GAP-Teachers fault	1	T1
		Lack of predisposition	1	T1
		Lowering filter	1	T3
		GAP - Insecure teachers	1	T4
		No linguistic tools to access content	1	T4
	Actions taken	protocols	1	T5
(CUR)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Current curriculum	Traditional books	1	T3

	problems	dense syllabus	1	T3
		superficial content	2	T3, T4
		Little progress in EFL	1 (x2)	T6
		lack of interdisciplinarity	1	T3

RQ2

(SUP)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Supporting role	Connecting role of EFL	2	T2(x3), T6
		Language reinforcement	2	T1, T2,T4
		Help	1	T5
		Take advantage of EFL teacher	4	T1, T2, T4, T6
(COL)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Needs/suggestions for formal collaboration	Prescribed collaboration needed	3	T2, T4 (x2), T6 (x2)
		Meetings needed	2	T1, T6
		Time period organisation	2	T1, T2
		Assessment agreement	1	T1
		Interdepartmental work	2	T2, T6
		Structures across subjects	1	T1
EMERGING THEMES (CUR)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Proposals for integrated curriculum	Changes in the curriculum (not specified)	1	T5
		Time period organisation	1	T1

		Expand for anglosphere culture	2	T2, T4
		More Literature, History & culture	1	T4
		More Phonetics	1	T4
		Reduce syllabus	1	T3
		Textbook as basic content	1	T3
		More relevant readings	1	T3
		ESP-CLIL	1	T3
	feasibility of integrated curriculum	Merged curriculum	5	T1, T2, T3, T4, T6
		Unfeasible merged curriculum	1	T5
		ESP-CLIL	1	T3
	Other proposals	Smaller groups	1	T6
(VIS)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Role of language	Specific academic language	3	T1, T2, T6
		Content prioritisation	2	T3, T6
		Vehicular language	2	T3, T5
		Dual-focused	1	T1
		Comprehensible output	1	T3
	Positive impact	Not interference	1	T1
		Enriching	1	T1
		Proved positive academic results	1	T1
		Natural practice	1	T3
	Negative Impact	Content simplification	1	T3 (x2)

		Negative effects on content	1	T4
		Advantage of L1	1	T4
	Alternatives	Soft CLIL	1	T4
(PUR)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Functional perspective	For contextualised language use	2	T2, T4
		For functional interactions	1	T5
		For register adequacy	1	T4
	Other general purposes	Instrument	1	T1
		For fluency	1	T2
		For language reinforcement and maintenance	1	T3
		For general culture	2	T3, T4
		For accuracy	1	T4
		For expression and comprehension	1	T6
(STs)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Sts' interest/attitude	Sts internal awareness	2	T2, T4
		Sts find it useful	2	T1, T6
		Sts awareness	1	T6
		Gradual lack of interest	2	T2, T4
		Irrelevant subject	2	T4, T5(x2)
		Teacher-dependent	2	T1, T2
	Factors influencing sts attitude	Other sources of input	2	T2, T4
		Difficult to motivate	1	T4

		Grammar partially extrapolated	2	T1, T4
	Challenges and needs regarding students	Alternatives to teach grammar	1	T6
		Transition words problem	2	T1, T3
		CALP challenge/problem	1	T3 (x2)
		Need to connect	2	T3, T6
		Native-like problems	1	T3
		Need to update	1	T2
		Not extrapolated grammar	3	T2(x2), T5, T6
(CAL)	EMERGING THEME	SUBTHEMES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	CALP difficulty	colloquial language	3	T2, T3, T4, T6
		L1 CALP	3	T1, T6, T3
		CALP problem/challenge	1	T3
	EFL-CALP responsibility	CALP responsibility	5	T1, T2, T3, T4, T6
		No CALP responsibility	1	T5
		CALP assessment	5	T1, T2, T3, T4, T6
		CALP social demand	1	T4

RQ 3

	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
(UTI/ADV)	Participant conceptualization of the approach	Useful approach	4	T1, T2(x2), T3(x2), T5

		Enriching approach	1	T1
		Relevant	1	T4
		Necessary	3	T4, T5, T6
		Interesting	3	T2, T4, T5(x2)
		Fantastic	1	T5
		Effective	1	T3
		Ideal	1	T6
	Advantages and reasons (why it is beneficial)	Advantages	1	T1
		Scaffolded process	2	T1, T3(x2)
		Writing improvement	3	T1, T2, T4
		Way to connect	1	T3 (x2)
		Pedagogy for CALP	1	T3
		Different text treatment	1	T5
		Help to think	1	T3
	Revealing data		4	T1, T2, T5, T6
	Willing to implement		2	T2, T5
(FEA)	EMERGING THEME	CODES	INSTANCES	TEACHERS
	Feasibility	Feasible	4	T1, T4, T5, T6
		Determined by group features	2	T2 (x2), T4
		Feasible - reduce syllabus	1	T3
	Requirements for feasibility	Requires collaboration	3	T1, T3, T6
		More preparation time	2	T2, T5
		Finding content connections	1	T3
		Active and prepared teachers	1	T3
		A lot of work	1	T5
		Normal preparation	2	T4, T6

		Demanding beginning	1	T3
	Issues hindering feasibility	Time problem (cur)	1	T1
		No time for extra work (teacher)	1	T5
		Content insecurity	1	T1
	Proposals for feasibility	Part of writing	2	T2, T6
		Often with drafts	2	T3, T4
		Fortnight	2	T1, T4
		Once a month	1	T5
		Textbook content deletion	1	T3
		More specific materials (ESP)	1	T3 (x2)
		Co-planning in advance-collaboration	4	T1, T3, T5, T6

Map of codes



APPENDIX O. TRANSLATION OF INTERVIEW EXTRACTS

Most relevant transcription symbols (Jefferson, 2004)

=	Overlap
(number)	E.g. (3) Number of seconds of a relevant pause
↑	Rising pitch
:::	Sound lengthening
-	Sudden interruption
(())	Non-verbal or contextual information
(.)	Short pause

Chapter 6

Extract 6.1. - Teacher 6

What may be true is that there is a higher level here. The learners come from previous bilingual programmes so the level is higher compared with other schools.

