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Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Compulsory Secondary Education. A Case Study in a State High School in Majorca

DEA Dissertation

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University of the Balearic Islands (UIB)

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CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL) 
IN COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION. 
A CASE STUDY IN A STATE HIGH SCHOOL IN MAJORCA

Memòria d’investigació

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGP</td>
<td>Annual General Programming</td>
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<tr>
<td>BICS</td>
<td>Basic interpersonal communication skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Catalan language</td>
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<tr>
<td>CALP</td>
<td>Cognitive academic language proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBLT</td>
<td>Content-Based Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSE</td>
<td>Compulsory Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>German language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK/REF</td>
<td>Does not know/ Refuses to answer</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a foreign language</td>
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<tr>
<td>EHEA</td>
<td>European Higher Education Area</td>
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<tr>
<td>EN</td>
<td>English language</td>
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<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>Spanish language</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Foreign language (a language other than one’s mother tongue(s))</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLL</td>
<td>Foreign language learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FoF</td>
<td>Focus on Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>French language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communication technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>Infant Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>IES</td>
<td>Institut d’ensenyament secundari (secondary high school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>To the left</td>
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<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>Mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language (a language other than one’s mother tongue(s))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCE</td>
<td>Spanish Organic Law on the Quality of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOE</td>
<td>Spanish Organic Law on Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGSE</td>
<td>Spanish General Organic Law of the Educational System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEC</td>
<td>Spanish Ministry of Education and Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>Official Language School</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCSE</td>
<td>Post-Compulsory Secondary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>q.</td>
<td>Question</td>
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<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>To the right</td>
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<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLP</td>
<td>School Language Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UIB</td>
<td>University of the Balearic Islands</td>
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<tr>
<td>UPF</td>
<td>Pompeu Fabra University</td>
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<tr>
<td>VS</td>
<td>Vocational Studies</td>
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PART I. FOREWORD

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation for the study

Not only in a European context but also in the context of a global world, foreign language learning (FLL) is now much more important than ever before. Therefore, finding adequate methodological approaches and efficient environments for language acquisition is a social concern (Juan Garau, 2008), especially as there seems to be a delivery gap between what is provided as foreign language (FL) education and results in terms of learner language competence within the European Union (EU) (Marsh, 2002). In fact, there are too many students who finish obligatory education with a very limited ability to communicate in a FL (Lasagabaster, 2008). Moreover, according to Marsh (2002), it is widely acknowledged that FLs are not sufficiently taught or learned in schools and that, consequently, considerable investment in this field is needed.

In line with this, Fernández Fontecha (2008) states that FLL has been a traditional weakness in Spanish education. In Spain, English has never played an instrumental role, a reason that may explain the lack of motivation of its population, which is one the main sources of failure in FLL. Despite the great efforts of Spanish central and autonomous administration to follow recommendations of the European Council and the European Commission on language matters, assessment carried out by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2003 and 2006 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2003, 2006) did not show a great impact of these measures in Spanish students’ language performance. Furthermore, the Eurobarometer survey conducted in 2005 (European Commission, 2005) seems to confirm this trend. Data showed that only about forty percent of the Spanish respondents master a FL and that Spain is the fifth country from bottom in this respect (see Figure 1). This piece of information is in line with a more recent survey, in which only 44% of the Spanish informants state that they can hold a conversation in at least one FL, whilst 56% of them acknowledge not knowing any FL (European Commission, 2006).
Moreover, European educational systems are attaching increasing importance to FLL, since it is necessary to educate multilingual, multicultural citizens in a context where the linguistic consequences of globalization are progressively more evident (Lasagabaster, 2008).

In this scenario the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (hereafter referred to as CLIL) is becoming commonplace throughout Europe, as this approach is believed to significantly improve language performance in the target language without having to devote extra time to its teaching: “But how to find more hours for languages in an already crowded curriculum? […] Content and Language Integrated Learning […] can provide an answer” (European Commission, 2004a: 2). This is especially useful in bilingual communities, where the two official languages are present in the curriculum (Lasagabaster, 2008) along with one (or even more) FL(s). It implies that students have to deal with three (or more) languages, and that the time allocated to each of them becomes a key issue in language planning (Muñoz, 2002a; Lasagabaster, 2008), as Siguan (1981: 45) notes:

Si el sistema escolar preveu alguna forma de bilingüisme […], i […] estableix la presència de les dues llengües a l’ensenyança, aleshores la necessitat d’introduir a més una llengua

---

1 There are no data regarding knowledge of EFL in the Slovak Republic.
The main idea underlying CLIL is that through this approach students can pick up a FL in an environment that resembles naturalistic learning (see 3.5.1), similar to the one that children have when acquiring their mother tongue. What CLIL can offer, thus, is a real-life situation for language development that builds on other forms of learning. This natural use of language can boost motivation towards learning languages. It is this genuineness which appears to be one of the major platforms for CLIL’s importance and success in relation to both language and content subject learning (Marsh, 2000). Broadly speaking, there are very optimistic views regarding CLIL implementation. In fact, CLIL is currently the most complex, integrative methodology for bilingual teaching, since this approach includes elements beyond the combination of language and non-language contents (e.g. promoting cooperative learning) from early ages to adult education and vocational studies (VS), as Carballosa González (2008) remarks. However, attempts to focus on meaning in language teaching are not new: content-based instruction is grounded on principles of communicative language teaching (CLT), which were shaped in the 1980s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) (see 2.1.1). In this line, Grenfell (2002) considers CLIL a new version of CLT. According to this author, CLT is relevant to the current 21st century cultural context and offers a better means of teaching and learning languages, as well as the fact that CLIL is a way of integrating modern FLs with other disciplines.

Arnandis et al. (2009) state that more research on CLIL should be conducted in order to support decision-making in the CLIL approach, since there is still room for improvement in CLIL programmes. Moreover, according to Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006), research in European CLIL education is relatively scarce and the studies that exist have emphasized the effects of CLIL on second language (L2)\(^2\) competence and content mastery rather than on aspects of language use in CLIL classrooms themselves. For this reason, these authors state that it seems timely to take stock of what CLIL classrooms are like as contexts of language use and what the actual ways in which the L2 is used for complex tasks of content learning are. In Spain, there are a number of language research groups in the Basque Country and Catalonia that focus

\(^2\) Although we are aware of the differences often made between “second language” (L2) and “foreign language” (FL) (see, e. g., Klein, 1990: 19; Apeltauer, 2006; Juan Garau, 2008: 48), in this study “L2” and “FL” will be used indistinctly to mean any language other than one’s mother tongue(s).
on bilingualism, multilingualism, and bilingual or multilingual education (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Nevertheless, research in bilingual education in other communities with more than one official language (i.e. Valencia, Navarre, Galicia and the Balearic Islands) is still limited.

The situation depicted in the preceding paragraphs has led us to embark on this dissertation, which is framed within the context of FLL in formal contexts. More specifically, the study deals with learning of English as a means of instruction for teaching a content subject (i.e. non-language subject matter) in mainstream education. This is referred to as the “CLIL approach” in the overall European context and “European Sections Programme” in the Balearic Islands, where the research was carried out.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The overall objective of this research is to analyze the implementation of the European Sections Programme in a state-funded secondary school in Majorca. As described in greater detail below, a case study will be carried out at IES Son Pacs in Palma, a state secondary school pioneer in the implementation of the generalised European Sections Programme in mainstream education. This school uses the CLIL approach to teach Technology through English to all students who have this subject in the curriculum.

The ultimate objective of this research is to make a contribution, however small, towards establishing some key factors for successful CLIL implementation at a secondary education level in bilingual communities, which might eventually be applied at other similar schools willing to implement (or improve) the CLIL approach.

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3 See, e.g., Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (in press b), for an account on trilingual education in Valencia.
4 See 3.11.4 for more information about research on the European Sections Programme carried out in the Balearic Islands.
5 IES Son Pacs is the only state-funded school in the Balearic Islands that does not select the students participating in the European Sections Programme, which is the reason why this school was chosen for this research.
6 During school year 2008-2009, when the study was carried out, the subject of Technology was taught to students enrolled in the 3rd grade of CSE (aged 14-15 years).
In light of the above, we carried out a case study analyzing the main features of the chosen high school relevant to the European Sections Programme provision, mainly by using questionnaires\(^7\) answered by students, teachers, the coordinator of the programme at the school and the high school headship. The methodology to carry out the study includes both quantitative and qualitative aspects and the data were collected mostly during the academic year 2008-2009. This study has a threefold aim:

I. Uncover the European Sections Programme students’ language profile and background, as well as their beliefs, attitudes and motivations towards the English language, English as a school subject and learning content subject matter through the medium of EFL.

II. Analyze the role and frequency of use of the European Sections students’ L1 (i.e. Spanish and Catalan)\(^8\) and the target language (i.e. English), in both the European Sections and EFL classrooms, for interactions between pupils and teacher and between learners.

III. Unfold strong and weak points of the European Sections Programme, from the points of view of both the coordinator of the programme at the school and the high school headship.

To our knowledge, no case study on the carrying-out of the European Sections Programme in the Balearic Islands has yet been conducted, although it has been six years now since the first implementation of this programme in the Balearic archipelago (in school year 2004-2005). Despite the fact that there is some research in CLIL in another bilingual Catalan-Spanish autonomous community (namely Catalonia),\(^9\) the idiosyncrasy of the Balearic Islands\(^10\) (Dueñas Jollard, 2003) makes us think that research in this field and setting is needed.

\(^7\) The questionnaires are not the only tool used for data gathering, as explained in 4.2.1.

\(^8\) In this dissertation, within the context of the Balearic Islands and other bilingual communities, the term “L1” includes both official languages (e.g. Catalan and Spanish) and, therefore, “L2” corresponds to the FL(s).

\(^9\) See, for example, Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (in press).

\(^10\) The peculiarity of the Balearic Islands is mostly due, on the one hand, to insularity and, on the other, to internationalization and immigration caused by mass tourism from the 1960s. Moreover, policies on linguistic normalisation carried out by regional governments in Catalonia and in the Balearic Islands somehow differ in extension and scope (e.g. immersion in Catalan is more generalized in schools in Catalonia). Different socio-cultural and administrative conditions between the Balearic Islands and Catalonia are acknowledged by Arenas and Musset (2007).
Chapter 2. Rationale

2.1 Previous experiences in FLL related to CLIL

The CLIL approach has been able to benefit from previous similar experiences in L2 teaching: the communicative approach, content-based language teaching (CBLT), and immersion. Although CLIL shares some elements with these approaches, as explained below, its distinctive feature is that it constitutes an integrated approach, “where both language and content are conceptualised on a continuum without an implied preference for either” (Coyle, 2007: 545).

2.1.1 The communicative approach

CLT\textsuperscript{11} marked the beginning of a major paradigm shift in language teaching in the 20\textsuperscript{th} century and the principles of CLT are still accepted today. CLT is not based on grammar learning or translation, as proposed by former teaching methods, but on global learning within a context and on communicating (Parra et al., 2007). As previously stated, communicative methodologies emerged in the 1980s, but their origins date from the 1960s and are to be found in the British language teaching tradition (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In the framework of the communicative paradigm, thus, a language is a tool for social interaction and its primary function is communication and, consequently, meaning is paramount. According to González Nieto (2001), language as a system is acquired from linguistic data presented in natural settings. For this reason, Parra et al. (2007) state that students have to learn a language in situations similar to the ones they experience in everyday life. In the words of Richards and Rodgers (2001: 155), CLT is seen as an “approach (and not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language communication”.

\textsuperscript{11} CLT is also referred to as “the communicative approach”, “the notional-functional approach” or “the functional approach” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).
Some principles of CLT are (Richards and Rodgers, 2001):
- A language is best learnt by using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of learning activities.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

To sum up, CLT is an approach that focuses on communicative and contextual factors and that considers FLL learner-centred and experience-based. The wide acceptance of CLT and the varied ways in which it is implemented can be attributed to the fact that practitioners from different educational traditions can identify with it and, accordingly, interpret it in different ways (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

2.1.2 Content-based language teaching: the US model

CBLT\textsuperscript{12} is an interdisciplinary, flexible form of instruction that organizes the curriculum around topics (or “thematic units”, using the terminology of Carballosa González, 2008), rather than around a language or another type of syllabus. This approach, thus, gives priority to the substance to be learnt or communicated and not to the language used to convey this information (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). These authors add that CBLT focuses on meaning. CBLT draws on principles of CLT, which are described in 2.1.1. On the basis of these principles, an ideal situation for L2 learning would be one where the subject matter of language teaching was content, that is to say “the subject matter from outside the domain of language” (op. cit.: 204-205). Students, consequently, would learn the language as a by-product of learning about real-world contents. CBLT is consistent with current educational thought that attributes considerable importance to language as a cognitive tool in all learning.

According to Lyster (2007), there is no single formula for CBLT, but different models, shapes and sizes. The most common model is the sheltered content course, very popular in public schools in the United States (particularly in California), where the teacher uses special methods and techniques to “shelter subject matter” (Stryker and Leaver, 1997: 4), that is to say, to make the content more accessible to students by adjusting course requirements to accommodate learners’ capacities. The main features of CBLT courses are: a) they are based on

\textsuperscript{12} It is also referred to as “content-based instruction” or “CBI”.

a subject matter core (especially in maths, science, history, and social studies), b) they use authentic language and texts, and c) they are appropriate to the needs of specific groups of students. Although it is a worldwide approach used since the 1980s in a variety of different settings, CBI is typical of the United States. For example, in Florida, public schools are mostly English-Spanish bilingual schools, due to the high percentage of Latin-American immigrant students. Therefore, teaching contents in English from the first grades, sometimes subjects totally in English, is an obligatory policy, since this is the language of the host country (Carballosa González, 2008).

2.1.3 Language immersion: the Canadian model

Language immersion is a concept often related to bilingual teaching, that is to say, learning with the presence of two languages in a given context, a phenomenon which, due to globalisation, is increasingly outstanding in instruction (Arenas and Musset, 2007). In fact, immersion is currently implemented in many language learning institutions and in many countries in which a language contact situation takes place.

Immersion is a pedagogical intervention in which a group of pupils are schooled in a language other than their own, which is introduced later in schooling (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Arenas and Musset, 2007). The L2, thus, is the vehicle for conveying the content. Early immersion takes place when the target language is used as a means of communicating from the very first day of schooling. Late immersion is developed when the L2 is introduced at a more advanced stage within the schooling process.

The goals of an immersion programme include developing a high level of proficiency in the FL (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) at no expense to the L1 of students (Swain and Lapkin, 2005), positive attitudes towards FL speakers and their culture(s) and FL skills in line with expectations for a student’s age and abilities (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Arenas and Musset (2007) comment that the goal of immersion is to reach efficient, rapid learning of a language other than the mother tongue(s).

On the basis of this overall goal, there are three different reasons to implement an immersion programme, as the latter authors describe (op. cit.). Firstly, immersion has been adopted and implemented in FL teaching-learning for students willing to know a language as a
cultural enrichment element. Another type of immersion is the one that aims at reaching language competence of learners in places where a strong or dominant language is to be taught. Although the objective in this situation is similar to the first case described above, there are other underlying objectives, such as making social and cultural integration easier for learners. Finally, there is another type of immersion that takes place with minority languages.

The first immersion programmes were implemented in the Canadian province of Quebec, in 1965, when the need for English-speaking children to learn French, the autochthonous language of the region, prompted a group of parents to lobby their school board for improvements in the teaching of French, since they thought that standard FLL teaching would not lead to fluency in French. Upon consultation with scholars in bilingualism at McGill University (Montreal, Quebec), an immersion programme was proposed to the schools’ board that would enable English-speaking pupils to study all their subjects entirely in French from the very first day in the nursery school. This idea of implementing a language switch for majority-language children so that their early education would be in their L2 was a radical change (Lyster, 2007). As students progressed through school, their L1 (English) would be introduced little by little until half of the curriculum would be taught in English and half in French.

Teachers in this immersion programme initially faced major challenges. Appropriate teaching and learning strategies had not been agreed upon, but were developed by trial and error. Instructors began by focusing on helping learners to understand the L2 (French) and to develop oral communication skills. A more balanced approach that included all four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) was introduced once the students’ aural and oral skills had developed sufficiently to allow for basic communication.

In general, the programme was highly successful, which is why the use of immersion teaching began to spread thorough Canada during the 1970s and the 1980s, and involved other languages (e.g. English for French-speaking children). About 300,000 students (8% of the student population in Canada) were estimated to have followed an immersion programme by the first years of the 2000s.¹³ Funds were given for research and dissemination of the idea.

Subsequent immersion and bilingual programmes all around the world have been implemented on the basis of the Canadian research findings reported, with some proposals of

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change (e.g. introducing analytical approaches that focus on form). Thus, other forms of immersion have been devised.