Extract 6.2. - Teacher 3

Yes, they have the vocabulary. Obviously, it is for that reason that they come to the English classroom and we say “they know a lot”. They have it from other (content) lessons.

Extract 6.3. - Teacher 4

In terms of vocabulary it is true that they know a lot. It is obviously noticeable because they study the (content) subject in that language.

Extract 6.4. - Teacher 5

Yes, because the expectations are different. The students who choose this type of school, they choose it. So they know what this is about. I have 8 years of experience in a non-bilingual school and it has nothing to do with this. I also have experience in an official language school (EOI) and it has nothing to do with this. So there are different schools with different objectives and different students, obviously.

Extract 6.5. - Teacher 3

(...) the decree on bilingual education establishes that we do cooperative learning, ermm more advanced pedagogy. The truth is that you can be more ambitious with the bilingual students because you know that they are going to finish the assignment, they are not going to leave it unfinished.

Extract 6.6. - Teacher 4

So we have to widen the methodology, trying to elaborate more interesting projects from which you can exploit their full potential.

Extract 6.7. - Teacher 6

The grammar they know, the texts have to be more difficult, listening and oral production requires them to use more complex structures. So it is true that all this demands more from us, doesn't it? More preparation and more challenging activities.

Extract 6.8. - Teacher 1

In the past, we stuck to the book exclusively, something that we don't do now. But above all because we are a 'bilingual school', so there are other types of texts we can use and if we can support our colleagues, we do it.

Extract 6.9. - Teacher 3

(...) a set of readings that are more focused on texts than on History of Literature. The last few years we had periods of Literature. And now, it is about analysing and reading different types of texts and writing them.

Extract 6.10. - Teacher 5

When I set foot in the classroom I speak directly. This I couldn't do in the past. I couldn't speak in English. Because I couldn't. So it is completely different.

Extract 6.11. - Teacher 3

(...) in my discipline, it entails adding Literature to the bilingual programme, literary genres.

Extract 6.12. - Teacher 6

We highlight what has never been emphasised. The oral dimension, which had never been highlighted.

Extract 6.13. - Teacher 6

We have the same mission, which is trying that learners know English, master the discipline, the vocabulary, the grammar, and that they are able to speak. What may be true is that there is a higher level here. The learners come from previous bilingual programmes so the level is higher compared with other schools. But, in principle, our aim is trying their level of English be as high as possible, isn't it? The best possible command.

Extract 6.14. - Teacher 4

It is an added difficulty for learning. Above all because they don't have the tools to be able to express themselves [...] If you don't have the tool that is the language to express what you are thinking, how are you going to do it well?

Extract 6.15. - Teacher 3

Normally, it is not a problem because of the previous filter, but some of them, let's say, skip it, so they have a bad time to access knowledge if they don't speak the target language. But most of them, the vast majority of them understand perfectly [...] But we have had some exceptions that have 'slipped through the cracks'. So since the filter is no longer the PET or the KET exam - I get those two confused - it is said that the level of the learners who access the bilingual programme has lowered. It is new that one person doesn't understand a History lesson because their level of English is not high enough, because the filter used to be reliable. The level was higher.

Extract 6.16 - Teacher 1

But because I think that we don't do it right. We do our own thing. We don't let anyone in when it comes to adapting assessment criteria, or help each other. Because they may not be specialists in language, with knowledge of certain linguistic structures.

Extract 6.17. - Teacher 5

We are always ermm every month we have a meeting to check what students may have problems with the vehicular language of the content subjects. It is the teachers of the content subjects who inform us the English teachers. Although we also see it in the English classroom, of course.

Extract 6.18. - Teacher 3

No, my responsibility is to cover my syllabus. And the syllabus makes me read two novels, follow the textbook, etc. So it is not my responsibility. If I want to do it because I think it makes more sense and since I have the autonomy to do so, it is true that I can do it if I want to.

Extract 6.19. - Teacher 5

It has never been legally established, you know? A role of English teachers in that sense because it has been taken for granted that the content teachers are correctly certified, accredited.

Extract 6.20. - Teacher 3

The schedules are complex. Then, there are many extra activities, hours on call. So these hours on call that could be used to plan or talk with others, in the end everybody is covering other teachers. Partly because of the personal days off, partly because of the extra activity. So there is not a moment for teachers to meet with other colleagues.

Extract 6.21. - Teacher 6

We are busy all the time and we would need time to get started. Coordination takes time. And general agreement. And talk. And to come to agreements. Pose projects, activities. And that basically requires us to be together. Be together and do it with calm.

Extract 6.22. - Teacher 4

What it gets done is exclusively due to the pure teachers' personal willingness, motivation and commitment.

Extract 6.23. - Teacher 6

That is, we do collaborate from time to time. Not every week because it is not always easy to coordinate all that. But we collaborate in some isolated moments. It all arises from the CLIL department. From History, Arts & Crafts, in that sense it is normally them who ask for our help to collaborate with them.