In Spain, immersion regarding a minority language has been implemented mainly for the Catalan language in Catalonia, Valencia and the Balearic archipelago and for the Basque language in Navarre and the Basque Country (see, e.g., Sierra, 1991; Maldonado et al., 2009). The successful Catalan model of immersion, based on the previous experience of Canada, has become a referent in language learning using this methodology, not only in the bilingual Spanish context but also at an international level (Arenas and Musset, 2007).
PART II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Chapter 3. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

We have known for a long time that teaching languages and other subjects separate from one another, in a vacuum, does not produce optimal outcomes. Both language and content teachers have already made important strides in revitalizing their teaching for this modern age within and even across their subjects. CLIL provides the opportunity to go a step further. It creates fusion between content and language across subjects and encourages independent and co-operative learning, while building common purpose and forums for lifelong development. This provides significant added value for language learning.

Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008: 7

3.1 Definition

CLIL is a dual-focused educational innovation in which an additional language, not the mother tongue(s) of the learners, is used in order to teach and learn a non-language subject (Marsh, 2002). Although “content” is used with different meanings, it mostly refers to the topic or subject matter we convey through the language and not to the language we use in order to do so. In the words of Fernández Fontecha et al. (2005: 50), “CLIL […] is a broad, flexible type of L2 language teaching through non-linguistic content. […] It attempts to gain learners’ motivation by conferring on them a degree of autonomy and awareness in their own learning, which presumably will increase the possibilities of achieving the main goal, i.e. language learning”.

Although CLIL shares some features with CLT, immersion or content-based programmes (see 2.1), it is a specific formula to gather vehicular languages and contents in a European context.14

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14 Lyster (2007), for example, mentions the European dimension of CLIL.
3.2 Terminological considerations

As we will see through this study, there is a trend that questions the usefulness of the traditional division between “language classes” and “content classes” and seeks more effective solutions through integrating these two class types in one educational event (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008). A whole gamut of terms is used internationally to refer to such settings. “Content-Based Instruction” (CBI) and “Bilingual teaching” are among the most widely used ones (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Other common denominations are “Dual Language Programmes”, “X across the Curriculum” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007) and “X as a Medium of Instruction” –where X refers to any FL– (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007).

Despite the existence of contextual, historical, educational and philosophical differences between and implications in these terms, the expression “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (and the acronym “CLIL”) has established itself over the last years in the European discourse on the matter (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2007) as an umbrella term, and will therefore be used through this study. Moreover, it was the term adopted by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) in the 1990s. The adoption of a label was a crucial step to encourage further thinking and development and to position CLIL alongside bilingual education, content-based instruction and immersion (Coyle, 2007).

Before concluding this section, some remarks on the expressions used in other languages should be made. In Spanish, for instance, the most used term is “aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras” (and the acronym “AICLE”), which is the term adopted by legislation. However, a number of authors (e.g. Pérez-Vidal, 2008) use the expression “enfoque integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras” (and the acronym “EICLE”) instead –in our opinion, probably influenced by the French version of the term– to focus on a more global vision of the learning process, in which teaching also plays a role. In Catalan, the expression used in legal texts on the matter is “AICLE” (“aprenentatge integrat de continguts i llengua

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15 The motto “all teachers are language teachers” summarizes this idea (see, e.g., Aase, 2006: 11).

16 As CLIL has its roots in European contexts where sociolinguistic and political settings are rich and diverse, there are many different models of CLIL and, therefore, varied terms are used to describe them (Coyle, 2007).
estrangera”). Finally, it is worth mentioning that “Enseignement de Matières par Integration d’une Langue Étrangère” (“EMILE”) is the most popular term in French.

### 3.3 Background

As Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007) state, the political, technological, economic and social realities of the modern world have been leading (and are still leading) to more contact between people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, which creates the need for new policies at different levels and in different fields (e.g. education). The educational measures arising from these policy decisions are situated in diverse settings, depending on a variety of complex socioeconomic, political and socio-psychological dimensions.

From a historical perspective, the breadth, scope and nature of platforms for FL teaching have undergone significant shifts in relation to achieving best practice from the 1950s to the present day (Marsh, 2002). Two major issues have changed in this period: on the one hand, the widespread introduction of FLL in mainstreaming education; on the other hand, the steadily increasing recognition of the need for plurilingualism as EU Member States may contribute to and benefit from integration (Marsh, 2002; Muñoz, 2002b).

In the 1970s designing a common European policy for language education was a major goal through concentrated collaboration across national boundaries, especially in European course and curriculum development and teacher training (Grenfell, 2002). Between 1980 and 1995, the CLT approach developed (see 2.1.1). It meant a shift from focus on form (FoF) to focus on content and emphasis was put on communicative effect rather than on structural correctness (Grenfell, 2002). However, some language teaching professionals highlighted the need to focus on meaning alongside form to achieve best practice with a majority of young people (Marsh, 2002). Integrating a FL with non-linguistic contents (in a dual-focussed learning environment) appeared as a solution through the 1990s. In fact, the use of English as a teaching medium in non-language subjects has increasingly grown in Europe from similar experiences of

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17 FoF refers to the fact that learners and teachers put attention to formal features (e.g. grammar, lexis, phonetics, etc.), aiming at promoting progress in learning (Centro Virtual Cervantes, 2009).
immersion in Canada and of CBLT in the United States (Muñoz, 2002b). Success in these types of educational approaches has supported this option. Thus, a pragmatic, pro-active approach to FL learning emerged across Europe to achieve sustainable outcomes (Marsh, 2002). This option came to be termed “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (“CLIL”).

3.4 Relevance to EU objectives

As of the 1990s, language education is becoming one of the cornerstones of EU policy. There were a number of publications on bilingual education in Europe in this decade. One of the most relevant examples of these documents is the European Commission’s White Paper on Education and Training, which came to light in 1995 (European Commission, 1995). This paper raises the key issue that language policies of every Member State should assure the 1+2 formula (Marsh, 2002; Pérez-Vidal, 2008). According to this, all European citizens should be able to use two FLs apart from their own mother tongue(s). This is an essential element to make the student and teacher mobility established by the Schengen Treaty in 1985 possible in good conditions.

The Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe focuses on the elaboration of policies towards plurilingualism. This institution gives coverage to documents relevant to language learning. One of these publications is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001a), a tool for assessing and teaching languages across Europe by creating an accreditation system of language knowledge that should be transparent and common to all Member States. The same year, the European Language Portfolio (ELP) was published, allowing language students to record their language skills and cultural experiences (Council of Europe, 2001b). This document consists of three parts: first, the Language Passport, which provides a general idea of the individual’s proficiency in different languages (in terms of skills and the CEFR) at a given point; second, the Language Biography, which facilitates the student’s participation in planning, reflecting upon and assessing his/her

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18 In Spain, for example, only 17% of the population knows two FLs (or more) at the level of being able to hold a conversation (European Commission, 2006).
language learning process and progress; and third, the Dossier, where the learner can select materials to illustrate achievements or experiences regarding languages.

Once the starting point for a multilingual Europe was established, European institutions issued different documents on multilingualism and FLL that are a reflection of European policies and projects towards multilingualism. For instance, in 2003 *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004 – 2006* was published (Commission of the European Communities, 2003). On the basis of the 1+2 formula, this document promotes CLIL as an approach that “opens doors on languages for a broader range of learners, nurturing self-confidence in young learners and those who have not responded well to formal language instruction in general education” (op. cit.: 8). Moreover, this plan deals with life-long language learning and includes different types of language learners (e.g. adults, students in higher education institutions and learners with special needs). In line with this, *A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism* was published (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). This document was “the first step towards promoting multilingualism in a wider context” (Commission of the European Communities, 2008a: 4). More recently, in 2008, two documents on multilingualism deserve to be mentioned: *An Inventory of Community Actions in the Field of Multilingualism and Results of the Online Public Consultation*, a staff working paper that accompanies *Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment* (Commission of the European Communities, 2008a, 2008b). While the latter sets out the new policy approach to multilingualism (whose scope is extended beyond the 1+2 recommendation to new areas such as the internal market, enterprise and employment), the former creates a framework by mapping action currently taken in this field by the various Commission departments, paying particular attention to cross-cutting aspects of multilingualism in the Commission. Finally, it is worth citing *Multilingualism – a bridge to mutual understanding* (European Communities, 2009), a booklet to divulge European policies towards multilingualism as a strategy to promote social harmony.

Regarding the goals of European strategy towards multilingualism, plurilingual education should be assured, in a way that not only an elite but all the citizenship can become a competent user of two FLs. As Pérez-Vidal (2008) notes, there are three reasons underlying the European approach towards multilingualism related to three dimensions (i.e. the social dimension, psycholinguistic dimension, and cognitive dimension).
Firstly, “the social dimension” refers to the fact that languages are given a crucial importance in the process of building a strong EU. The motto “Europe will be multilingual or it will not be!” summarizes this vision. Languages imply diversity, an element to be preserved and promoted, since they are an asset and, what is more important, a collective right, not to mention a shared heritage.

Secondly, a multilingual education programme must assure knowledge of an international language, such as English, and another FL. This idea means taking the psycholinguistic foundations of language acquisition into account, and knowing the basis for curriculum programming and underlying pedagogical principles: age,\textsuperscript{19} attitude and motivation are some of the most important factors that explain differences in FLL.

Finally, from the perspective of cognition, as early as the 1980s, language learning in instruction settings maintained the importance of establishing communicative situations in the classroom as the best means to learn and practise the language at any age. Main features of a communicative context would include: more focus on meaning, more interaction, more authentic questions and more opportunities to use the language in creative ways and in various contexts.

To sum up, we can state that interdisciplinarity (i.e. using a target language in content subjects) is taking shape as one of the keys of European strategy, which makes it possible to increase L2 exposure of students (Pérez-Vidal, 2008; Marsh, 2002), ensure communicative contexts of acquisition, and implement correct methodology of FoF in order to improve grammar and discursive accuracy, whilst paying attention to learners’ individual differences.

### 3.5 Main features

Although CLIL programmes may be implemented in different ways, there are some features that are considered to be common to all types of CLIL provision. These characteristics, which will be described in the ensuing lines, are what make CLIL different from other types of bilingual instruction.

\textsuperscript{19} With regards to age, it is important to remark that recent research (see, e.g., Muñoz, 2002b) has shown that children’s language proficiency does not benefit much from an early start (which is often popularly thought) if they do not receive sufficient, meaningful exposure to the language.
3.5.1 Naturalistic and implicit learning

3.5.1.1 Rationale

According to Järvinen (1999: 73), implicit learning is an inductive, automatic “process which operates largely independently of awareness, in order to detect underlying regularities in a rich and unstructured stimulus environment”. In this sense, she explains that implicit acquisition of language is a process of complexification of utterances, i.e. language develops from discontinuous entities (words) to larger continuous wholes (sentences consisting of main clauses and subordinate clauses).

3.5.1.2 Naturalistic and implicit learning in CLIL

[CLIL] is more learning by construction rather than learning by instruction.
Marsh, 2006

Marsh (2000) argues that one reason why young kids seem to be so good at acquiring languages is related to naturalness of the environment, and CLIL creates conditions for naturalistic language learning by focusing on meaning and communication and providing great amounts of input (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Muñoz, 2002a): CLIL is seen as “an opportunity for importing an element of learning the language in the street into formal education” (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007: 8). Moreover, learners soon forget about the language and only focus on the topic (Marsh, 2000). In CLIL approaches, the content is the leading principle, which is in line with the assumption that language learning should involve meaningful, contextualized material, and that information acquisition is the first priority (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Thus, CLIL opposes traditional approaches, in which FoF was the first priority of the curriculum, since it promotes implicit, incidental learning (Marsh, 2000; Muñoz, 2002a). According to Marsh (2000), this natural use of language can foment motivation and a positive attitude towards learning languages, and appears to be one of the keys for CLIL’s success in relation to language and content subject learning.
However, this does not imply that explicit language cannot be introduced (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Indeed, experts advise on the complementary adoption of some techniques of FoF and linguistic reflection in the areas that students need (see especially Lasagabaster and Sierra, 1999; Ellis, 2002; Pérez-Vidal, 2007). Nevertheless, content must always lead the introduction of language, so as not to deviate from the path marked by content teaching, according to Fernández Fontecha (2008).

### 3.5.2 Cooperative learning

#### 3.5.2.1 Rationale

Cooperative learning is an education proposal whose main feature is the organization of class in small work groups (Centro Virtual Cervantes, 2009), in order to carry out a range of tasks, with the purpose of promoting peer group support and peer instruction (Grabe and Stoller, 1997). The benefits of cooperative learning cited by Fernández Fontecha (2008) and Centro Virtual Cervantes (2009) are:

- decreasing learners’ anxiety;
- facilitating learning;
- increasing motivation; and
- encouraging interaction and meaningful negotiation among learners.

However, some limitations of this proposal are noted, such as the fact that it does not fit all learning styles and that it exposes learners to imperfect language samples and feedback.

#### 3.5.2.2 Cooperative learning in CLIL

A goal of CLIL is that students acquire autonomy to understand their own learning process (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Moreover, most CLIL-based courses expect pupils to support each other through cooperative learning techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 2001), such as problem-solving tasks in which learners work in groups (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Indeed, as CLIL is influenced by constructivist postulates, it places emphasis on promoting active, cooperative learning (Muñoz and Navés, 2007; Fernández Fontecha, 2008; Mehisto, Marsh and
Frigols, 2008). Group work enables special needs students and pupils with social problems to carry out simple, easy tasks. By means of this strategy, these students realize that their work is also important (Cobb and Vidal, 2007).

Cooperation is a core feature of CLIL not only from the learner’s view, since it includes CLIL and non-CLIL teachers working together in planning courses, lessons or themes. It also involves parents learning about CLIL and the way they can support their children, as well as the local community, authorities and employers (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008).

### 3.5.3 Scaffolding

Scaffolding is the process developed during interaction in which a learner is guided by his/her interlocutor. From the pedagogical point of view, it is the provision of guidance and support to students carried out by teachers (or sometimes by other pupils). It is done to help learners to do activities, solve problems, encourage their production or to correct or expand what is being said (Van de Craen, 2001).  

According to Belinchón (2009), scaffolding in CLIL should include (see also Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008):

- Developing students’ knowledge, skills, attitudes, interests and experience.
- Reformulating information in student-friendly ways (e.g. visuals, slide presentations, lists of words and sentences, frames and templates, recordings).
- Responding to different learning skills.
- Promoting creative and critical thinking.
- Challenging students to take a step forward.

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20 See Foley (1994) for a theoretical account on scaffolding in FLL.
21 Although scaffolding is mostly done by teachers, Ellis (1997: 48; 143) and Van de Craen (2001) also consider that scaffolding can be done by other students. Moreover, recent studies on interaction in class show that scaffolding can take place among peers (i.e. between learners with a similar degree of knowledge). This kind of scaffolding has been referred to as “collective scaffolding” (Centro Virtual Cervantes, 2009).
22 Van de Craen (2001: 7) defines scaffolding as being “informal” and “unplanned”, a particular vision with which we do not agree: we do not consider scaffolding at a micro-level (i.e. an occasional isolated intervention), but as a global pedagogical strategy (i.e. a macro-strategy) included in the whole process of L2 learning, a reason why scaffolding has to be planned to a certain extent, at least when it is done by teachers.
Scaffolding is an essential component of CLIL, since the main aim of CLIL is to guide language processing and support language production (Belinchón, 2009). Moreover, CLIL should scaffold the relationship between the language and non-language contents of the curriculum at all levels of language teaching, from the selection of topics and treatment of linguistic content to the CLIL teachers’ cooperative work (Fernández Fontecha, 2008).

### 3.5.4 Authenticity

Authenticity is not only a central issue in language lessons in general (Van Lier, 1996), and in CLIL in particular (Fernández Fontecha, 2001, 2008; Fernández Fontecha et al., 2005), but also one of the most controversial aspects in L2 teaching and learning. Authenticity is related to constructivism: learning takes place thanks to interaction with things and people in real-life situations (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Therefore, learners’ language input should be authentic and varied, to guarantee that this language can be used for a communicative end and in different contexts (Muñoz, 2007). This authentic use of the FL is said to promote the language learning process (Wolff, 2002). Authenticity is related both to content and interaction. For all these reasons, in CLIL classrooms authentic, real materials should be used (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Fernández Fontecha, 2008) –so that they can constitute genuine samples of the L2 in use (Van Lier, 1996; Moore and Lorenzo, 2007)–, and authentic tasks should be carried out (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Not only does Van Lier (1996) assume that students can deal with authentic materials, but he also thinks that learners can benefit from these authentic materials if the activities based on them are carefully scaffolded.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), “authenticity” can be understood from a double perspective: on the one hand, it can refer to the fact that materials should be like the ones used in instruction for native-speakers of the target language (Moore and Lorenzo, 2007) (i.e. “it has not been ‘adulterated’ or ‘fixed’”, using the terminology of Van Lier, 1996: 136); on the other hand, it means introducing resources which have not been designed for language teaching (i.e. “non-pedagogic materials from the general media” in the words of Moore and Lorenzo, 2007: 28).

Nevertheless, comprehension is as important as authenticity (Richards and Rodgers, 2001), which is linked to Krashen’s Input Hypothesis. In a few words, Krashen (1985) defends
that exposure to abundant input is the requirement for the acquisition of a L2. What learners need is to be exposed to comprehensible input at a level slightly superior to their own. As authenticity is sometimes incompatible with comprehension and accessibility to materials by students (Fernández Fontecha, 2001), CLIL classes often involve an intensive use of materials designed for educational purposes in order to enrich the context offered by real materials, which are chosen to be the core of the thematic unit (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). According to these authors, authentic materials at times need to be modified to ensure they are totally understood by students. These modifications may include linguistic simplification, added repetition (redundancy),23 or explanations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Fernández Fontecha (2001, 2008) concludes that the ideal situation is that content and language are available while maintaining authenticity, which Van Lier (1996) states to be possible if different resources are used (e.g. scaffolding, amplification, visual support, familiarity, cooperative learning, and learner autonomy, to name but a few), in order to guarantee accessibility of materials.

3.5.5 Flexibility and versatile nature

Flexibility is one of the main features of CLIL, since this model can be implemented in many ways in order to adapt it to different idiosyncrasies posed by:

- socio-educational contexts (Wolf, 1999;24 Fernández Fontecha et al., 2005; Fernández Fontecha, 2008);
- content subjects (Fernández Fontecha et al., 2005; Fernández Fontecha, 2008);
- curricular designs and time organisation (Baetens Beardsmore, 2002) –from teaching whole subjects through a FL to so-called “showers”25 (Vilarrubias, 2008);

23 Redundancy is considered a key strategy in making content available to pupils (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Moreover, according to Nikula and Marsh (1997), redundancy is not only regarded as characteristic of good teaching practice, but it also appears to be a crucial feature of CLIL, which is also shared by Dafouz Milne and Llinares Garcia (2008).

24 Wolff (1999) deals with this social variable on the basis of the different language realities of countries and regions.
- ages and levels of students (Marsh, 2002, 2006; Suárez, 2005; Fernández Fontecha, 2008);
- teachers (Fernández Fontecha, 2008);
- characteristics of schools (Marsh, 2006; Suárez, 2005); and
- methodologies (Fernández Fontecha, 2008).

Marsh (2002: 11) summarizes this flexibility saying that CLIL is “an educational innovation that suits the times, needs and aspirations of learners”. For this reason, many authors describe CLIL as an “umbrella” approach (see, for example, Fernández Fontecha et al., 2005; Coyle, 2007; Vilarrubias, 2008). However, what all the different approaches will share is the duality of integrating content and language (Marsh, 2006).

Apart from being a flexible approach, CLIL is also versatile, which means it includes different factors and has multiple focuses. In fact, it supports language learning in content classes and content learning in language classes; it integrates several subjects through the learning of cross-curricular themes; and it supports reflecting on the learning process (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008). Marsh and Hartiala (2001) describe five dimensions involved in CLIL classes:

1. Culture dimension (CULTIX): Development of intercultural communication skills and intercultural knowledge, understanding and skills, and learning about specific neighbouring countries, regions and minority groups (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).
2. Environment dimension (ENTIX): Preparation for internalisation, especially regarding EU integration, and improvement of education itself (Marsh, 2002).
3. Language dimension (LANTIX): Improvement of overall L2 competence, especially oral communication skills, and development of awareness of mother tongue and target language (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

To sum up, the versatile nature of CLIL can pose difficulties (Fernández Fontecha, 2008), since it includes more than merely linguistic factors, as mentioned above. However, this

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25 A language shower is a “regular, short, continuous exposure to CLIL delivered in the target language” (University of Cambridge, 2008: 3).
author (op. cit.) remarks that its flexibility is an advantage in order to design a framework for implementing a model of CLIL, which explains, in our opinion, that the benefits outweigh the drawbacks in this respect.

### 3.5.6 Development of BICS and CALP

Cummins (1979) described two dimensions of language (i.e. academic and social). “Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills” (“BICS”) and “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency” (“CALP”) were the terms he coined to refer to these two different aspects, respectively. Kelly (2006) interpreted and updated Cummins' theory by saying that “BICS” refers to language competency for social interaction, whereas “CALP” is competency in the academic language of the curriculum need for functioning in a learning context.

The distinction was intended to draw attention to the very different time periods typically required by immigrant children to acquire conversational fluency in their L2 as compared to grade-appropriate academic proficiency in that language. Cummins (1979) argues that many L2 students learn BICS within a relatively short period of time – approximately two school years, according to Villalba and Hernández (2008). However, these language skills are not sufficient for pupils’ success in academic learning contexts, since learners need to develop CALP if they are to succeed in academic FLL contexts (Grabe and Stoller, 1997). The development of CALP in L2 can take much longer. Students need to be learning content information while they are acquiring CALP. Moreover, as such skills are more academically oriented and require more complex language abilities, they are best taught within a framework that manipulates more complex, authentic content. Thus, the need for more demanding language abilities suggests the CLIL approach would be the most effective way for students to develop CALP (Grabe and Stoller, 1997).

According to Coyle (2002), CLIL provides a setting rich in opportunities for the development of both BICS and CALP. This author (op. cit.) states that these challenges encourage thinking to take place in different languages and a deeper level of inter-cultural understanding involving knowing how to do and how to be. In this respect, CLIL considers that language use involves different skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) at the same
time: in a CLIL class, students take part in activities that include these different skills, since the real world works like that (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

### 3.6 Principles and benefits

Apart from the benefits described throughout this study, according to Coyle (2002), CLIL promotes four key principles, namely: content, communication, cognition, and culture or citizenship (what she calls “the 4Cs framework”).

“Content” refers to successful knowledge learning and the acquisition of knowledge, skills and understanding inherent to the discipline that is being taught. The symbolic relationship between language and subject understanding demands a focus on how subjects are taught while working with and through another language rather than in another language.

“Communication” stands for the vision of language as a conduit for communication and learning. From this point of view, language is learned through using it in authentic yet scaffolded situations to complement the more structured approaches typical of FL classrooms. This second principle involves the development of language skills, strategies and competences needed to function in everyday plurilingual situations. For language to make sense it needs to be activated in contexts which are motivating and meaningful for learners.

The third key principle is that CLIL needs to be cognitively challenging for every learner, regardless of their proficiency.

Finally, the fourth principle involves pluriculturality. Language, thinking and culture are linked. Therefore, CLIL provides an opportunity for students to operate in alternative cultures through learning in an alternative language. Studying a subject in a different language opens the way for understanding and tolerating different perspectives.

Consequently, in a CLIL programme, the interrelation between cognitive and thinking skills and communicative interaction is a central aspect.
3.7 Student selection

Although student selection in education has traditionally been a widespread practice, it has social and pedagogical implications (especially regarding equity and segregation) and there are more and more people who are against separating students for any reasons. Selecting pupils in CLIL and in other similar approaches for L2 learning is not uncontroversial either. Indeed, selecting the students who will participate in a CLIL programme is still common practice in Europe, although there are some authors who advocate for applying this approach to all the students of a grade due to its benefits.

First of all, it is worth examining what is established by Spanish legislation regarding the selection of the students who will participate in CLIL programmes. In the Balearic Islands, the Regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government (Direcció General d’Ordenació, Innovació i Formació del Professorat, 2005a) advocates for selecting students in the European Sections Programme. Thus, in order to unify organization criteria of schools with European Sections, this institution gives instructions regarding access of students to these programmes. According to these instructions, on the one hand, in primary education (PE), pupils who participated in the Early Learning of Foreign Language Programme should be prioritised; on the other hand, in secondary education (SE), students with positive evaluation in FLs in PE or in the first cycle of compulsory secondary education (CSE) should be prioritised. In the context of the whole of Spain, the legislation specifically prohibits the use of language requirements among the criteria for accepting students in the educational programmes that teach a content subject in a FL (BOE, 2007).

Legal regulations aside, among the reasons for selecting students in CLIL programmes, Marsh, Marsland and Nikula (1999) remark, on the one hand, that some researchers have commented that there may be certain types of students who may not be suited for CLIL, in particular at primary level. Nevertheless, the same authors (op. cit.) state that it is problematic to draw up a profile of such pupils: reports on the suitability of certain types of learner are often contradictory, thus this issue remains open to discussion. On the other hand, in certain schools demand outstrips supply, as Marsh, Marsland and Nikula (1999) note. For these two reasons, criteria for selecting students need to be developed and implemented. Some of the criteria mentioned by the experts are:
good overall performance (Marsh, Marsland and Nikula, 1999; Wannagat, 2007),
good results both in the L2 and content subjects (Cid Manzano, 2004),
proficiency in the target language (Muñoz and Navés, 2007),
linguistic ability in both the L1 and L2 (Pérez-Vidal, 2002; Wannagat, 2007),
motivation (Wannagat, 2007),
and
willingness to pursue long-term goals (Wannagat, 2007).

Furthermore, Pérez-Vidal (2008) suggests the necessity to select students according to
competence levels in situations where level differences are sharp. Nevertheless, according to her,
this key aspect can be dealt with through attention to diversity programmes, taking into account
both advanced learners and non-academically oriented students.

However, in some countries (e.g. Finland), whole age groups—regardless of their
language ability or any other factors—have studied one or even more FL(s) for years (Takala,
2002). Experiences carried out in Finland show that concerns related to the idea that CLIL can
be elitist are not justified (Eurydice, 2006a; Wolff, 2002; Aliaga, 2007), since CLIL works in
all learning contexts and with all learners (see, for example, Marsh, Marsland and Nikula, 1999;
Aliaga, 2008). What CLIL provides is a wide range of language learning forms in which
different learning levels and styles adapt to students’ needs (Aliaga, 2008). For all these reasons,
poor achiever students should not be forgotten in the implementation of a CLIL programme, and
activities which deal with the needs of slower learners need to be initiated (Dauksta, 1999).
Moreover, there are no explicit findings suggesting CLIL could be disadvantageous for below
average students (Marsh, 2002). This author argues that no type of student should be excluded
from this approach, a view which is shared by Escobar Urmeneta (2009). The latter puts forward
the non-segregating intention of the CLIL approach in order to advocate for accepting all
students into CLIL programmes.

26 According to these authors (op. cit.), students are only selected in secondary schools but not in infant or in
primary schools.

27 Marsh, Marsland and Nikula (1999) also consider that learners’ motivation is significant in achieving successful
outcomes, which is why they believe students should not be selected on the basis of their proficiency in the L1 or
L2.

28 The acquisition of L2 is seen too frequently as being mostly for “bright” students (Dauksta, 1999).
Factors reported against the selection of students in CLIL education include (i) that CLIL should challenge any student whatever his/her ability (Coyle, 2002), (ii) that a CLIL class should start at a level which is suitable for the students involved (Marsh, 2000), and (iii) that CLIL succeeds in bringing poor achievers back into language learning (Marsh, 2002).

Finally, it is worth mentioning that Vilarrubi as (2008: 55-56) considered the selection of students a part of CLIL flexibility (a “variant”, in her own words): CLIL can be “taught to either whole classes or to a single group of previously selected students as part of an elective subject programme”.

3.8 The role of the L1 and L2

3.8.1 The use of the L1 and code-switching

For years, the shift from the L2 to L1 was not permitted in language classes because it was thought to weaken the learning of the target language. However, nowadays the validity of code-switching29 has instead been recognized (Costa, 2009), since it has been considered a strategy adopted by all bilingual speakers, who choose between one code or another according to the interlocutor, the situation, topic or goal of the interaction (Centro Virtual Cervantes, 2009). According to Lladó and Llobera (2006), the vehicular language in the FL class should be the language that is being taught. Nevertheless, making reference to other languages (mostly the mother tongue of the learners) is sometimes necessary, in order to help the students to reflect on some features of the FL which is being learned.

A CLIL classroom is a multilingual setting where learners usually share at least one common language. Therefore, according to Pérez-Vidal (2002), it is natural for students to use all the linguistic resources at hand, including their knowledge of the L1 when facing highly

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29 In this dissertation, “code-switching” (alternation at the inter-clausal/sentential level of more than one code) and “code-mixing” (intra-clausal/sentential alternation of two or more languages) will be referred to by the umbrella term “code-switching”, because this is also the general practice in many classroom code-switching studies (Lin, 2008).
demanding tasks. Learners often incorporate features of the L1 into the knowledge systems of the L2 they are trying to build (Ellis, 1994).

Marsh, Marsland and Nikula (1999) state that good results can be obtained when students are allowed to switch to the L2 progressively, and also when the rules for language use are negotiated between teacher and learners rather than simply prescribed by the instructor (Clegg, n.d.). Analyzing how both mother tongue and target language are used in an interaction between students may provide teachers with useful information regarding how L1 knowledge helps L2 acquisition (Guasch Boyé and Milian Gubern, 1999). Marsh, Marsland and Nikula (1999) consider it is important to see how the use of different languages can be manipulated within the classroom (e.g. code-switching for a specific learning aim is an important variable in some reportedly successful applications of CLIL). Therefore, according to these authors, code-switching can be considered a key pedagogical skill. In line with this, Pérez-Vidal (2002) advocates for accepting code-switching by the students as a normal feature of the CLIL classroom.

Clegg (n.d.) states that learners often feel it is much easier to talk to their peers in their L1 when working in groups. Indeed, Guasch Boyé and Milian Gubern (1999) consider that the use of the L1 by the students when confronting problems posed by the L2 creates favourable conditions for language acquisition and linguistic reflection. Furthermore, teachers do not consider the L1 to be a problematic source of interference or an obstacle to learning (Gierlinger, 2007), but rather a resource for academic learning (Swain and Lapkin, 2005). Despite this, teachers encourage the use of the L2 in the classroom by the students, by attaching great value to their attempts to use the target language with the same purposes as native speakers (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

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30 Goldsmith (2009) observes differences in language alternation by learners depending on how demanding the situation is: for example, in lower cognitive situations students use many strategies to make an effort to continue in the L2, whilst in higher cognitive settings there is much more code-switching.

31 Ellis (1994: 28) refers to this process as “L1 transfer”.

32 Coonan (2007) thinks there are no clear-cut rules concerning L1 and L2 code-switching within CLIL classrooms, except for the fact that criteria should be established for it.

33 Costa (2009) also observes the use of code-switching by teachers to explain the lexis. Ellis (1985) includes code-switching in the typology of communication strategies.

34 If not otherwise stated, all the information extracted from Gierlinger (2007) comes from a study conducted by this author in Austria involving CLIL in English in mainstream secondary education.
Gierlinger (2007) lists some facts regarding the use of the L1 and L2 in CLIL classes:

- The use of the L1 varies considerably and depends on teachers’ assessment of the classroom context. There is no fixed rule as to how much the L1 should be used.
- The L1 is used to avoid misunderstandings and to gain a fuller understanding of the content. Teachers feel the use of the target language can be justified as a clarification device or a precision tool. The L1 and the L2 cooperate to achieve the best conceptual match for their students.
- The L1 is considered an important supportive means in beginners’ classes. The mother tongue is thus used in order to prepare students for what is to come.
- The L1 is used to give a summary or to point out the major aspects of a topic.
- The L1 is occasionally used for instructions or disciplinary measures.

Moreover, as Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) note, sometimes, the L1 and target language may be used for specific types of activities. The systematic switch between languages is based on a planned development of content, language and cognition.

In short, the mother tongue is not a “rival” of the L2 in CLIL lessons, but rather a language that assists the target language in order to learn new things: the student already has linguistic and meta-linguistic knowledge in the L1 (Cid Manzano, 2004). Hence code-switching is a strategy for both learning and teaching (Centro Virtual Cervantes, 2009).

3.8.2 Terminology in the L2

Another remarkable aspect involving language use in CLIL contexts is related to the role of technical terminology in the L2 since, whereas traditional EFL classrooms favour everyday speech, CLIL teachers are faced with the problem of dealing with academic and technical language (Gierlinger, 2007). Thus, CLIL language learning stands in contrast to EFL classrooms. Interestingly, the Balearic legislation on the matter establishes that when the European Sections Programme is implemented in subjects like Arts & Craft, Physical Education or Music, the non-language subject taught through the medium of a FL should not be the same in

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35 This type of code-switching is referred to as “translanguaging”, which is the systematic shift from one language to another for specific reasons (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).
later grades in order to widen vocabulary in the FL (Direcció General d’Ordenació, Innovació i Formació del Professorat, 2005b).

Regarding language use for the introduction of new terminology, most teachers reportedly sometimes explain technical terms in their L1 (Gierlinger, 2007). All the teachers acknowledge that they use some form of L1 support when introducing L2 technical terms. This is because precise rather than vague knowledge is one of the priorities in CLIL. In fact, CLIL teachers seem to make a clear distinction between a comprehension phase, which is wide open for bilingual and language-focused measures, and a production phase, which is preferably monolingual and content-focused.