Extract 6.24. - Teacher 2

We have worked together and helped each other, but in just some isolated moments. Well I remember one week in which we were studying a topic related to business and Economy in 4th ESO. The teacher of Economy was teaching similar vocabulary. It was useful that during that week, the students realised that the vocabulary they were learning in Economy, they were learning in English as well. So it was a good week. They were very interested in the content subject but in English as well. They realised that all that vocabulary they were learning with me could be applied to their other subject. So that week we worked together to review the vocabulary that this other teacher was going to teach and how I could help or explain to her

students, who in the end are my students as well. So in that case, yes. But in the end, it is a one-time thing.

Extract 6.25. - Teacher 3

The crisis I face as an English teacher is that I find these textbooks (she grabs a textbook) boring because they are exactly the same as those I used when I was - not when I was little, but well, yes, because communicative language teaching exists since the 70s, so it is the same type of book. They are not thematic enough so that you can go into a topic in depth.

Extract 6.26. - Teacher 4

But generally the topics covered in textbooks are those that have to do with the curriculum of English teaching, so they don't go any further than the daily topics, general environmental issues, society issues. And then, in the bilingual programme there is some historical and cultural part but as it is much more ambiguous, it all depends on what you want to do.

Extract 6.27 - Teacher 6

Many things have not changed. [...] We are still quite theoretical. And we should work on doing more projects, pursuing a more practical education, using teams. More productive activities instead of memorisation. After so many years, there has been little progress.

Extract 6.28. - Teacher 1

That's something I do. That the contents from the textbook that my colleagues are going to teach are similar to the same subject, the same level. [...] (content) teachers are referred to the teaching plan of the (English) subject that is taught. If they do it or not, that it is something that I don't know. But informally, it is done.

Extract 6.29. - Teacher 2

It is true that grammar learning is assessed in different ways, but maybe the most common is through sentences, through fill-in-the gap activities.

Extract 6.30. - Teacher 5

Right now the Advanced English curriculum revolves around trying to explain grammatical issues, to be honest. That's the feeling I have. It is all because of the aim to have them take official exams. That is the goal, but I don't feel comfortable with that.

Extract 6.31. - Teacher 3

Connecting grammar with writing is a success for me. In fact, the book does not include it in a connected way, because they teach the present perfect and you have to write an email. Or you may have to write a film review. I don't know, there is no need. They don't connect it, so I try to do it. Sometimes to find the connection with literature, connecting grammar with literature. That is what I am trying to do, creating connections within my small areas.

Extract 6.32. - Teacher 1

I spend little time on grammar, to be honest. They copy a general structure and what we do is use it. I use oral skills more than written skills, that's the truth. It is a language, so I focus more on the oral skills.

Extract 6.33. - Teacher 6

We try not to do many activities about 'pure' grammar, but to embed it in some kind of oral or written activity. That way, they are 'hidden' and learners may be more interested in that part of the language.

Chapter 7

Extract 7.1. - Teacher 1

I don't think that it is detrimental for content, despite what it is said. Because the most recent studies on learners who have just finished 2nd bachillerato, I was reading a few days ago, say that they are better prepared, with more knowledge than the students in mainstream education. Therefore, the myth that contents are reduced is false.

Extract 7.2. - Teacher 3

It is not that they don't care, it is not a bad thing. What I mean is that they are not thinking if what they are saying is present or future or past. They are thinking that Elisabeth, the Catholic Monarch whatever. So they are using language in such a way, without thinking, with some end and that makes them be more interested in using it.

Extract 7.3. - Teacher 4

We cannot take a language that is in the process of being acquired to learn content that has nothing to do with it, because the content is likely to be diminished or not fixed as they should. It is an added difficulty for learning. And above all because they don't have the necessary skills to express themselves. If you don't have that tool that is the language to express what you are thinking, how are you going to do it right? From my point of view, it is harmful, there is some kind of segregation.

Extract 7.4. - Teacher 4

The ability to understand, reading comprehension, critical thinking. We need all these things to be able to express ourselves correctly, and have clear ideas as well. And for that, we need our mother tongue. Because we really need to have a high proficiency to be able to deal with those contents and assume them. From my point of view, we cannot use content. It is different when the goal is language learning because the content is an excuse, but not the other way around.

Extract 7.5. - Teacher 3

I think that the content is slightly simplified, it is less dense, from what I have seen.

Extract 7.6. - Teacher 5

(English) is simply the vehicular language, it should not be more than that.

Extract 7.7. - Teacher 3

Are they made to reflect upon language functioning? I don't think so. This is known by everybody, isn't it? I don't have a clue. They go for content first, I guess that if their target was grammar, it would be catastrophic, wouldn't it?

Extract 7.8. - Teacher 2

(...) they expand some vocabulary and grammar that does not necessarily have anything to do with the English subject but with other areas (...) academic language. Some specific language, depending on the field of each content subject.

Extract 7.9. - Teacher 3

As some kind of English reinforcement and general culture [...] a more rigorous maintenance [...] And another role of ours is to polish bad habits that they are taking from various places. For example, the fight against 'that' at the beginning of a sentence.

Extract 7.10. - Teacher 2

I believe that internally they do know that it is important for their lives. I think they know that English is important; and not only English, studying, knowing languages. I think they are aware of that.

Extract 7.11. - Teacher 4

It is really part of their existence in general. Passing this subject is not a big special challenge for them. It is very difficult to motivate them. And nothing surprises them, because all the resources that we used to have in the English subject and that everybody loved, today they don't. Having a song in class used to be cool but it is not any more. I don't think they value the subject. I personally believe they don't. For them, it is important to know English. And I have witnessed this transformation clearly.