To sum up, teachers tend to avoid the use of the L1 and consider the fact that students use their mother tongue unfavourable, but they are mindful of its pragmatic and possible linguistic benefits, reason why instructors themselves seem to use it as a methodological tool.

3.9 The case of Europe: CLIL and similar experiences

The implementation of CLIL and similar approaches in the EU context has to be analyzed on the basis of its language background. In the current EU, the most spoken mother tongue is German, with about 90 million speakers. French, English and Italian are each the mother language of around 60 million EU citizens. However, as regards FLs, English is chosen by about 30% of EU citizens as their first FL, making it as the most widely used language in the EU. German and French are each spoken as a first FL by about 10% of the EU population. The emergence of English as a lingua franca within the EU has accelerated over the years (European Commission, 2004c).

Although there are many European countries that have introduced CLIL in their educational systems, this methodology can not be said to be generalized throughout the school population within Europe. Percentages of participation in CLIL programmes range from 3% to 20% depending on the countries. The highest percentages usually belong to countries where teaching is done through the medium of a regional or minority language (Eurydice, 2006a). The

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36 Remember that the EU currently consists of 27 Member States and 23 official languages.
FL chosen in CLIL is mainly English all over Europe, but there are also other FLs used such as French, German, Spanish and Italian. There is no clear preference for any content subject (op. cit.).

Regarding teachers, carrying out more training focused on CLIL seems to be necessary in Europe. Broadly speaking, teacher selection for participating in a CLIL programme is based on qualifications that prove that they are specialized in a non-language subject or sometimes both in languages and non-language subjects. Additional qualifications are hardly ever requested. For these reasons, European educational authorities use other strategies to ensure that selected teachers have the necessary and sufficient language skills to carry out their job. Hence a few authorities turn to native teachers, others request CLIL teachers receive training and some make them pass a language exam (Eurydice, 2006a).

External evaluation of schools is widespread practice in Europe. Nevertheless, evaluation of specific aspects of CLIL is not being carried out either frequently or systematically. Although it is true that in many countries it is still early to assess the impact of CLIL, the cases in which overall performance of students and suitability of adopted methodology have been evaluated show very encouraging results. These positive outcomes strengthen the perception of CLIL as a means to attain the EU objectives on multilingualism (Eurydice, 2006a).

Some remarkable CLIL experiences in European countries are being carried out in Austria (English-German bilingual education in biology, history, geography and economics for SE pupils –aged 10-14 and– the possibility to take a second and a third FL as optional subjects), Latvia (drama in English, German and Russian –and in the near future also in Norwegian– as a teaching method in SE), Ireland (learning German through film education for SE and business ethics in French for last-year university students), Germany (integration of Estonian, German and French and environmental matters for secondary students), and France (an optional module in English for nurse students enrolled in a VS programme), to name but a few (European Commission, 2004a).

There is also a CLIL network at European Level, namely EuroCLIC (http://www.euroclic.net/), which aims to play an active role in promoting exchange of information, experience and materials between different actors (e.g. practitioners, researchers, teacher trainers and policymakers) in the field of CLIL, as well as fomenting their interests at a national and European level. Interestingly enough, there is a virtual platform for developing
professional competence to teach through a FL: CLILCOM (http://www.clilconsortium.jyu.fi/) (European Commission, 2004a).

3.10 The case of Spain: CLIL and similar experiences

Recommendations regarding languages made by the Language Policy Department of the European Council and by the European Commission constitute a priority for Spanish central administration, often put into practice by autonomous administrations, similarly to the rest of European Countries (Pérez-Vidal, 2008).

3.10.1 Language background

In Spain there are three languages that are legally considered co-official (along with Spanish) in their own region: Basque in the Basque Country and Navarre, Catalan in Catalonia, the Valencia Community and the Balearic Islands, and Galician in Galicia. These minority languages were granted official status thanks to the democratic constitution in 1978. As a result, they started to make their way through the educational systems, further supported by their respective laws on linguistic normalisation, which allowed these autonomous communities to recover control of language policies concerning the educational system. As Muñoz and Navés (2007) remark, the role that each minority language plays in the schools of the different bilingual communities at present has been determined by historical and political factors, on the basis of their linguistic policies or statutes of autonomy.

3.10.2 Implementing bilingual education programmes: legal framework

After entering the European Community in 1986, Spain had to set itself some objectives in order to meet its new social demands and educational goals: pupils had to become competent in one or more language(s) in addition to Spanish and, in some cases, their own regional language (Pérez-Vidal, 2002). Therefore, schools and educational authorities have made efforts
towards multilingualism (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Like the past Spanish Organic Law on the Quality of Education (LOCE) (BOE, 2002), the Spanish Organic Law on Education (LOE) (BOE, 2006) maintains the early introduction of a first FL in the second cycle of infant education (IE). Among the most significant innovations, the LOE establishes that in CSE pupils must choose different subjects, among which there is a second FL. Prior to that, in 1990 the Spanish General Organic Law of the Educational System (LOGSE) had brought about very significant changes in language teaching at schools, both in terms of extension and methodology (BOE, 1990). A general methodological innovation was the focus of a languages-across-the-curriculum approach and the CLIL methodology was suggested. Another particularly significant feature of the commitment of the LOGSE towards a multilingual society was the earlier introduction of languages (at 8 rather than 11).

Autonomous communities with competence in education issues have, since the late 1990s, been implementing bilingual teaching programmes on the basis of the legal methodological orientations. Thus, the first autonomous community that set bilingual teaching programmes in motion was Andalusia in 1998. Straight afterwards, different educational administrations started to implement bilingual teaching sections in their areas of influence: for example, Galicia and Aragon (school year 1999-2000); Murcia (school year 2000-2001); Castilla-La Mancha and Castilla-León (2001-2002); Cantabria (school year 2002-2003); Extremadura, Asturias and the Balearic Islands (school year 2004-2005) (Direcció General d’Administració i d’Inspecció Educativa, 2006; Borrull et al., 2008).

3.10.3 Models and experiences

In the context depicted in the above paragraphs, the different Spanish communities have been developing a series of projects that address innovative ways of language learning. The extension and characteristics of CLIL programme implementation vary in the different regions. There are three different scenarios in which large-scale CLIL programmes are implemented in state schools in Spain, each with a different emphasis: a) improving competence in the FL of schoolchildren, b) promoting multilingualism in monolingual communities, and c) fomenting multilingualism in already bilingual communities. The first one, however, may be present in all situations (Muñoz and Navés, 2007).
What follows is an account of the most outstanding initiatives in bilingual teaching provision run in three different communities: Andalusia, the Basque Country and Catalonia.

3.10.3.1 The pioneering case of Andalusia

Andalusia is the most populous (over 8 million inhabitants) and second largest in terms of land area autonomous community in Spain. It comprises eight provinces, namely Almeria, Cadiz, Cordoba, Granada, Huelva, Jaen, Malaga and Seville. Andalusia is located in the south of the Iberian Peninsula, 14 kilometres away from the African coast, from which it is separated by the Strait of Gibraltar.

The Andalusian Regional Government created the Plurilingualism Promotion Plan in 2005 (BOJA, 2005), which answers to the need to address an ambitious education project that allows Andalusian citizens to reach mastery of other languages, as a crucial instrument to assure success and a better future. The germ of the Plan is a document on the Second Modernization of Andalusia (Consejo Asesor para la Segunda Modernización de Andalucía, 2003), aimed at promoting changes to ensure the incorporation of Andalusia into the knowledge society on the basis of European convergence. The project for bilingualism in Andalusia has to consider the cultural and economic conditions of the Andalusian community (Consejo Asesor para la Segunda Modernización de Andalucía, 2003). Due to the undeniable importance of the English language, the report advocates teaching English at school from the initial levels of education, setting as a mid-term objective that all Andalusian students master written and spoken English.

The recommendations are summarized in forty proposals, one of which would lead to the aforementioned Plurilingualism Promotion Plan in 2005, which is grounded on a solid basis and does not start form scratch, but from realities that have been improving thanks to reflection and permanent analysis (BOJA, 2005), as we shall see in following paragraphs.

In March 1998, the Andalusian Regional Government and the French Ambassador in Spain signed a protocol of collaboration in the implementation and development of bilingual Spanish-French services in certain government-funded schools in Andalusia (Dirección General de Ordenación y Evaluación Educativa, 2008). The great novelty of the programme was the teaching of at least one content subject in French. Since 1998, the Andalusian Education Councillor has set bilingual schools or sections of an experimental nature in motion in every
province (BOJA, 2005). After the positive assessment of the bilingual Spanish-French programme, in September 2000, the Andalusian Education and Science Councillor signed a similar protocol of collaboration with the Consul General of the Federal Republic of Germany and the Director of the Goethe-Institut from Germany in Madrid, for the implementation and development of bilingual Spanish-German services in Andalusian schools (BOJA, 2005).

The bilingual programme is characterized by teaching and learning some content subjects in two languages and not only by an increased number of hours of tuition in the L2. Therefore, this L2 is a vehicular language, parallel to the mother tongue and never invalidates the L1, which is still the language in which the subject is presented. In short, it is a question of studying certain subjects in both languages (BOJA, 2005).

As of 2005, the schools with a bilingual section turned into bilingual schools (Consejería de Educación, 2005), English-Spanish bilingual sections were introduced and bilingual schools undertook a spectacular increase, as Figure 2 shows (Consejería de Educación, 2009).

![Bilingual Schools](image)

*Figure 2. Evolution of the bilingual schools in Andalusia*

To sum up, the Andalusian case is the clearest example of implementation of bilingual schools and its bilingual model has been the most followed model by the rest of autonomous

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37 Bilingual schools are the ones which, after an official authorization by the Andalusian educational administration, promote acquisition and development of language competence through the integrated learning of contents in two languages: the mother tongue and a FL. Thus, listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are developed in two languages (Muñoz Aguilar, 2009).
communities. Moreover, the Andalusian programme meant the first massive effort to implement bilingual teaching in the state education system, carried out by a non-bilingual autonomous community (Ramos, 2007).

3.10.3.2 The case of the Basque Country

The Basque Country is an autonomous community in northern Spain, which lies on the Bay of Biscay. It comprises three provinces (i.e. Alava, Biscay and Guipuzkoa) and has a total population of over 2.1 million inhabitants. The co-official language\(^{38}\) of the Basque Country and portions of Navarre is Basque,\(^{39}\) which is also spoken in parts of southern France, a state on which the Basque Country borders. According to the last official statistical survey, 37.5% of Basque people are reportedly productive bilingual Basque-Spanish, 17.3% are receptive bilingual Basque-Spanish and 45.2% are Spanish monolingual (Departamento de Cultura, 2009).

Different experiences involving the teaching-learning of English are being carried out in the Basque Country. The Basque Department of Education, Universities and Research has been fomenting projects that have promoted plurilingual teaching since 1996 (Campo et al., 2007). Between 1999 and 2006 there were three different programmes: Early Introduction to English (4-5 year-olds) –in which 120 schools participated– and two CLIL programmes, namely INEBI (English Through Content) –in which 280 Primary Education schools took part– and BHINEBI (English Through Content in Secondary Education) –with the participation of 32 schools (Campo et al., 2007; Aliaga, 2009). BHINEBI programmes use communicative methodology, in which the target language is at all times focused on students, who increasingly gain autonomy and become responsible for their own learning (Bastida and Hormaza, 2008). Regarding CLIL provision in BHINEBI programmes within pilot projects, in school year 2008-2009 there were 26 programmes in English and 10 in French (Aliaga, 2009).

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\(^{38}\) Basque, the autochthonous language of the Basque people, has co-official status alongside Spanish in the Basque Country, and all its inhabitants have the right to know and use both languages, according to the Statute of Autonomy of the Basque Country (Gobierno Vasco, 2005).

\(^{39}\) The most accepted theory about Basque is that it is a pre-Indo-European language, but its origins are still uncertain.
Requirements to take part in the experience are that schools use Spanish, Basque and a FL as medium of instruction and that students have at least 7 hours per week in this FL (i.e. through the teaching of different subjects in English) in CSE and 25% of the subjects in Post-Compulsory Secondary Education (PCSE) (Campo et al, 2007; Aliaga, 2009). Moreover, students participating in the experience have to pass Basque and FL tests. In order to carry out this experience, the Basque Department of Education, Universities and Research offers specific advice through support services and one hour less of class for teachers in the programme during the first year and an hour and a half during the second year (Campo et al, 2007). Teachers willing to participate in these experiences must have at least B2 English level (Aliaga, 2009) and receive theoretical training and curricular materials to implement them. Materials are an innovative development in the teaching-learning process, since they include contents (e.g. Social and Natural Sciences, Arts and Craft, Maths, etc.) in a natural way (Campo et al., 2007).

The law leaves the door open to the future in FL teaching and learning, since it states that in order to move from bilingualism towards the goal of achieving plurilingual students, schools will implement reinforcement measures in learning and using FLs, ensuring planned competence level for the two official languages (namely, Basque and Spanish). With this objective, schools may include teaching some subjects in the chosen FLs (BOPV, 2007).

3.10.3.3 The case of Catalonia

The autonomous community of Catalonia lies on the north-eastern coast of Spain. It comprises four provinces (namely Girona, Lleida, Tarragona and Barcelona) and has a population of about 7 million inhabitants. According to the last official survey (Pons and Sorolla, 2009), 97.5% of the population reportedly understands Catalan,\(^{40}\) the community’s autochthonous language, while 85% can speak it, 90.5% can read it and 62.3% can write it.

Since 1983, Catalan-Spanish bilingual programmes have been implemented in the school curriculum to ensure full competence of students in both official languages (namely Spanish and Catalan) and to promote Catalan. First, a successful immersion approach to Catalan was adopted (see 2.1.3), especially in IE and PE. Later, the programme sought to normalize the use of the

\(^{40}\) For more information on the Catalan language, see 3.11.
Catalan language by making it the language of instruction and communication in all state-funded educational institutions (Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau, in press).

As early as 1988, the Catalan Ministry of Education started to promote pilot programmes aimed at the early introduction of French and English as FLs in the already bilingual Catalan-Spanish classroom. In the content-based instruction programmes, the area addressed was Arts and Craft, which was taught in French (Centre de Recursos de Llengües Estrangeres, 2005), and a more multidisciplinary approach was adopted for English. This programme involved a total of 260 schools and lasted until 1999 (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

Drawing on the expertise gained through long-standing immersion programmes for Catalan as an additional language (in place since school year 1993-1994) and the experience gained through prior innovation programmes, the Catalan Ministry of Education launched the Orator Project in 1999 (Centre de Recursos de Llengües Estrangeres, 2005). This Project consisted of a five-year\(^{41}\) action plan designed to improve the quality of the teaching and learning of FLs in state primary and secondary schools by promoting different innovations (Centre de Recursos de Llengües Estrangeres, 2005; Pérez-Vidal, 2002). CLIL was one of the innovative lines promoted in SE, but there have also been an increasing number of CLIL projects in PE (Centre de Recursos de Llengües Estrangeres, 2005). Despite the fact that no FL was favoured by the programme, English was the L2 most of the schools opted for, followed by French. The schools involved in this innovative programme received formative training and financial support from the Catalan Ministry of Education.

Additionally, there have been a number of international programmes in Catalonia that require the use of at least one FL as the medium of instruction to a greater or lesser extent: namely, Science Across Europe, Linguapax, International Baccalaureate, Globe, and Eurosésame (Pérez-Vidal, 2002).

Experiences launched in different schools and outcomes from developing the Orator Project make it possible to assume that increasing the contact of students with a FL and widening its use in non-language subjects promote competence in the L2. In order to improve FL learning, the Catalan Education Ministry aims at promoting early introduction of FLs in IE, increased learner contact with the FL and an extension of FL use throughout compulsory secondary education (DOGC, 2005). Increasing the knowledge of a third or a fourth language

\(^{41}\) The Orator Project was in effect until 2004.
(especially regarding oral skills) is a goal of the Catalan government, so that Catalan citizens face 21st century challenges as a dynamic, educated, modern society (DOGC, 2009). With these objectives, the Experimental Plan for Foreign Languages (PELE) was launched in school year 2005-2006. At the beginning of the PELE there were 40 PE schools with trilingual projects and numbers have been growing since then, reaching 388 participating schools in 2009-2010 (Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau, in press).

Since 2007, English Learning has been a priority of the Catalan Government within the Plan for Boosting the English Language, which is within the framework of PELE. Many of the innovations of these plans involve CLIL methodology.

3.10.3.4 Other experiences

Implementation of bilingual teaching models in Spain first started in school year 1987-1988 through an institutional programme of cooperation between Spain and its neighbouring country Portugal, within the framework of a European Directive passed in 1977 that obliges Member States to adopt measures to take care of immigrant workers’ children. The main goals of this programme are to integrate Portuguese-speaking students in the Spanish education system, maintain and develop the mother tongue in Portuguese pupils, and promote a respectful attitude towards cultural differences through Spanish-Portuguese bilingual teaching (see, e.g., Fernanda Antunes, Pérez Colín and Pérez Rescalvo, 1995; Morales Gálvez et al., 2000).

In academic year 1996-1997, Spain and the United Kingdom signed an agreement in order to develop a programme of Spanish-English integrated curriculum in government-funded schools directly administered by Spanish Ministry of Education and Science (MEC). This programme had the goal of allowing students from the schools with the agreement to obtain Spanish and British academic diplomas at the same time when finishing compulsory mainstream education (Fernández Fontecha, 2008; Eurydice 2006b).

Other measures included in the Spanish language policy are the Language Immersion Programme, a series of summer courses for Spanish students in the last cycle of PE and the first year of CSE. The programme offers two types of grants to the selected pupils: 1) two-week
summer camps whose activities are performed in English, and 2) economic support for attending immersion schools (Fernández Fontecha, 2008).

3.11 The case of the Balearic Islands: the European Sections Programme and similar experiences

The Balearic Islands, which are located off the Spanish north-eastern coast in the Mediterranean Sea, are one of the seventeen autonomous communities in Spain. They are an archipelago consisting of four inhabited islands (i.e. Majorca, Minorca, Eivissa, and Formentera), and have a total population of 1,030,650 people (Ibestat, 2008). Its capital city, Palma, located on the island of Majorca, has 383,107 inhabitants (op. cit.). According to data from Ibestat (2008), 55.6% of the Balearic population was born in the Balearic Islands, 23.9% in the rest of Spain, and 20.5% of the population was born abroad (9.0% within the EU25 and 11.5% in other foreign countries). The main employment sectors for the Balearic population are tourism, other services, and building.

Apart from Spanish, which is the official language of the whole of Spain, the Balearic Islands have another official language, Catalan. It is a Romance language (alongside Spanish) which is also official in the Spanish autonomous communities of Catalonia and Valencia. Catalan is also spoken in “Franja de Ponent” (in eastern Aragon) and in the small Murcian region of El Carxe (Joan i Marí, 2009), despite the fact that the Catalan language has no official status in these two Spanish territories. Catalan is the official language of Andorra, a small country situated in the Pyrenees. It is also used in the so-called “Catalunya Nord” in south-

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42 Islands sorted in decreasing order according to their territorial extension. Note that, according to their population, the order should be: Majorca (814,275 inhabitants), Eivissa (117,698 inhabitants), Minorca (90,235 inhabitants), and Formentera (8,442 inhabitants) (Ibestat, 2008). There are many other small islands belonging to the Balearic Islands, which have not been taken into account since they are uninhabited.

43 All the statistical data from Ibestat (2008) belong to 2007.

44 According to the Statute of Autonomy of the Balearic Islands of 2007 (Article 4.1), Catalan, the Balearic Islands’ autochthonous language, shall have official status, alongside with Spanish (BOIB, 2007).

45 In the Valencian community, the Catalan language is officially called “Valencian” (Joan i Mari, 2009).
western France and in the city of Alghero on the island of Sardinia (Italy) (Joan i Mari, 2009), where it coexists with majority languages (i.e. French and Italian, respectively).46

Regarding language knowledge in the Balearic Islands, 93.1% of the Balearic population state that they understand Catalan, 74.6% can speak it, 79.6% can read it, and 46.9% can write in Catalan (Villaverde i Vidal, 2006; Querol et al., 2007; Pons and Sorolla, 2009).47 As far as FLs are concerned, 42.1% of the Balearic population state that they are fluent in at least one language other than Catalan or Spanish, with English as the main FL known (32.2%), followed by French (12.7%), and German (9.9%) (Villaverde i Vidal, 2006).

3.11.1 Legal aspects

3.11.1.1 Background

The LOE establishes that the Spanish education system should enable learners to communicate in the country’s official language(s) and in one or more FL(s), and sets acquiring competences in the FL(s) as objectives of every education level. Moreover, the EU, within the Summit of Heads of State and Government held in 2002 in Barcelona, established language competence of all European citizens in two FLs as a main objective for 2010. This need becomes evident in the Balearic Islands, an intercultural meeting point, which nowadays has, as a main economic, social and education activity, services related to reception of people from other countries (i.e. tourism). In line with this, Lladó and Llobera (2006) note that the archipelago is one of the places in Europe where the presence of FLs is most evident. In this scenario, teaching and learning a FL should allow the learners to communicate in languages other than their mother tongue(s).

These state and EU guidelines should be understood within the context of the Balearic Islands, a multilingual, multicultural society with two official languages (i.e. Spanish and Catalan), where the use of Catalan as a vehicular language in education has to be ensured, according to Law 3/1986 of linguistic normalisation in the Balearic Islands (BOCAIB, 1986).

46 Note that Sardinian, another Romance language, is widely spoken in Sardinia.
47 All the statistical data from Villaverde i Vidal (2006) and Pons and Sorolla (2009) belong to the latest sociolinguistic survey carried out in 2003 and refer to population aged over 15.
What is more, in accordance with this Law, Decree 92/1997 establishes the use and teaching in and of Catalan in non-university education institutions in the Balearic Islands and states that at least half the curriculum should be taught in Catalan (BOCAIB, 1997).

3.11.1.2 Applicable legislation in the European Sections Programme and other FLL programmes

Decrees 119/2002 and 120/2002 (BOIB, 2002a; BOIB, 2002b) established regulations for IE and PE state schools and SE state schools, respectively, in the Balearic Islands. They included for the first time a mention of the possible implementation of specialised language sections (which would later become the so-called “European Sections”), on the basis of what the LOGSE established regarding FLL. The schools undertaking this initiative were allowed to teach a part of their curriculum in the FL chosen and to organize additional activities to ensure the fulfilment of the language aims pursued, providing the requirements in Catalan and Spanish were met (Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau, 2010).

As these authors described (op. cit.), Decree 52/2006 (BOIB, 2006) established measures to promote FL competence in state IE, PE and SE. Borrull et al. (2008) remark that the new regulation made different provisions for these educational levels, granting the possibility of teaching between a fifth and a third of curricular contents in English in IE and PE. For this reason, this decree was controversial and many people protested against it (see, e.g., Consell Escolar de les Illes Balears, 2006; Calafat Bellver, 2007), since they feared that its enforcement would go against the interests of the Catalan language. Decree 52/2006 was repealed on June 6, 2008.

More recently, the Order of 17 June 2009 (BOIB, 2009b) made an attempt at unifying previous legislation regulating the European Sections Programmes in the Balearic archipelago (see, e.g., BOIB, 2008). This regulation specifies the requirements to establish a European Section.

Before concluding this section, it is worth mentioning that every academic year a call for new European Sections is made by the Balearic Education authorities, so that schools that aim to participate in the European Sections Programme or to widen their participation can do so if they
fulfil the established requirements (see BOIB, 2010, for information about the instructions for implementing the European Sections Programme in the school year 2010-2011).

3.11.2 Description of the programmes

3.11.2.1 Agreement between the MEC and the British Council

The agreement between the MEC and the British Council was signed in February 1996—when competence in education had not been transferred to autonomous communities. It led to the creation of a section in English language in two state primary schools, Na Caragol (Artà, Majorca) in 1996 and Sa Graduada (Maó, Minorca) in 1997. When students in these schools moved to high schools, sections in English were created in the corresponding secondary schools: in 2004-2005 in the high school Llorenç Garcies i Font (Artà, Majorca) and in 2005-2006 in the high school Cap de Llevant (Maó, Minorca) (Borrull, et. al., 2008). These English Sections were a pioneer CLIL initiative in the Balearic archipelago. Although their outcome was successful, this CLIL model is rather costly and, therefore, has not spread further (Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal, in press a).

3.11.2.2 The European Sections Programme

The Regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government in its Education plan for 2004-2008 establishes FL teaching as one of its priorities, according to its official website http://weib.caib.es (hereafter, Weib, 2010). Moreover, it also mentions that it is necessary to improve language competence in FLs so that students can use FLs as independent users (Weib, 2010). The Regional Ministry of Education and Culture promotes a different language learning model in which a whole content subject or part of a content subject is taught in a FL. This new approach aims at improving language skills in the FL of primary and secondary students and implies teacher training, as an essential means to guarantee high quality FLL.
The Third Language Plan\textsuperscript{48} (in force since school year 2008-2009) seeks that all non-university government-funded educational institutions in the Balearic Islands can have qualified instructors to teach non-language subjects in every grade within an eight-year period, which will contribute to improve the Balearic students’ standard of English (Parlament Balear, 2007). The Plan includes several actions to improve language competence in a FL (especially English) in order to make progress in building a more competitive society, with more chances for mobility. The European Sections Programme, which was implemented experimentally both in primary and secondary schools in 2004-2005 (Borrull et al., 2008; Arnandis et al., 2009), is the cornerstone of the Third Language Plan, based on positive previous experiences in the Balearic Islands in the field of language teaching: the Early Teaching of Foreign Languages Programme and the MEC-British agreement (see 3.11.2.1). The European Sections Programme consists in strengthening the schedule devoted to FL instruction and teaching, either totally or partially, a non-language subject (content matter) in that FL (Borrull et al., 2008; Weib, 2010) following CLIL methodology. Two types of European Sections exist:

a) European Sections in English in PE: A content subject in English (preferably Arts & Craft, Physical Education or Music) is taught plus two hours of English language per week (Weib, 2010). Selected schools have to be developing education within the Early Teaching of Foreign Language Programme (Borrull et al., 2008).

b) European Sections in SE: Two different kinds of European Sections may be developed (Borrull et al., 2008; Weib, 2010). Any content subject can be taught in a FL, except for Social Science and Natural Science, which have to be taught in Catalan (Weib, 2010):

1. A content subject in English from the 1\textsuperscript{st} grade of CSE (12-13 years) (Borrull et al., 2008; Weib, 2010).

2. A content subject in French or German from the 3\textsuperscript{rd} grade of CSE (14-15 years) (Borrull et al., 2008; Weib, 2010). The students have to have chosen French or German respectively as an optional subject (Weib, 2010).

\textsuperscript{48} In the framework of the Third Language Plan, in the Balearic Islands, there also exists an experimental project (i.e. the Portfolio Project) based on piloting and implementing the ELP into FL classes (see, e.g., Mir Gual, 2010; Weib, 2010).
Table 1 below—adapted from Pérez-Vidal and Juan Garau (2010)—summarizes the historical evolution of the implementation of the European Section in the Balearic Islands. As can be seen, the European Sections are a consolidated programme that has increased dramatically year after year regarding scope (i.e. educational levels: PE, CSE, PCSE and VS) and number (from 14 in academic year 2004-2005 to 119 in academic year 2008-2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>PE</th>
<th>CSE</th>
<th>PCSE</th>
<th>VS</th>
<th>EN</th>
<th>FR</th>
<th>DE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Evolution of the European Sections Programme in the Balearic Islands

3.11.3 Requirements for implementing European Sections

In a European Section a FL is used as a vehicular language for teaching a content subject or a non-language vocational training module. For a European Section to be implemented it must fulfil the requirements described in the ensuing lines (BOIB, 2008). The European Section must be approved by the teaching staff and the school council.

As stated above, PE schools may teach a non-language subject in English from 1st grade, totally or partially. SE schools may teach non-language subjects, totally or partially, in English from the 1st grade of CSE and/or in another FL from the 3rd grade of CSE, PCSE and vocational training courses (i.e. VS).

PE and SE teachers chosen by the school for teaching European Sections must have a minimum level of competence in the FL chosen by the school (i.e. English, French or German) equivalent to B2 of the CEFR, which must be accredited by any of the following qualifications: either a teaching degree specialized in the FL of the European Section, a bachelor’s degree in Philology of the FL of the European Section or the Advanced Level Certificate of the Official

49 The data contained in the table by the aforementioned authors was provided by the Education Department (International Programmes Unit) of the Autonomous Government of the Balearic Islands.

50 All the information provided in this section comes from BOIB (2008), if not otherwise stated.
Language School (OLS). If the teachers (specialists in non-language subjects) have the necessary level of English (B2) but do not have the required certifications, they will be able to attend a training course in English language and CLIL methodology lasting 200 hours, during May, June and July (which includes a fifteen-day-abroad stay). Teachers participating in this course undertake a commitment to attain the required qualifications within a maximum of three school years if they want to be able to continue teaching within the European Sections Programme (BOIB, 2009a).

Any content subject can be given in the FL, totally or partially, except for those that must be taught in Catalan (i.e. Natural and Social Sciences —the so-called “coneixement del medi natural, social i cultural”— in PE, and Social Science, Geography and History and Natural Science in SE), according to current law (see BOCAIB, 1997). If a school has been teaching one of these subjects in a FL before these requirements were passed (the 8th of March 2008), it will be able to go on doing so if it has the legal authorisation.

The minimum annual count of hours of non-language subjects taught in FLs must be equivalent to one hour per week. A language assistant will be assigned to the schools with European Sections in order to provide support for teachers with the teaching of oral language.

Teachers participating in European Sections have to participate in the CLIL teacher training and dissemination activities organized by the Regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government. Authorized schools will participate and collaborate with the Regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government in the initial and final assessment of the experience. The pedagogic programme of the European Section has to be included in the Annual General Programming (AGP). Once the AGP has been approved and assessed, the schools should reflect the implementation of the European Section in the School’s Language Project (SLP). Language treatment of Catalan, Spanish and the FL(s) has to comply with current law. The schools will reflect the assessment of the European Section, including an evaluation of students’ competence in Catalan, Spanish and the FL(s) in the final annual report.

Authorized secondary schools must implement the European Section progressively, preferentially from the first grade of CSE for the first FL, and from the third grade of CSE for the second FL, depending on available teachers. In the following years, the European Section should be implemented gradually.

The minimum number of students per group so that a European Section in English can be implemented is fifteen, except for schools where the number of students enrolled in a grade is
less than fifteen. The minimum number of students per group so that a European Section in the second FL can be implemented is ten, except for schools where the number of students enrolled in a grade is less than ten. Schools can have more than one European Section, if they meet all the requirements.

### 3.11.4 Research in CLIL

Research into the benefits of the CLIL programmes in the Balearic Islands is currently being carried out within the framework of the COLE Project (2007-2010), a state-funded project undertaken by Pompeu Fabra University in Barcelona (UPF) and the UIB. The overall goal of the project is to measure the effects on the acquisition of EFL in two learning contexts: a stay abroad in the target-language country and CLIL, which are compared with regular formal instruction in English. This project is grounded on the basis of two previous R&D projects coordinated by the UPF with UIB participation: the VALAL Project (2001-2004) and the SALA Project (2004-2007).

At present, the UIB researchers are collecting and analysing data on the language and attitudinal effects of CLIL in CSE. Preliminary data on the spread of CLIL approaches in the Balearic archipelago can be found in Salazar-Noguera and Juan-Garau (2009) and Borrull et al. (2008).

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51 The researchers of the project from the UIB belong to the Applied Linguistics Group (GLA), which also conducts research on other aspects of FLL beyond the COLE Project.
PART III. THE RESEARCH

Chapter 4. Project design

Recognising the complexity of teaching demands a research approach that on the one hand is rigorous enough to yield reliable and valid data, but on the other hand flexible enough to capture the richness and messiness of the classroom. We therefore decided to use a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods. This mixed method design included the implementation of a questionnaire for quantitative data, and teacher [...] interviews and classroom observation for qualitative data.

Gierlinger, 2007: 83

4.1 Setting: the Secondary Education school chosen for this research

4.1.1 General description

The school chosen for this research is IES Son Pacs, a secondary state school located on the outskirts of the neighbourhood of Son Sardina (the north area of Palma, Majorca). The high school provides CSE for students aged 12 to 16, PCSE for pupils aged 16 to 18 years and VS (in Administration, Electricity and Electronics, and Automotive Engineering, to name but a few) for post-secondary students. The school has about 700 students, most of them (about 400) enrolled in CSE. The majority of the students who go to the high school to take CSE come from the attached state primary schools in Son Sardina, Puigpunyent, Bunyola and Establiments –which are small towns or population areas close to the high school. The rate of immigrant students in the high school is very low (i.e. less than 2%).

About a quarter of the 86 teachers at this high school have been working there for over fifteen years, a fact that should favour collaboration between the teaching staff. The new teachers who arrive at this high school every year agree that there is a culture of communication, school success, and concern about education on environmental matters at the school. Moreover, the teachers have 9 hours per week (at least) of non-teaching work, which is devoted to coordination amongst themselves.
Regarding students’ families, most of them get involved in their child’s academic life. This fact is reflected in the parents’ attendance to the first meeting of the school year, which exceeds 60% for CSE. Participation of families is a main concern of the high school headship. For this reason, there are different mechanisms to establish communication between the families and the high school, such as meetings with teachers, students’ diaries or surveys.