Extract 7.12. - Teacher 2

We are no longer their only source of input because they have many tools at their disposal, apart from easier access. In other words, they always have the chance to watch a film, a series or a video in English. The information they look for in Youtube, they can do it in English.

Extract 7.13. - Teacher 4

They play online, they watch films, all the terminology, social networks. What I mean is that films and many other things they watch are no longer dubbed or they just watch the original version on platforms. So it is not a big effort for them to pass this subject.

Extract 7.14. - Teacher 3

I am looking for something that allows me to connect, to make them connect things, because they don't do it. (...=) But what is really missing is the step forward from knowing grammar to using it when they speak or write. We don't have a method that connects them right now.

Extract 7.15. - Teacher 6

That is one of the biggest issues that is always in my mind and that I have discussed with all the department and the people I know. How to make them put the theory we teach them into practice. How to be able to use all the knowledge they have, because they have it, don't they? Modals, as in the example you used, passive voice, reported speech. That they were able to speak and write using those structures. That is the difficulty. What I try is to introduce all those structures through texts, readings or listenings, in which they are embedded.

Extract 7.16. - Teacher 3

So formal language is a challenge because for them it is all informal, as in TV series. They think - and this has been studied because I have learned it in language acquisition - “if I am able to communicate, why do you teach me grammar? (...) I am able to communicate” You know what I mean. (...) I find it hard to convince them of how important accuracy and to speak properly is. The formal register throws them off.

Extract 7.17. - Teacher 2

The English teacher could help learners understand better the vocabulary and grammar in the English subject that are also applied in other subjects. In other words, help them understand a Biology or History text better. I think that the English teacher could do more, could be more involved; not only in their subjects, but also help the students understand better other things that are also covered in English.

Extract 7.18 - Teacher 2

It could be solved errmm maybe improving the method, maybe in the English lessons, English as a Foreign Language, so that that English applied to the different disciplines, if used and learned properly, can be easier. So we must have a solid foundation and apply it from the beginning so that it can help them understand History or Biology texts better.

Extract 7.19. - Teacher 2

If there were some guidelines, or any school proposal for the different departments to work together, they would probably do it. Of course we can work together from time to time if we need each other. But if the school had regulations (.) I think we would applied it faster and sooner. I even believe that it is necessary. It would be a great idea.

Extract 7.20. - Teacher 4

It can and should be done. It could even be assessed. But it is not registered in the legal framework, so as with many other aspects in our professions, what we do is due to teachers' pure and exclusive will, motivation and commitment (...) I think that we should cooperate with other teachers more often than what we do.

Extract 7.21. - Teacher 6

We would realise that it is positive to spend that time together. We could reflect upon our mistakes, we can devote more time, a second one-hour meeting or maybe the third year to create various coordinated groups among the different subjects so that we could have a

one-hour meeting for that too.

Extract 7.22. - Teacher 1

And from those historical periods we could identify what type of vocabulary is necessary. Depending on each content subject. There will be vocabulary and grammatical structures which we can use in Biology, as in Technology or in Social Science, right? And having set that basis, having stated a common map.

Extract 7.23. - Teacher 2

If we all worked together and said ‘Renaissance this month’, it would be advantageous for both of us.

Extract 7.24. - Teacher 2

I think it is doable, it would be useful. It would be rather useful because, at the end of the day, they would be connecting all the different subjects. And English would be the connector. A project that will have its difficulties at first but I believe it would be beneficial for all of us in the long run. Because we would cooperate with each other. The learners will notice that the English subject helps them understand content such as History and vice versa. I think it is feasible. I do think so, it could be implemented. It would be a good idea.

Extract 7.25. - Teacher 6

That they were not disconnected subjects because many times they are related and there are things that we should see together. Maybe not everyday, but we could do many things together on many occasions.

Extract 7.26. - Teacher 5

No. I think it is rather complicated. (...) I don’t see the scenario in which a History teacher has to explain some grammar, or Linguistics or language in general. At the beginning I got many complaints from History teachers because learners did not know how to use past simple, for instance. And they said they had to correct them. And I told them “No, that is not your duty. This is something that you have to tell me because I am the English teacher. It is me who has to do it. That is my job. (...) In the same way that I am not allowed to teach History, which I would love, you know? I would feel very comfortable. But I can’t. Because I am not allowed to.

Extract 7.27. - Teacher 3

So the idea I have is to replace the reading texts and make them write essays which are related to more technical readings. I would create a hybrid of a regular book with technical readings. (...) But with a book, some kind of ESP. That is the model that I find more suitable.

Extract 7.28. - Teacher 4

Let's see, I think it is feasible. And the way the bilingual programme has been designed, it would be beneficial. (...) The English subject and the English language itself has content, because it really embraces everything. They don't need to do it in another subject. We should try to have our own contents in such a way that they can be related to other subjects. In fact, they already are.

Extract 7.29. - Teacher 4

Los temas que se tratan en los libros de textos son los que tienen que ver con el currículo de la lengua inglesa y normalmente no van mucho más allá de los temas del día a día, de contenidos generales de medio ambiente, cuestiones de sociedad. Y luego en bilingüe, no porque también hay parte histórica y cultural en la asignatura. Pero como es mucho más ambiguo, depende ya de lo que quieras hacer Haría un poco más de hincapié en la parte de fonética ... pronunciación. Yyy luego sí que haría mucho hincapié en el aspecto de la cultura, la literatura, historia.

Extract 7.30. - Teacher 4

We can go on with grammar, vocabulary, but it is much more than that, we should go much further than that. And this is an academic contexts. I think those are the tools that we need to provide them with. The way I see it, the second cycle of CSE in bilingual programmes, the English subject should be mainly focused on that.