According to the high school’s official website (http://www.iessonpacs.cat), its main identifying features are environmental education, quality management programmes, the European Section, and a vocational training clearly oriented to the future: aeromechanic maintenance and professional risk prevention.

4.1.2 The role of languages

According to the SLP (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2002), Catalan must be implemented gradually and progressively as a vehicular language of teaching and administrative, social and cultural activities of the school, ensuring linguistic competence in this language of all students and, as far as possible, of the whole school community. The high school is, thus, an educational institution where the main language of instruction is Catalan –the autochthonous language of the Balearic Islands. Therefore, the school aims at ensuring that half of the teaching hours (or more) are given in Catalan (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2002, 2006). Consequently, Spanish-speaking students should strive to use Catalan at school

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52 The language used for communications, procedures and paperwork done by the school is Catalan. Certificates to be presented outside the Catalan linguistic area are issued in Catalan and Spanish, which are the official languages of the Balearic Islands (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2002).

53 Regarding CSE, Social Sciences, Geography, History and Natural Sciences must be taught in Catalan in all the CSE. In 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade, Natural and Social Sciences, Maths and Physical Education are taught in Catalan. In 4th grade, Biology and Geology, Physics and Chemistry, Social Sciences, Physical Education and either Music, Technology or Maths and one of the optional subjects are taught in Catalan. According to law, it is compulsory to have an authorization from the Balearic Islands Regional Education Ministry to teach Social or Natural Sciences in a language other than Catalan. For the other subjects mentioned above, it is necessary to have an authorization by the high school headship if they are not taught in Catalan.

With regards to PCSE, an equal use of Catalan and Spanish must be ensured, according to law. In VS, Catalan is the vehicular language (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2002).
The usual language for communicating (e.g. questions, exercises or assignments) must be Catalan, except for language subjects (i.e. FL and Spanish). Teaching material (e.g. handouts, videos, outlines) should preferably be in Catalan, except for the language subjects, where the language in question is used. The Catalan subject is always taught in Catalan, whereas the Spanish subject is always taught in Spanish. The FL subject should, preferably, be taught in the chosen FL.

Despite the situation depicted in the preceding paragraph, IES Son Pacs had to revise the SLP in order to make it adequate to its new linguistic situation. This was mostly due, on the one hand, to the implementation of the European Sections Programme at the school (since academic year 2004-2005) and, on the other, to the constant arrival of newcomer students, whose mother tongue is neither Catalan nor Spanish. This circumstance often leads to code-switching by Catalan-speaking teachers and students, so it is difficult to achieve the SLP’s goals totally (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2008). As Figure 3 shows, Catalan is the most used language for teaching in CSE at IES Son Pacs, which is in line with the law (BOCAIB, 1997).54

![Week distribution of hours taught in CA, ES and EN in CSE (2007-2008)](image)

*Figure 3. Weekly distribution of hours per language within the curriculum in the studied school*

Regarding FLs, the high school focuses on teaching English and French—the latter can be taken as an elective subject both in CSE and in PCSE—as languages that enable us to communicate within Europe (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2006). For this reason, the school plans linguistic-cultural trips outside the island (lasting more than one day) organized

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54 Data were gathered from Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs (2008).
by the language department or the European Sections Programme. Their goal is to put students in touch with language realities other than their own (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2009b).

4.1.3 Organization of the European Section

One of the goals of the high school is keeping on the participation of the school in the European Sections Programme (see 3.11) and promoting its involvement in exchange programmes within the EU (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2006).

The school implemented the European Section in academic year 2004-2005, by teaching the subject of Technology through English. This subject was chosen because the high school has Technology teachers with the adequate linguistic competence in the FL. Since the first implementation of the programme, the total number of hours devoted to teaching in the European Section has increasingly grown (except for academic year 2008-2009 –due to curricular changes), as Figure 4 below shows (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2009a):

![Figure 4. Historical evolution of hours in European Section in the studied school](image)

The implementation of the European Section in the school has evolved depending on official curricular requirements, as Table 2 below shows. Since the programme was first set in

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55 Remember that the Europeans Section Programme was first implemented in the Balearic Islands in 2004-2005.
56 This information was reported by the headmaster through the filling-in of a questionnaire (see Appendix 6).
57 This piece of information was provided by one of the teachers who participated in the programme in response to an informal question (see 4.2.1.5 for more information about informal questions as a data collection instrument).
motion at the school (in 2004-2005) up to school year 2006-2007, students were selected on the basis of English performance, from the final mark in the EFL subject obtained in 1\textsuperscript{st} of CSE\textsuperscript{58} and with the recommendation of their English language teacher. Once a pupil had been selected to take Technology through English, s/he participated in the European Section in 3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE too. As of academic year 2007-2008, the school decided to stop selecting the learners. According to the data provided by the headmaster through the filling-in of a questionnaire, the reasons to do so were: i) readiness of the departments involved (i.e. English and Technology), ii) willingness to improve the organization of the school, and iii) assurance of heterogeneity\textsuperscript{59} of the groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL YEAR</th>
<th>NUMBER OF GROUPS</th>
<th>GRADE</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} of CSE</td>
<td>Selected students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} of CSE</td>
<td>Selected students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE</td>
<td>Selected students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE</td>
<td>Selected students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-2010\textsuperscript{60}</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} of CSE</td>
<td>The whole group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Evolution of the European Section at the studied school

As previously stated, the present research was carried out in academic year 2008-2009, when the approach was used with all the 66 students (three groups)\textsuperscript{61} of 3\textsuperscript{rd} grade of CSE in IES

\textsuperscript{58} Note that this selection criterion is in line with the Regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government’s instructions for students’ access to CLIL programmes (see section 3.7 for more details).

\textsuperscript{59} See Pérez-Vidal (2002: 121-122) for more information about CLIL for mixed ability secondary classrooms. Research-based studies have shown positive results with mixed-ability classes, as Marsh (2002) remarks. However, Pérez-Vidal (2002: 118) also presents a model of CLIL implementation in which the students involved are selected to guarantee a certain degree of uniformity in their language skills.

\textsuperscript{60} In 2009-2010 there is an optional subject in Technology for the 4\textsuperscript{th} grade of CSE, which will be taught in Catalan, reason why this subject is not included in the counting.
Son Pacs, who took the compulsory subject of Technology in English. The official curriculum establishes that pupils of this grade must have 3 hours per week of Technology (taught in English by means of the CLIL methodology and within the European Sections Programme in the studied school) and another 3 hours per week of the FL (i.e. English in this school). Accordingly, time distribution and organization of these two subjects at the school was as follows (see Table 3 on page 58):

- One fifty-minute session\(^{62}\) per week of Technology with the Technology teacher in a laboratory room with the whole group. A typical class of this kind would involve both a theoretical introduction where new concepts are explained and a practical part in which the students do experiments or exercises (e.g. problems, simulations, etc.) related to the theory.

- One fifty-minute session per week of Technology with the Technology and the EFL teachers in a computer room with the whole group. This class would be devoted to dealing with computer literacy and information and communication technology (ICT). The students would learn to use software that they would have to use for some assignments (such as programmes for video making). The pupils would usually work in groups with online resources. The EFL teacher would be in the class to provide the learners with language support. Both teachers participated in the elaboration of materials and class planning as far as Technology was concerned (see Appendix 7).

- One fifty-minute session per week of Technology with the Technology teacher in a computer room (split group). The students would be divided depending on their English knowledge. Pupils would usually work on their projects (e.g. technical drawings or designing a power-supply company), which would often be in groups.

- One fifty-minute session per week of EFL with the EFL teacher in a regular classroom (split group). This split class would be related to the Technology split class. It would be a

\(^{61}\) It should be noted that during the school year 2008-2009 there were three regular groups of 3\(^{rd}\) grade of CSE and one group of this grade with a special curriculum, which did not participate in the European Section. The teachers who took care of these students belonged to the Counselling Department. All the students included in the three regular groups took Technology through English (European Section), regardless of their overall performance or any other reason. Therefore, we do not take the special group into account for our research and we consider that the European Section is universally taken in the school.

\(^{62}\) Although all sessions lasted for fifty minutes (instead of one hour), in practice they were considered as being one-hour classes.
session of EFL devoted to dealing with contents taught in the Technology class from a more linguistic perspective. Marks received in assignments done in this class would belong to the EFL subject, since this would actually be an EFL class.

As shown in Table 3 below, in one of the three EFL sessions the whole group was split up into two sub-groups and a content-based approach was followed (related to the Technology classes). The other two sessions were devoted to teaching English strictly speaking. In one of these sessions –shared with another subject (and another teacher), not involved in the European Section (which are referred to as “Subject X” and “Teacher X”, respectively, in Table 3)– the group was also divided into two sub-groups depending on their English knowledge. Both sub-groups had the same contents, but the differences were concerned with the depth of contents they took. In the more advanced sub-group, part of some classes was devoted to preparing the students to reach PET Cambridge examination level (B1 of the CEFR) by doing more advanced activities, although taking the exam was totally voluntary (and only a few students actually did).

In short, European Section students in IES Son Pacs have three hours per week of Technology in English plus one hour per week of English devoted to dealing with Technology contents and two more hours of English. In other words, these pupils have three hours per week of Technology (2 h/week with the whole group and 1 h/week divided into 2 sub-groups) and three hours per week of English as a foreign language (1 h/week with the whole group and 2 h/week divided into 2 sub-groups).

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63 It has to be noted that whole classes (both for EFL and Technology) were mixed-ability groups. Only in small sub-groups in EFL was streaming conducted.
Further information about methodology, which is innovative, and organization (based mostly on coordination between teachers) of the European Section and EFL classes at IES Son Pacs was provided by European Section instructors teaching there by means of informal interviews and can be found in 5.5.

Before concluding this section, the most important aspects regarding the assessment of the content subject in English should be described. All the assessments (i.e. partial, end-of-term and final) include the following aspects: a) attendance and attitude in class (10%), b) homework, self-correction of homework and note taking (20%), c) group projects to be done in class, participation and respect for norms (40%), and d) exams (30%). The final mark is the average of end-of-term marks. However, those students who demonstrate a good level of work by getting

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64 An example of innovation within the European Sections classes at IES Son Pacs was the use of an interactive whiteboard.

65 This information was gathered from the internal documentation provided by the school (more specifically, from the assessment criteria of the Technology Department).
increasingly higher marks in each end-of-term qualification get the highest mark.\textsuperscript{66} Seven competences are evaluated during the course: a) knowledge and interaction with the environment, b) autonomy and personal initiative; c) information treatment and digital competence; d) social and citizenship competence, e) mathematic competence, f) language communication competence, and g) learning to learn.\textsuperscript{67} To sum up, assessment criteria for the Technology in English subject include not only technological topics but also cross-sectional ones (such as environmental issues, social concerns, autonomy or personal initiative, copyright and plagiarism) and language competence, which is only assessed by the English teacher as a part of the mark belonging to the EFL subject and not to the Technology class.

\textbf{4.2 Method}

As previously stated, this research was mostly carried out during school year 2008-2009. Before that (July 2008), the high school’s headmaster and two of the teachers who participate in the European Sections were informed by the researcher of her intention to carry out this research at their school. The school’s teaching staff and the headship were delighted with the idea of being chosen to carry out an investigation on the European Sections Programme. Consequently, they were very helpful at all times.

Prior to the research (in October 2008), the school’s headmaster was given a written letter signed by the PhD student and the two supervisors (as requested by him). It included a brief explanation of the intended research and the implications it would have for the school, confidentiality and personal data processing clauses and a petition for written authorization from the school to carry out the research, which was subsequently received.

\textsuperscript{66} See, for instance, Forán (2008), for a detailed account on progressive and continuous assessment in CLIL.

\textsuperscript{67} See, for instance, Forán (2008) for more information about learning to learn.
4.2.1 Data gathering: research instruments and procedures

The necessary information (both qualitative and quantitative) in the present study was gathered by means of:

- written questionnaires68 addressed to:
  a) European Section students
     1. profile questionnaire
     2. questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the content subject in English
  b) European Section teachers
     1. questionnaire to the EFL teachers
     2. questionnaire to the content subject teacher
  c) the European Sections Programme coordinator at the high school
  d) the high school headship

- informal questions to European Section teachers (addressed to the content teacher by means of e-mails and orally to one of the EFL teachers and recorded through note-taking)

- other procedures:
  a) the high school’s official website (www.iessonpacs.cat)
  b) observations of some classroom sessions
  c) internal documents provided by the school, namely the timetable, SLP and assessment criteria for the content subject through English.

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68 All the questionnaires used for the purposes of this investigation were adapted from the ones elaborated by researchers in the COLE Project (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO) from the UIB, with the permission of their authors.
4.2.1.1 Questionnaires to the students

The questionnaires to the students (see Appendixes 1 and 2) were administered to all the students enrolled in 3rd grade of CSE at the studied school attending a fifty-minute tutorship class in June 2009. The administration was done by the researcher in person in three stages, since the students belonged to three different classes. Both students and teachers had been previously informed about the procedure of questionnaire administration.

All the students participating in the research were asked to fill in the two surveys mentioned in 4.2.1 (i.e. the profile questionnaire and the questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the content subject in English). Both questionnaires were printed and consisted of a series of questions with close-ended answers, mostly five-point Likert scales (i.e. 1 “strongly agree”, 2 “agree”, 3 “undecided”, 4 “disagree”, 5 “strongly disagree”) or questions where students only had to answer by ticking the most suitable statement. There were also some questions where the pupils had to answer with a few words.

The questionnaires had written instructions that concisely explained what the surveys were about, asked the students to answer sincerely and indicated that they could choose the language they preferred (between Catalan, Spanish and English)69 to answer open-ended questions. Finally, there was a confidentiality clause regarding data treatment. The students were requested to write their names on the questionnaires, although they were assured that all the data would remain absolutely anonymous and that their names would only be used to identify them. As some of them had qualms regarding this fact, they were allowed to use nicknames.

Both questionnaires were written in Catalan (because it is the vehicular language of teaching in the Balearic Islands in general and in this school in particular). Plain, direct language was used to write the questionnaires, so that respondents could clearly understand what they were asked about. For this reason, complex syntax, synonymy (i.e. using different expressions to refer to the same concept) and specialized terminology were avoided. The first person singular was used to refer to the student for him/her to identify with the statements (e.g. “Estic estudiant anglès perquè és obligatori” [“I am studying English because it is compulsory”]). The questions

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69 Most students wrote their answers in Catalan and only a few of them did it in Spanish. Nobody used English.
were divided into groups according to their topic and had brief instructions stating how they had to be answered (e.g. only one answer or possibility to leave blank answers). Regarding layout, wide page margins and some different types of typography were used to help students by stressing important parts (i.e. bold, underlining or larger fonts for titles).

**The language profile questionnaire**

The language profile questionnaire (see Appendix 1) consisted of 19 questions (divided into two different parts) aimed at finding out which languages were used by students in their everyday lives. The first part (questions 1-10) was more general and aimed at establishing the students’ overall language profile and background. In the second part of the survey (questions 10-19), we wanted to know which language they reportedly spoke in class in different situations (e.g. in Technology class or to talk to a peer speaking Catalan or Spanish). The students were asked about their place of birth, the language(s) they consider their mother tongue(s), the language(s) spoken by their parents when they were children, the language(s) spoken by their parents to them, the language(s) spoken by them to different people (i.e. mother, father, siblings (if any), other relatives, friends, and at high school). In all these cases, they could choose between Catalan, Spanish and other languages (if they chose “others” they were requested to specify which one(s)). In the case of the language(s) spoken at the high school, they could also choose English. The following questions were about the FLs learnt, both within mainstream education (in EFL and CLIL subjects) and as extra-academic subjects in private schools or in the OLS. Then they were asked about their habits involving activities done in English outside class (namely, watching TV, videos, etc.; listening to music, to the radio, etc.; reading books, newspapers, etc.; browsing the Net; writing chats, letters, etc.; talking; and other activities). Finally, the pupils were requested to state which language(s) they spoke in class, both the EFL class and the Technology class (i.e. the CLIL class), with their peers and teachers, and their beliefs about the amount of English used in class (i.e. enough, too much or too little).
The questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the subject of Technology in English

The questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the subject of Technology in English (see Appendix 2) aimed at collecting more subjective information about how the students said they behaved and reacted in terms of attitudes (e.g. interest in learning a FL), beliefs (e.g. difficulty or ease of learning a FL or a content subject through a FL) and motivations (e.g. what pushed them to learn a FL the most), especially regarding the English language in general and the two subjects involved (namely EFL and Technology in English) in particular. The questionnaire was divided into three parts, each with an identifying title: the first one was a questionnaire on attitudes and consisted of 19 statements; the second one was a questionnaire on beliefs about English language learning and consisted of 20 statements; and the third part was a questionnaire on motivations and included 16 questions.