Extract 7.31 - Teacher 3

As an English teacher, the crisis I face is that I find these books [takes a textbook] boring because they are exactly the same as when I was. Not when I was young, but yes, because communicative teaching has existed since the 1970s. So it is the same kind of book. They are not thematic at all, they don't allow us to go into a topic any deeper. (...) The book gives me a structure. So it structures and puts the contents in order; it rations them according to some kind of grading made by researchers, not me. But I would have them only to cover the minimum required content and then I would add other more relevant contents. Then, I would like to replace the contents, the reading texts above all, with more interesting things.

Extract 7.32. - Teacher 2

If we don't give them something that you want them to use, in the end they are going to use what they know. And what is it that they have retained? Probably, a more colloquial language, what they see in certain videos.

They have been taught more academic language, but as it is more difficult to understand and necessarily applied, they may forget it easily. And it is true that they tend to use the expressions which they remember, which tend to be more colloquial, less academic and even wrongly used many times. So I see it. They apply more colloquial language even when they have to do something more academic.

Extract 7.33. - Teacher 4

They keep on using colloquial language more because it is what they are used to. I do insist that they have to differentiate the context of any given activity. I do insist on working on those differences and I do provide them with it so that they can have resources when the time comes for them to use more formal language. They find it difficult.

Extract 7.34. - Teacher 1

But they also do it in their mother tongue. We emphasise the differences between different ways to communicate, so that they do it better. And it is funny, they do it better in a foreign language than in their own mother tongue.

Extract 7.35. - Teacher 6

That is another issue that I insist on. It is the same case in Spanish. They address us in the same way they would talk to a friend, their parents or when they go to a nightclub. They transfer that into English. [...] They have learned the differences between formal and informal letters, to a friend. And they always use colloquial language regardless of the activity.

Extract 7.36. - Teacher 4

They find it hard and I do definitely think it is the English teachers' duty. I think it is essential. At a certain level, English teachers have to deal precisely with that, with an appropriate use of language in each context [...] Because it is not only a matter of learning to use the language, but also using it according to the context.

Extract 7.37. - Teacher 6

We should foster it more. At high-school level we teach them to communicate, to relate to each other and certain writing uses as well.

Chapter 8

Extract 8.1. - Teacher 5

Adapt or perish. It is new things that I would have never come up with. I think this idea is fantastic (...) Things like this, we don't have. This is what we need.

Extract 8.2. - Teacher 1

This has better results, naturally. Here is the data.

Extract 8.3. - Teacher 5

I found it very interesting and I'm holding the evidence. What I saw them do at first and what I saw the last day.

Extract 8.4. - Teacher 6

This also proves that it has an impact. I do think it does.

Extract 8.5. - Teacher 2

I think it is a very valid format. [...] Above all, in *transition words* and *cause and effect vocabulary*, probably. Well, it also depends on the learner but I feel they apply more things. We can see that they have mostly applied what we have taught them. [...] So I can say I am happy in that sense. I mean, they have been able to apply what they have learned, so there is hope. It is a useful procedure which should be used more often. Nothing else. In my experience, I think it has worked. In the end they have applied what we have taught them, the grammar, the transitions, the vocabulary, expressions which they have to use [...] It would be interesting to monitor by implementing it during a whole school year. Compare September and June and analyse whether there has been some kind of change. There will probably be.

Extract 8.6. - Teacher 3

I like that it is scaffolded. The activities were building a base from which to build the next level, and then the next level. It is a good procedure. It creates the illusion that with just a few simple blocks, you can build a text. But then, it is much more than that. But it is a relief because we already have that structure and then rest is just details, vocabulary and work on it. Because this is about repeating. To really implement it (.) But I am bad at it. I have liked it, I'm buying it. (...) It is a good method to get started. It is like 'if we have this type of text, we

can connect the dots and fill it in'. Then, there is a lot of effort in polishing up, details and so on. But it does give us some order. I have liked it that it is well graded, scaffolding and good, I see it as effective.

Extract 8.7. - Teacher 3

I feel it is a good way for them to connect things. And the most difficult thing is that all the grammar they know must be used. So, how are you going to use a present or future verbal tense if you are talking about the French Revolution? And if it is a conditional, be careful with which one, because if this happens, this other thing will happen, don't mix conditionals up. So it comes in handy.

Extract 8.8. - Teacher 5

I liked it very much because it is a different text treatment from what we are used to doing, which is rather stereotyped. Yes, I liked it. I found it very interesting (...) Yes, very useful. So much that I am already considering doing it with every single text type we see.

Extract 8.9. - Teacher 6

T6 - In the end this is what we do or should do in the classroom. Explaining to them how to do it. The theory of how to complete these texts, some kind of previous practice, showing them models and then giving them time for them to do the same, and correct.

R - Uh-huh

T6 - Yes. I think that's the right way =

R - Only that in this case, it would be specific History genres, but any other day it would be Biology or =

T6 - =varied fields.

Extract 8.10. - Teacher 1

(...) for example, I'm thinking we could introduce it to help our colleagues, the content teachers.

Extract 8.11. - Teacher 1

Many times they just use the limited vocabulary they know, so it is positive to remind them of certain semantic fields, linking words so that (.) they don't use the same words again and again. And thirdly, I think it is useful that they see they haven't done a good job at first. And once they have been taught how to do it better, they are able to rebuild everything. So they will be able to see how they will improve.

Extract 8.12. - Teacher 1

Yes, it is doable and (.) it does not take a lot of time. I don't think it will take so much time.