Parts 1 (questionnaire on attitudes) and 2 (questionnaire on beliefs) had the same structure: items were formulated as statements for which the students had to choose an option, which was a number between 1 and 5 (five-point Likert scale), where 1 was “strongly agree”, 2 meant “agree”, 3 was “undecided”, 4 meant “disagree” and 5 was “strongly disagree”. The informants were requested to choose only one option for each question. A few of them, however, chose more than one answer for some questions. These questions were invalidated for that respondent. Despite the fact that not answering a question was not an option in almost any case, some pupils did leave some questions blank, in which case their answer was considered as DK/REF (“does not know/ refuses to answer”).

The third part (questionnaire on motivation) consisted of 16 questions to be answered by choosing the most suitable out of five possibilities (close-ended answers). In this case, Likert scales were not used and the answers that could be chosen were different depending on the question. In three cases, the last option was an open-ended answer where the students could give another reason.

70 Only in the case of the languages spoken to siblings and other relatives, could students explicitly leave questions unanswered when not relevant.
4.2.1.2 Questionnaires to the teachers

The questionnaires to the teachers (see Appendixes 3 and 4) were administered in June 2009 to all the instructors participating in the European Sections Programme during school year 2008-2009 at the studied school (namely, two EFL teachers and one non-language subject teacher). In order to facilitate the filling-in of the questionnaire at the most suitable moment for each teacher, one printed copy was handed to each teacher. Once the questionnaires were filled-in—a few days afterwards—, they were collected.

There were two models of questionnaires: one addressed to each EFL teacher and a different one to the content teacher. Each teacher was requested to fill in the corresponding questionnaire. The overall objectives of both questionnaires were to determine the teachers’ profile in terms of mother tongue, use of English, academic qualifications, teaching experience (both in CLIL and non-CLIL education) and training in CLIL methodology, to get to know their teaching styles, and their perceptions about the amount of English used by themselves and the students in class. Both surveys were written in Catalan, but the teachers were allowed to answer them in Catalan, Spanish or English\(^{71}\) (as stated in the questionnaire’s instructions). The questionnaires consisted of both open-ended questions and close-ended questions.

The questionnaire to the EFL teachers

The questionnaire to the EFL teachers (see Appendix 3) consisted of 12 questions, one of which (question 8) was in turn divided into 8 parts (a-h). Questions 1-7 aimed at finding out the teaching profile of the instructors, while questions 8-12 enquired about aspects regarding teaching methodology and CLIL. Question 1 had to be answered in a word (or a few words) and questions 2-7, 8b-c, 8e and 9-11 were close-ended questions and had to be answered by ticking the most suitable answer. Questions 8a, d, f-h, and 12 were open questions and had to be answered in a sentence (or a few sentences). Five-point Likert scales were used in questions 10 and 11.

\(^{71}\) Only one of the English teachers answered the questionnaire in English since she was a native speaker of this language, while the other EFL teacher and the Technology one did so in Catalan, which was reportedly their mother tongue.
Question 1 enquired about the university degrees of the EFL teachers. They were asked about whether they held a three-year bachelor’s degree (i.e. the so-called “diplomatura” in Catalan), a four/five-year bachelor’s degrees (i.e. the so-called “llicenciatura” in Catalan), master degree and/or PhD. In the second question, the teachers were enquired about their mother tongue and were given the option of Catalan, Spanish and other. The third question enquired about the percentage daily use of English (in class and outside class) and the answer had to be chosen from a list of percentages ranging from 10-15% to 95-100%. Then the instructors were asked about their teaching experience (question 4) and the answer had to be chosen from a list of intervals. Question 5 enquired about the amount of years the teachers had been participating in the European Sections. In order to answer this question, again different options were provided. The kind of training in CLIL that the teachers had received and the duration of this training were asked in questions 6 and 7, respectively. Different parts of question 8 enquired about how the teachers helped the students with learning difficulties, which features defined them as teachers, the amount of English the pupils and the instructors used in class and the reason why English was not used always (if this was the case). The next question enquired about language differences (if any) observed between students who participated in the European Section and the ones who did not. Finally, questions 10 and 11 asked the teachers about their degree of satisfaction with the students in the European Sections and with the rest, respectively. Question 12 was devoted to further comments.

The questionnaire to the content subject teacher

The questionnaire to the content subject teacher (see Appendix 4) consisted of 11 questions, many of them also included in the EFL teachers’ questionnaire (i.e. 1, 3-9d, 9f-h and 11, which corresponded to questions 1, 2-8, 9c-h and 12 of the EFL teachers’ questionnaire, respectively). In this survey, questions 1-8 were also about teacher profile (as was the case for the EFL teachers’ questionnaires) and the rest (9-11) were about teaching methodology, language aspects and CLIL. The main difference between this survey and the one for EFL teachers was that in this case the focus was on the content subject and the way it was influenced by the fact of being taught in a FL.
4.2.1.3 The questionnaire to the European Sections Programme coordinator at the school

Administration of the questionnaire to the European Sections Programme coordinator at the school\(^{72}\) (see Appendix 5) followed the same procedure as in the case of the teachers’ questionnaires (see 4.2.1.2). The overall objective of the questionnaire was to find out the way in which the coordination of all the teachers participating in the European Sections Programme worked at the school and to determine the programme’s strong and weak points.

This survey was also written in Catalan, but could be answered in any language (i.e. Catalan, Spanish or English), as specified in the written instructions. It consisted of 8 open-ended questions and 3 close-ended questions,\(^{73}\) which had to be answered by ticking the most suitable answer and in two cases also by writing a sentence.

4.2.1.4 The questionnaire to the high school headship

Administration of this survey (see Appendix 6) followed the same procedure as the one for the teachers’ questionnaire (as described in 4.2.1.2). The focus of this questionnaire was organization and implementation of the European Sections Programme at the studied school. The survey was also written in Catalan and consisted of 20 questions, both open-ended and close-ended.

4.2.1.5 Informal questions to the teachers

This source of information was used to ask for clarification about unclear aspects regarding the implementation and development of the European Sections Programme at the school. Most questions were unplanned and arose after having observed some class sessions, browsed the high school’s official website or read and checked the documents provided by the

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\(^{72}\) The European Sections Programme coordinator at the studied school was also the content subject teacher.

\(^{73}\) Two of the close-ended questions were yes/no questions and the third one had to be answered by means of a five-point Likert scale.
school. This procedure was carried out by means of e-mails addressed to the content subject teacher (Teacher C) between December 2008 and January 2010. The information gathered from this source of information is included in different sections (mostly in 4.1.1).

Moreover, the researcher also asked one of the EFL teachers (Teacher A) spontaneous oral questions when visiting the school in the first stages of this research (from December 2008 to February 2009). The answers, remarks and personal reflections made by Teacher A were recorded through note-taking. This procedure provided both quantitative and qualitative data.

It is worth mentioning that in both cases (i.e. when questions were asked to Teacher C by means of e-mails and when asked orally to Teacher A) information refers not only to the respondent teacher herself, but to the students participating in the European Sections Programme or to the Programme itself.

4.2.1.6 Other data collection procedures

Apart from the data collection instruments described above, complementary information was gathered by means of other procedures which are stated below. These were used to complete the writing of some sections. Moreover, these additional sources of information afford richer, more exhaustive knowledge of the development of the European Sections Programme. In the sections where the data come from these information sources, it is explicitly referenced.

The high school’s official website

The official website of the school (www.iessonpacs.cat) is freely accessible and has general data about the school and information for the families and the students, such as the school calendar for the current school year or a list of the textbooks for each grade. Some of the information provided by this website is used to write section 4.1. Moreover, this site also contains public and official documents about the school, which were used in different sections, considered as bibliographical references and, therefore, cited as such.
Observation of some class sessions

During the course of school year 2008-2009 (from January to June 2009), a total of fifteen Technology and EFL classes in English were observed (and some of them were also videorecorded) and the information gathered was recorded in observation grids. The results of these observations (and recordings) will not be presented in this dissertation, but did provide the researcher with first-hand experience concerning the development of the European Sections Programme at the studied high school. This qualitative information, therefore, enriched the remarks and comments made throughout this dissertation.

Internal documents provided by the school

Internal documents are for organizational and informational purposes within the high school. They include the timetable of the three groups of 3rd grade CSE and the assessment criteria for assessing the Technology subject in English.

4.3 The subjects

A total of 63 subjects participated in this research, including students (N=60) and teachers (N=3). The teachers were all the instructors who teach in the European Section in IES Son Pacs (i.e. two EFL and one content teacher). The students were in the 3rd grade of CSE in the mentioned school and took a compulsory subject (namely Technology) in English within the European Sections Programme. (See 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 for a detailed description of the students and the teachers, respectively.)

While it is true to say that questionnaires were also administered to the high school headmaster and the European Sections Programme coordinator at the school, they are not considered subjects of this research. The reason is that the information they provided focussed on the subjects and the situation being analyzed (i.e. the implementation of the European Sections Programme at IES Son Pacs in Palma) rather than on themselves. That is to say, the
headmaster and the coordinator of the Programme were basically used in this research as sources of information.

Finally, although we are aware that the results obtained by studying a sample of 63 members may not be statistically significant and, \(^{74}\) consequently, extrapolated to similar contexts, a case study is useful to study specific situations. In fact, a case study is highly descriptive and enables researcher to formulate hypotheses based on inductive reasoning. Moreover, the study carried out was motivated by the fact that IES Son Pacs is the only school at present where the European Sections Programme is being universally implemented (see section 4.1.3) and as such deserves careful examination.

### 4.3.1 The students

Despite the fact that the number of pupils enrolled in 3\(^{rd}\) of CSE – the grade in which the European Section was implemented in the studied school – was 66, only 62 of them actually answered the questionnaires. \(^{75}\) In other words, there were 4 individuals who did not answer the questionnaires, because they did not attend classes the day the questionnaires were administered. Importantly enough, there was one pupil who answered the questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations, but s/he did not indicate his/her name and did not answer the profile questionnaire (his/her gender is, then, unknown). Moreover, the questions s/he answered seemed to follow a random pattern. Therefore, his/her answers were not considered. Finally, there was a newcomer student who did not want to answer the questionnaires because he could not understand them, despite the fact that he was offered language support by the researcher. For these reasons, the final number of valid student subjects for this research is 60.

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\(^{74}\) Making a statistically-based analysis of the implementation of the European Sections Programme is not the purpose of this research, but rather studying in detail the way in which this programme works, by using both qualitative and quantitative data, as stated in 1.2.

\(^{75}\) This count does not take into account the total number of students attending the observed class sessions, as the observations were not the focus of this research (see 4.2.1.7).
Of the 60 informants, 31 were females (51.7%) and 29 males (48.3%). The students were split into three mixed-ability classes, consisting of 18 (11 females and 7 males), 21 (13 females and 8 males), and 21 (7 females and 14 males) pupils, respectively. Most of them were born in 1994, a few of them in 1993 and only one was reportedly born in 1992. As the data included in this dissertation were collected between February and June 2009, the students were between 14 and 17 years old, with 14 and 15 being the most common ages.

Only four students reported not being born in the Balearic Islands: three of them were born in different countries of Spanish-speaking South America and the other one in another part of Spain. It has to be noted that 8 students did not answer this question, so the percentage of students not born in the Balearic Islands might be higher.

Additional information about the students’ profile (e.g. their mother tongue(s), the language(s) they spoke in different situations and the contact with the English language they had) will be detailed in 5.1.1. Moreover, 5.1.2 will account for the students’ beliefs, attitudes and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the subject of Technology in English. Finally, the information provided in these sections will be discussed in 6.1.

4.3.2 The teachers

As stated above, the totality of the instructors who taught in the European Sections Programme in academic year 2008-2009 –when this research was carried out– participated in this study. They were three female teachers: two of them belonged to the Department of Foreign Languages (English) and taught the EFL subject and the third was a member of the Technology Department and was the Technology teacher (i.e. the content subject).

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76 The information provided in this section was reported by the students themselves, by filling-in of the profile questionnaire (see Appendix 1).

77 If students do not repeat any course, they should start 3rd of CSE at 14 years of age (or 13 if they were born between mid-September and December) and finish the grade at 15 years of age (or 14 if they were born between mid-June and December). Therefore, in our case, the students who had not retaken any course were born in 1994.

78 All the information provided in section 4.3.2 was reported by the EFL and content teachers by filling-in the questionnaires (see Appendixes 3 and 4), unless otherwise stated.
One out of the two English teachers is a native speaker of British English, while the other one reported to have Catalan as her mother tongue. The Technology teacher also reported to be a native Catalan-speaker. Nevertheless, both the non-native English-speaking teachers proved to have an excellent command of the English language in the sessions we observed. In fact, the non-native English teacher holds a Spanish bachelor’s degree in English Philology, while the Technology teacher has the Certificate of Proficiency in English (University of Cambridge) and the Certificate of Aptitude in English (OLS). The daily use of English inside and outside the classroom reported by the native speaker was between 95% and 100%, compared to 31-59% reported by the non-native English teacher. The Technology teacher did not answer this question.

Regarding university degrees, the native English-speaker teacher has a Combined Honours Degree in French and Spanish, a degree in English Language and Literature and a Teacher Training (English) master’s degree. The other English teacher, as previously commented, holds a bachelor’s degree in English Philology. The Technology teacher has a bachelor’s degree in Physical Sciences.

As regards professional experience, two of the three teachers reportedly have between 6 and 10 years of teaching experience and the third one reported to have been teaching for 16 to 20 years. As far as experience in CLIL is concerned, two of the three teachers reported to have been working with CLIL methodology for more than five years, while the third one stated that she had two years of experience. In line with this, the most experienced teachers in CLIL reported that they had received between 151 and 200 hours of training in CLIL, while the other one only 26 to 50 hours. The three teachers reported to have attended courses organised by the Teachers’ Centre and two of them also said that they had participated in courses organised by the regional Ministry of Education and Culture of the Balearic Government and in pedagogical conferences. One of them additionally reported to have attended training sessions organised by publishing companies. Table 4 below summarizes the profile information of the three teachers who participated in the European Sections Programme at IES Son Pacs during school year 2008-2009.

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79 The non-native English-speakers were born in Majorca, while the native one is from England.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>TEACHER A</strong></th>
<th><strong>TEACHER B</strong></th>
<th><strong>TEACHER C</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>POSITION</strong></td>
<td>-EFL teacher</td>
<td>-EFL teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Coordinator of the European Sections Programme at the school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MOTHER TONGUE</strong></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Catalan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNIVERSITY DEGREES</strong></td>
<td>- Languages and Literature (FR, ES and EN) combined degree. -Teacher Training (EN) master’s degree.</td>
<td>- English Philology bachelor’s degree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE</strong></td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN CLIL</strong></td>
<td>&gt; 5 years</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRAINING IN CLIL</strong></td>
<td>151-200 hours</td>
<td>26-50 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4. Teachers’ profile*

Additional information about the three teachers will be detailed in 5.2, especially regarding their teaching strategies, roles they assigned to the L1 and L2 in classes and the ways in which language and content-related support was given to the students with a lower level in English or with special learning needs, among other aspects.

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80 Until school year 2008-2009, teachers A and B had worked at IES Son Pacs for 4 years, while Teacher C had taught there for 8 years.

81 Teacher A worked for 2 years within the European Section at another state high school in Majorca.
Chapter 5. Results

The data obtained from all the questionnaires (i.e. the language profile questionnaire and the questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations –both addressed to the students–, the questionnaire to the EFL teachers, the questionnaire to the content teacher, the questionnaire to the school’s programme coordinator, and the questionnaire to the headship),\textsuperscript{82} the informal questions to the teachers and the internal documentation given by the school provided the following results in response to the initial objectives (see 1.2). No further comments on the information gathered with the other instruments will be made, since it is included in other sections (mainly in 4.1).

5.1 The students’ questionnaires

As previously stated, 60 students answered the questionnaires in a suitable way. The data thus obtained are analyzed in the following sections.

5.1.1 The language profile questionnaire

In question 1, which enquired about the date when the pupils who were not born in the Balearic Islands came here, 5.7\% of the students acknowledged that they came from different countries of Spanish-speaking South-America and had been here since 2002, 2006 and 2007 and 1.9\% of them stated being born in another part of Spain but arriving in Majorca in 1998. Therefore, over 90\% of the students came from the Balearic Islands.

When the students were asked about which language they considered their mother tongue(s), more than half of them chose Catalan (57\% of the respondents), followed by Spanish (30\%). Thirteen percent of the informants considered that both Catalan and Spanish were their mother tongues, which implied that the percentage of self-reported Spanish-Catalan bilingual students was low. No other languages were reported (see Figure 5).