Extract 8.13. - Teacher 5

I don't think it would be complicated. It is a different approach to treat writing. So I don't think it will mean an added difficulty(...) we have certain autonomy to do it.

Extract 8.14. - Teacher 2

In the end, the problem is (.) to get the learners' attention. Maybe if they saw the utility, maybe es, it would help them apply it. But I am rather pessimistic in that sense. Maybe this same approach would work better in a well-behaved group. But there are some groups in which it won't. Not because of the approach but because they are not interested. There might be students who don't like History or they are not interested in it for any reason.

Extract 8.15. - Teacher 4

If they are smart, a few sessions would be enough for them to make progress. But if they are a more regular group, you know? There might be students who lack motivation or interest, so it will require more effort on our part.

Extract 8.16. - Teacher 2

Well, maybe more workload. Not more work but a different kind of organisation. More workload when it comes to looking for information and applying it, but I think it transforms the role of the teacher to a more guiding figure, someone who monitors the activity. I mean, we provide the tools, the models and then simply monitors and solves doubts when necessary.

Extract 8.17. - Teacher 5

It would demand (.) a great deal of effort. (laughs) Basically because it is us who have to create all this. We have to look for the reference text. I'm not the one to say how much you have worked because you know it. But I think it is a considerable effort (...) It is simply a different focus. It requires time and preparation.

Extract 8.18. - Teacher 6

Preparation (.) Well, we already do it. To prepare (.) your lessons in advance. Then, it would mean preparing activities. The same way you have. Maybe using Power Point, or through an explanation. Then some kind of practice so that they can see how the text changes. In short, preparation of those activities.

Extract 8.19. - Teacher 3

It is more demanding, but it is no exception. When we repeat it for a period of time, it is not so demanding.

Extract 8.20. - Teacher 1

Good coordination with the teachers of the content subject. Instead of taking two hours, one hour would make it. Actually, it would be much easier. One hour would be enough. But we would need to (.) organise everything and coordinate well with the teachers of the bilingual subjects.

Extract 8.21. - Teacher 3

T3- What I see about this approach is that we would have to work close to the History teacher because now it is a bit empty. They are applying the writing frame, but writing involves more depth. It is a bit like a robot, they have done it in just an hour. They have the frame but they need to put the final touches.

R - Refine it, of course.

T3 - Which means (.) even in Spanish. I would even involve the Spanish subject.

Extract 8.22. - Teacher 6

Preparation with us or with the rest of the teachers, as we have said, History or Biology teachers, so that they help us with texts. They can see the progress in those texts and help learners interiorise those changes.

Extract 8.23. - Teacher 3

T3 - In this high school the teachers are very young, they are really prepared, there are even people with two degrees. So I don't think they would be resistant. In a different school with less prepared teachers it may be more, whew! This requires a teacher who is able to write really well in English but there are teachers who (.) it's striking (ríe).

R - I know.

T3 - So in a high school with proactive teachers it would be great. I am very practical so I remove some other things we have to do and add this, it is easy. But I am going to include it if I delete other stuff, it is evident it is necessary. Entonces entre un instituto con profesores activos pues yo creo que 'mira qué bien'. So we can be faced with this situation.

R - It is an implicit variable.

T3 - I am not so sure about a teacher from the 'old school'. We can find anything. Because it demands from us as teachers. We need to be resourceful to mark writing activities well, or to

be used to academic writing. Well, there is no need to be so ambitious. If we make them apply the writing frame and the vocabulary, they would have (.) a more decent level. So it is really pre-cooked for the teacher but we need to be out there, improvising, on-the-spot writing with them, writing the same in three different ways, thinking of three linking words, giving them three vocabulary choices. If not, they can use a dictionary, but it takes them four minutes to look a word up. So we need to be confident in all this academic writing.

R - So interesting.

T3 - There are teachers out there (.) (...) I guess that teachers who are certified to teach Advanced English are more curious (.) So there would not be much opposition.

Extract 8.24. - Teacher 1

And drawbacks as well. Time. Practising writing in such a guided way takes up a few lessons. And I am not sure we can really use that much time. But we can use three hours. But as we have to comply with a dense curriculum, for these writings I would choose topics which teachers really know about. I am not confident about what I am about to teach, I need to prepare it beforehand. And that is a handicap. But there are teachers who can help us, but they have to feel like doing it, as with everything else.

Extract 8.25. - Teacher 5

T5 - Working with the content teachers. Analysing which specific needs they have. As in what I have just said. And organising it. Above all, talking to them and see what they need. And I think that would be all.

R - And when would you do it? Because then we come back on September 1st and all of a sudden.

T5 - Sure. Well, the right thing would be to have a pilot group and then from March onwards, making decisions for the next year.

Extract 8.26. - Teacher 6

Well, we could use our English subject, couldn't we? Articles they are going to use in History, scientific texts which they are going to use in Biology or Technology, for example, so that we can use in the classroom. And content teachers could give salience to grammar rules that we share with them many times, or they ask us 'Can we do this? How would you do this?' So there could be some coordination between us. We could treat their content and they could work with our grammar and vocabulary proposals, yes.

R - and when would you make these decisions?

T6 - Well, such coordination would take time. What we have said. It should be at the beginning (.) The first year would be difficult, of course. We would need to work on that. But

after that, like everything in life. After a few years we would realise it is positive to work together, the next year we could reflect on what has gone wrong, we can devote more time - a second hour - maybe the third time we could create coordination groups among the subjects involved and have one additional meeting for that. Then, maybe splitting groups in two to test how this methodology would work. It doesn't change overnight, logically, but in the long run, working with projects, with methodologies not so based on memorisation as we do now, we could.

Extract 8.27. - Teacher 5

The way the subject is organised now, it would be a temporary thing. More or less what we do now. Once a month. Two or three sessions of twenty minutes would be fine. Well, it should be longer.

Extract 8.28. - Teacher 1

We could do it erm maybe once a fortnight, couldn't we? A History text, fifteen days later a Biology text, then Economy, why not? A Technology text, I don't see why not, it is not a waste of time.

Extract 8.29. - Teacher 4

I think that it is more interesting to combine it from the beginning to the end and treating different topics and different types of texts. For instance, if you want to work on research papers at first, you can do one of an arts kind and then a scientific one. Because in the end they are very similar and can be integrated (...) I think in class we can do little extracts as the ones we did and integrate it on a daily basis. But every now and then they would have to hand in something more solid, some kind of draft (...) One very fifteen or twenty days at least. Plus all the short extracts that we can do in class. Because we can work with introductions, conclusions, etc. And then, they can complement it.

Extract 8.30. - Teacher 3

I would need to see what to replace it with because porque (.) erm well I would do it more often, I don't know. (...) The learners don't like writing, they hate it, it requires some effort, naturally. So I would do it from the beginning of the school year. That is when they see you are serious about it and then they take it as it is. It is like setting the basis so that they are well aware that they will have to write with this teacher and there is no way to escape it. So I would practise it a lot in the classroom and they would not have to hand anything in until the third version. So with the PPT, in the third version I could introduce some things so that they

rewrite a fourth version that makes them get one extra point. So this way, a few texts but with multiple drafts because (.) yes, the cause and effect part, connectors - what connection is there between this and the next sentence?, 'am I adding anything?' so here I need a linking word to add information. They don't stop to think about these things, they just 'throw one sentence after another'. Except for a few of them who are more organised. ↑But I don't know. Ermm yes, from the very beginning (.) I would have to replace a few things (she takes the textbook) from the book with this. (...) I would have to think about when they learn passive voice or how I can connect where they learn any grammar point that I want to apply to History. And then have some writing frames as the ones you have given us and stick to them.

Extract 8.31. - Teacher 3

And to be free to make these decisions, I remove some things here, I add some others there. We have autonomy to do so as long as we respect the base contents set by the curriculum (...) We deal with texts in every section: an email, a complaint letter, etc. So if we were to include this (CLIL genres) we would have to reduce these other texts. But it is worth it. An ESP book would be wonderful, or an ESP book and all this separately.

Extract 8.32. - Teacher 2

T2 - I am not sure how I would include it in my teaching programme, but I would try to make it part of the unit. So it would be treated as any other skill.

R - So part of the unit as any other skill.

T2 - As any other skill. Well, as any other skill within writing, probably. That is how I would do it. By adapting it to my subject.

APPENDIX P. GENRE CONTENT ANALYSIS. CODES AND MEMOS/CODEBOOK

Sistema de códigos	Memo	Frecuencia
Sistema de códigos		112
reinforcement	CODE Reinforcement DEFINITION To make sure students learn effectively, a reinforcement of the key elements of the writing is necessary.	1
adaptation: time/instructions	CODE Adaptation: time/instructions DEFINITION Some possible adaptations to help them by giving them more time and specific adaptations.	1
importance given	CODE Importance given DEFINITION The importance we give to this competence will be a factor for their taking it seriously.	1
initial-final product	CODE Initial-final product DEFINITION One way to ascertain students' understanding would be to have an initial and final product and to compare them .	1
limited sessions	CODE Limited sessions DEFINITION To engage them it is important to have a limited number of sessions devoted to this	1
limitation: syllabus	CODE Limitations: syllabus DEFINITION Some limitations or difficulties when implementing this are related to the program to fulfil	1
not all technical terms	CODE Not all vocabulary DEFINITION At this point, there is some specific vocabulary related to certain fields that they do not need to know yet	1
for personal life	CODE For personal life DEFINITION It is important that they acquire this competence for they have to write texts in their personal life	1

objective: accuracy	CODE Objective: accuracy DEFINITION When the participant states that the objective of implementing this approach is that they develop writing accuracy	1
objective: text development	CODE Objective: text development DEFINITION When the participant states that the objective of implementing this approach is that they learn to develop texts.	1
factor: number of students	CODE Factor: number of students DEFINITION Number of students in the classroom could be a factor influencing the teaching of this	3
vocab. in content	CODE Vocab. in content DEFINITION Teacher procedures Specific vocabulary should be taught in History lessons, language use will be dealt with in English language lessons.	1
language assistant	CODE Language assistant DEFINITION We could use the help of the language assistant for the teaching of this	2
factor: teaching hours	CODE Factor: teaching hours DEFINITION The amount of teaching hours is something to consider	2
language proficiency	CODE Language proficiency DEFINITION It is important to teach this because of the impact on language proficiency	1
factor: heterogeneous groups	CODE Factor: heterogeneous groups DEFINITION The mixed-levels can influence the teaching of this competence	2
limitation:time	CODE Limitations: time DEFINITION Some limitations or difficulties when implementing this are related to the current amount of sessions a week	2

	CODE Language above B2 DEFINITION Other linguistic features which are still not needed at this level	1
scaffolding	CODE Scaffolding DEFINITION Teaching procedures: scaffolding	1
involving reading	CODE Involving reading DEFINITION Teaching procedure: involving reading	1
feedback for learning	CODE feedback for learning DEFINITION Teaching procedures: constant feedback	2
writing projects	CODE Writing projects DEFINITION Teaching procedure to engage them	2
preparation debates	CODE Preparation debates DEFINITION Debates are useful to prepare for writing (e.g. preparation of arguments)	2
previous writing skills	CODE previous writing skills DEFINITION The extent of previous writing skills can influence the teaching of this	2
engaging content	CODE Engaging content DEFINITION Using content that interests them could be something to take into account	2
for academic life	CODE For academic life DEFINITION It is important that they acquire this competence for they have to write texts in their academic life.	1
for professional life	CODE For professional life DEFINITION It is important that they acquire this competence for they have to write texts in their professional life	2

teacher update	CODE Teacher update DEFINITION Teachers must be updated to be familiar with the subgenres and other requirements.	1
reduce textbook	CODE Reduce textbook DEFINITION To implement this, we would need to reduce content textbook - this might cause problems.	1
feasible collaboration	CODE Feasible collaboration DEFINITION Collaboration with content departments is likely to happen to implement this.	1
school support	CODE School support DEFINITION The school would support the teaching of this.	1
academic tests	CODE Academic test DEFINITION A way to ascertain their competence is to have tests based on academic competences.	1
reading content exams	CODE Reading content exams DEFINITION A way to ascertain their competence is by reading their content exams	1
group co-construction	CODE Group co-construction DEFINITION A way to engage them is by creating one text with all the students	1
invented history	CODE Invented history DEFINITION A way to engage them is by inventing historical facts, etc to make it more creative	1
factor:student perception	CODE Factor: students' perception DEFINITION The negative attitude of students can influence the teaching of this competence	3
disregard formal register	CODE Disregard formal register DEFINITION Students disregard formal registers	1

limitation:feedback	CODE Limitation: correction DEFINITION One of the difficulties is the time for correction	2
interdisciplinary mind	CODE Interdisciplinary mind DEFINITION In order to accomplish the genre conventions, it is needed an interdisciplinary mind.	1
gradual complexity	CODE Gradual complexity DEFINITION The conventions of each genre are complex and we need practice to achieve it	1
academic register	CODE Academic register DEFINITION They need to learn this because they need to achieve a middle-school academic register.	3
ideas organisation	CODE Ideas organisation DEFINITION It is the teacher intention that they learn to organise ideas and this competence is important.	1
modelling	CODE Modelling DEFINITION The teacher would include examples from other students, etc in which learners can see the language demands.	2
extension to other genres	CODE Extension to other genres DEFINITION These procedures could be applied to the teaching of other genres	1
cross-curricular knowledge	CODE Cross-curricular knowledge DEFINITION They learn to write academic texts that can be apply to other subjects in the curriculum	1
know their limitations	CODE Know their limitations DEFINITION It will be important to be aware of their limitations	1
refine terminology	CODE Words to complete DEFINITION Other words that serve to accessorise can be introduced later	1

linguaging	CODE Linguaging DEFINITION Making them write on their own as the best strategy to help them clarify	1
structured	CODE Structured DEFINITION These procedures are structured	1
good procedure	CODE Good procedure DEFINITION The procedures followed and positive and good for lessons	1
factor:content knowledge	CODE Factor: knowledge of the topic DEFINITION Students' knowledge on the topic could be a factor influencing the teaching of this	3
factor: interest	CODE Factor: interest DEFINITION Students' interest on the topic could be a factor influencing the teaching of this	2
factor:behaviour	CODE Factor: behaviour DEFINITION Students' behaviour could be a factor that would affect the implementation and delivery of genre-based pedagogy lessons	1
limitation:interest	CODE Limitations: interest DEFINITION Some limitations or difficulties when implementing this are related to lack of interest	3
lang.limitations: grammar	CODE Lang. Limitations: grammar DEFINITION Some limitations or difficulties when implementing this are related to lack of knowledge of specific grammar needed	2
preparation for future	CODE Preparation for future DEFINITION The teaching of this is important because it prepares them for the future in which they will have to elaborate these types of texts on their own.	3

independent writers	CODE Independent writers DEFINITION The teaching of this is important because it contributes to making them more independent writers.	2
objective:genre	CODE Objective: genre DEFINITION When the participant states that the objective of implementing this approach is that they write according to genre expectations.	4
summative assessment	CODE Summative assessment DEFINITION Using this traditional tool to ascertain/verifying student's understanding	1
cooperative for doubts	CODE Cooperative for doubts DEFINITION Using question solving in cooperative groups can be a way of verifying students' confusion around this.	1
too much teaching time	CODE Too much teaching time DEFINITION The use of language would not be a difficulty, but the amount of time this process involves	1
need for coordination	CODE Need for coordination DEFINITION Teacher coordination would be necessary to adapt this to the school setting	2
influence of coordination	CODE Influence of coordination DEFINITION The extent of teacher coordination can influence the implementation of genre-based teaching	2
cooperative groups	CODE Cooperative groups DEFINITION Teacher procedures to engage them in the learning of this competence	4
warming-up	CODE Warming-up DEFINITION Teacher procedures to engage them in the learning of this competence	1

lang limitations: voc	CODE Lang. Limitations: voc. DEFINITION Some limitations or difficulties when implementing this are related to lack of knowledge of specific vocabulary	3
EFL teacher motivation	CODE EFL teacher motivation DEFINITION The approach given by the EFL teacher may be different and more interesting because for them it is something that they choose to do	1
content concern	CODE Content concern DEFINITION The teacher states that they are not the content specialist, and their knowledge of History is not as detailed as the History teacher.	2
content	CODE Content DEFINITION The teacher states that the objective is content and it is relevant because of that	6