\textsuperscript{82} Data from the questionnaires were processed using Microsoft Office Excel 2003 spreadsheet.
A remark has to be made regarding answers related to languages spoken by students (questions 2-5): a few respondents chose the option “others (specify)” to indicate that they spoke “Majorcan” instead of Catalan. This answer, however, was counted and processed as “Catalan”.

In question 3 we asked the students which languages their parents spoke at home when they were children (see Figure 6 and Figure 7 below). Results reveal that almost half of the fathers spoke Catalan (44%) and a very similar percentage (45%) spoke Spanish. In the case of the mothers, more than half (57% of the cases) reportedly spoke Catalan, whereas Spanish was spoken in a smaller proportion (38%). Male and female parents spoke both Catalan and Spanish in the same proportion (5%). Finally, fathers used Spanish and English, Spanish and Tagalog, and Catalan and German in the same low proportion (2% of the respondents for each language combination). Broadly speaking, then, there were more female parents who spoke Catalan when they were children than fathers.

When we asked the students which languages their parents spoke to them, we did not find considerable differences between fathers and mothers (see Figure 8 and Figure 9). Catalan,

83 Tagalog, also called “Filipino”, is the autochthonous language of the Philippines, where it is official along with English.
a tongue which 60% of fathers and 66% of mothers used to speak to their children, was the most used language. Thirty-five percent of the fathers and 32% of the mothers reportedly spoke Spanish with their children. Finally, 5% of male parents and 2% of mothers talked both languages to their children.

![Language profile questionnaire](image)

We wanted to know which languages the students spoke to different people and in different settings (i.e. mother, father, siblings, other relatives, friends outside the high school, and at high school).

Regarding the languages they spoke to their parents (see Figure 10), the answers were practically the same for the father and mother: almost two thirds of the students reportedly spoke Catalan to their mothers and a slightly lower proportion of them spoke this language to their fathers. Spanish was used by more than a quarter of the students to speak to their mothers and by more than a third of them to speak to their fathers. Both languages were indistinctly used by 5% and 3% of the students to speak to their mothers and to their fathers, respectively. Two percent of respondents spoke Spanish and English to their mothers.

![Language profile questionnaire](image)
If this language portrait is compared with the outcomes regarding the languages spoken by the male and female parents to their children (the reverse situation) depicted in Figure 8 and Figure 9, no remarkable differences are found. To sum up, results showed that the most spoken language used in communication between parents and children is Catalan (about two thirds of the cases). Moreover, there were very few cases in which both Catalan and Spanish were used.

As Figure 12 below shows, answers provided by the students with regard to the languages they spoke to their siblings were the following: Catalan was the most used language to talk to brothers and sisters, chosen by two thirds of the respondents, followed by Spanish (a fifth of the students). Seven percent of the students used both Catalan and Spanish to talk to their siblings, while 2% of them reportedly used these two languages plus English. Finally, there were 5% of the informants who did not answer this question.

![Figure 12. Question 5 (siblings). Language profile questionnaire](image)

Virtually the same proportion of students (more than a third) spoke only Catalan or both Catalan and Spanish to other relatives, while only Spanish was spoken by a quarter of the informants, as Figure 13 shows.

![Figure 13. Question 5 (other relatives). Language profile questionnaire](image)

We also asked the students which languages they spoke to their friends outside the high school (see Figure 14). In this case, the answer most chosen was both Catalan and Spanish (four out of ten students), followed by only Catalan (about a third) and only Spanish (a fifth of the
cases). Other language combinations had a more residual representation (i.e. 3% of the respondents reportedly spoke Spanish, Catalan and English to their friends outside school and 2% of them used this language combination plus French).

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure14.png}
\caption{Question 5 (friends outside the high school). Language profile questionnaire}
\end{figure}

Finally, in the last point of question 5, which enquired about the languages students used at high school, Catalan alone was the most reported one (more than a third of the informants), as seen in Figure 15 below. Both Catalan and Spanish were used by almost a third of the respondents, a very similar proportion to those speaking these two languages plus English (a quarter). Spanish alone was chosen by 8% of the students. Two percent of the students reportedly spoke Catalan, Spanish, English and French at high school.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure15.png}
\caption{Question 5 (at the high school). Language profile questionnaire}
\end{figure}

To summarize the answers to question 5, Figure 16 below shows the percentage use of each language and linguistic combination mentioned, both alone and along with other languages. Catalan alone was the most mentioned language in almost all situations (i.e. as a mother tongue, by the mother when she was a child, by the male and female parent to the child, by the child to the father and to the mother, by the child to siblings, other relatives, friends outside the school context, and at high school), with percentages ranging from nearly 62% (by the mother when she was a kid) to almost 92% (in the school). Only when we asked the language spoken by the father when he was a kid, was Catalan (51.7%) slightly exceeded by Spanish (53.3%), but this
difference is negligible. Spanish is the second most used language, ranging from 28% use with siblings to 66% use with friends outside high school. Thirdly, both Catalan and Spanish in combination was mentioned to a lesser extent and percentage use of both languages was much lower (i.e. minimum of 2% as the language spoken by the mother to the student and maximum of 55% use at high school). Finally, other language combinations had a much scarcer presence, but it was in the high school where there appeared to be more linguistic diversity, probably because the students mentioned all the FLs they were learning.

In question 6, we asked the students whether they were studying another FL apart from English (without specifying whether it was at school or outside the school context). Fifteen percent of students answered affirmatively. The FLs referred to were French (more than three quarters of the students who had answered in the affirmative), Latin and South-American languages84 (nearly one out of ten of the students each).

The students were also asked about whether they had at any time been to an English-speaking country (in question 7). Approximately a quarter of the students had previously travelled to an English-speaking country (see Figure 17). The United Kingdom was the most popular English-speaking destination, chosen by more than half of the respondents who had

84 This answer was given without specifying what was exactly meant by “South-American languages”.
answered affirmatively, followed by the United States and Ireland with similar results (about a fifth each), as shown in Figure 18. Finally, there were another two countries visited (i.e. Malta and the Republic of South Africa), which had a scarce representation. It must be noted that some students had visited more than one English-speaking country.

![Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?](image)

![English-speaking countries visited by the students](image)

**Figure 17.** Question 7 (first part). Language profile questionnaire (L)

**Figure 18.** Question 7 (second part). Language profile questionnaire (R)

Regarding trips to English-speaking countries, two remarks have to be made. On the one hand, a few students seemed to confuse “visiting English-speaking countries” with “travelling abroad”, since they provided answers that had not anything to do with these countries (e.g. France, the Netherlands, etc.). A possible explanation could be that students spoke English when travelling abroad, if they did not know the language of the country. These students were considered as not having travelled to an English-speaking country. On the other hand, some informants did not provide a country but a city as answer. Thus, these answers were considered as if properly answered and classified in the right category according to the country (e.g. the UK) and not the city provided (e.g. London).

Most students had travelled to English-speaking countries for leisure and some of them had reportedly been on a trip in an English-speaking country both for leisure and to learn English. Regarding the length of the trips, most of them lasted between one and fourteen days and a few of them reportedly lasted up to a month.

Almost three quarters of the students would be favourable to participating in cultural exchanges with young people from English-speaking countries, as

Figure 19 below shows. The reasons that students put forward to participate in exchanges are the following: a) getting to know cultures, people and new things (33.9%), b) learning (24.5%), c) practising oral English (13.2%), d) living interesting experiences (11.3%), e)
travelling (5.6%), f) having a change (5.6%), g) having more chances in the future (3.7%), and h) loving English (1.8%). On the other hand, reasons not to do so are: a) disliking exchanges (75%), b) liking one’s own country (12.5%), and c) being afraid of planes (12.5%). It is worth mentioning that more than one answer was provided in some cases and that no options were provided in this question (i.e. it was an open-ended question).

The next question enquired about the FL that students first learned at school, which was reportedly English in all cases. As Figure 20 shows, more than half of the informants reportedly started learning English in PE (6-12 years). A quarter of the pupils started learning English in the first course of PE (6 years), which is the first compulsory grade in the Spanish education system.

Question 11 enquired about whether EFL and Technology classes at school were totally or almost totally taught in English during school year 2008-2009 (when the research was carried
Most students answered affirmatively, but there were more positive answers in the case of EFL than in the case of Technology (88% vs. 77%), as shown in Figure 21 and Figure 22.

In question 12, in which we asked the students whether they had studied another content subject in English before (see Figure 23), more than three quarters answered negatively. When we asked them to specify which subject and in which grade (i.e. EP or CSE), all the informants who answered affirmatively (almost a quarter) indicated that the subject was Technology during CSE, except for one student, who provided Natural Sciences during EP as an answer. Therefore, almost eight out of ten pupils studied a content subject in English for the first time.

More than half of the informants have reportedly been studying a content subject in English (Technology or another one) for two years (Figure 24 below).
The answers provided to questions 12 and 13 (see Figure 23 and Figure 24, respectively) appear to be contradictory, since these students also had Technology in English in the 2nd grade of CSE during school year 2007-2008 (see Table 2 on page 55), unless they had not attended the same school the previous year. A possible explanation for some differences in these results might be the fact that some students could not have considered Technology a possible answer.\textsuperscript{85} Although it is true that this subject was explicitly included in the wording of question 12, the students seemed to believe that the wording of the questionnaire was not adapted to them,\textsuperscript{86} but rather addressed to many other schools participating in the European Sections Programme. Moreover, in question 13, it was not made explicit whether the current year had to be counted or not, a fact that could explain why only half of the students reported to have been studying the Technology subject in English for two years. In a few words, actually, all the subjects of this study should have taken Technology in English for two years (i.e. in the 2nd and the 3rd grade of CSE) or more in case they have retaken any course (if they have studied at IES Son Pacs for at least two years).

\textsuperscript{85} However, the question was meant to include the Technology subject.

\textsuperscript{86} The original questionnaires designed by members of the COLE Project were addressed to all the schools in the Balearic Islands participating in the European Sections Programme. The wording and some questions in the surveys used in this case study were adapted to the specific features of the studied school (e.g. the content subject was referred to as “Technology” and the teachers were designated with feminine forms). By doing so, the questions could be more relevant to the students.
In question 14, we asked the students about the marks they had obtained in core language subjects (i.e. Catalan, Spanish and EFL) the previous school year. Broadly speaking, it can be said that the marks reported were high. Average marks in Catalan and in Spanish were almost the same, with a mean of 7.24 and 7.23, respectively (see Figure 25 and Figure 26). In the case of EFL, the average mark was slightly higher and the mean was 7.75 (see Figure 27). Regarding the mode, it was 8 in the case of Catalan, 7 in Spanish, and 8 and 9 in the case of English.

With regards to the best marks in each subject, 21%, 22% and 30% of the students have a 9 or a 10 in Catalan, Spanish and English, respectively. English is, therefore, the subject with the highest percentage of outstanding marks. Regarding good marks (7 and 8), 32% of the informants reportedly got these marks in Catalan and 35% of the students had these scores in Spanish and English, respectively. As far as pass marks go (5 and 6), 25% of the students acknowledged that they got a 5 or a 6 in Catalan, 13% of them reportedly had these marks in Spanish and 10% of the informants got a 5 or a 6 in English. Five percent of the students did not pass the Catalan subject and the same percentage failed English, while 10% of them got less than a 5 in Spanish. As a final remark, we would like to emphasize that 17% of the students did not answer in the case of Catalan and a slightly higher percentage (20%) did not answer in the case of Spanish and English.

Which mark did you get last school year in the Catalan class?

![Pie chart](image)

**Figure 25. Question 14 (Catalan). Language profile questionnaire**

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87 In the Spanish education system, marks range from 0 to 10, (10 is the best, 0 is the worst and 5 is a pass).

88 To calculate means, blank answers (DK/REF) were not counted.

89 The mode is the most frequently occurring value.

90 English marks show a bimodal distribution, since they have two modes (i.e. two values with the same absolute frequency).
Which mark did you get last school year in the Spanish class?

Figure 26. Question 14 (Spanish). Language profile questionnaire

Which mark did you get last school year in the EFL class?

Figure 27. Question 14 (EFL). Language profile questionnaire

Figure 28 below summarizes all the information regarding the marks reportedly obtained by students in the core language subjects mentioned (namely Catalan, Spanish and English). As a general remark, it can be said that most of the students passed the three subjects and the average marks were quite high.
To sum up, the students had a good language basis both in the L1s and in English, which could have made learning a content subject in English easier.

Question 15 enquired about attending out-of-school English classes (e.g. language schools, private classes or summer courses). It consisted of a general question (i.e. attendance or non-attendance), as well as three questions to be answered if the general one was affirmatively answered.

About half of the students have reportedly taken some out-of-school English courses, as Figure 29 below shows.

The second part of this question involved the students who had answered affirmatively as to how long (in years) they had been learning English in language schools or private classes (see
One third of the respondents had been learning English for 3 years. It is also remarkable that almost a quarter of the pupils had been attending English courses for five or more years. The average number of years attending these courses was 3.2.

![Diagram](Image)

*Figure 30. Question 15 (second part). Language profile questionnaire*

Finally, the third and fourth part of question 15 enquired about the number and total length, respectively, of summer courses of English taken by the students (see Figure 31 and Figure 32). A third of the students had reportedly taken 5 or more summer courses and the same percentage had taken 3 courses, with 3.3 the average number of courses taken by each respondent.

![Diagram](Image)

*Figure 31. Question 15 (third part). Language profile questionnaire*

Regarding the length of the intensive summer courses, the most referred duration was 15 days (44%), followed by 3 months or more, with one third of the answers.
In question 16, which asked the students whether they were taking any out-of-school English courses in academic year 2008-2009, two thirds of the respondents answered negatively, as Figure 33 shows. Among those who answered affirmatively, the most common frequency of English classes was two hours per week, with 42% of the answers (see Figure 34).

Question 17 enquired about the frequency of seven different activities in English, namely watching films, videos, etc.; listening to music, to the radio, etc.; reading books, newspapers, etc.; browsing the web; writing chats, letters, etc.; speaking; and other activities. As Figure 35 shows, the most popular activity done in English by students was listening to music, to the radio, etc. (81% of the students reportedly did it very often or often). What respondents least did was reading newspapers or books in English, as 75% of them never or hardly ever carried out those activities and nobody did so very often, which was exactly the same as in writing. However, the percentage of people who wrote often or very often was higher than in the case of reading (10%
vs. 2%). Browsing the Internet and speaking had similar results (22% and 17% of the respondents, respectively, did so often or very often, while 55% and 54% of the students, respectively, never or hardly ever did so).

![Figure 35. Question 17 (all the activities). Language profile questionnaire](image)

To summarize the answers to questions 15-17, it can be said that half of the students had taken out-of-school English courses at some time. Almost seventy percent of these students had done so for three years or more. However, globally, the pupils could not be said to have an intensive contact with the English language outside the school, since they did not usually do activities in English.

In question 18, we posed different situations regarding the use of English in class (see Figure 36, Figure 37, Figure 38, Figure 39 and Figure 40). Our aim was to establish whether there were differences in the linguistic behaviour of students depending on a) the language their interlocutor used, b) who the interlocutor was (i.e. a teacher or a peer), and c) the setting (subject) in which the interaction took place (i.e. EFL class or Technology in English class).

Firstly, we asked the pupils whether they used English to speak to a peer who had talked to them in the L1 (i.e. Catalan or Spanish) in the Technology in English class (see Figure 36). Eighty-six percent of the students reportedly acknowledged that they never or almost never used English to talk to a peer who had spoken to them in the L1. There were no students who always used English in this situation.
If a peer speaks L1 to you, do you answer him/her in English (Technology class)?

- Always: 0%
- Often: 18%
- Sometimes: 68%
- Hardly ever: 12%
- Never: 0%
- DK/REF: 2%

**Figure 36. Question 18 (a). Language profile questionnaire**

Secondly, we asked the same question but referred to the EFL class (Figure 37). Results in this case were not very different: 89% of the students reportedly never or hardly ever spoke English to a peer who had talked to them in the L1 in the EFL class. Nevertheless, the percentage of respondents who talked in English to a peer was lower in the case of the EFL than in the Technology class (57% vs. 68%).

If a peer speaks L1 to you, do you answer him/her in English (EFL class)?

- Always: 0%
- Often: 32%
- Sometimes: 8%
- Hardly ever: 3%
- Never: 0%
- DK/REF: 32%

**Figure 37. Question 18 (b). Language profile questionnaire**

As we shall see next, use of English reportedly increased when a student had talked to another pupil in English. Half of the students said that they always or often spoke English to a peer who had talked to them in English in Technology class and the percentage of those who reportedly never or hardly ever used English in this situation was less than a third. One out of five students answered that they sometimes spoke English in this situation, as shown in Figure 38.
We asked the students the same question applied to EFL (i.e. whether they used English to speak to a peer who had talked to them in English in the EFL class), as depicted in Figure 39. The answers obtained were similar to the former ones: more than half of the respondents reportedly always or often spoke English in this situation and a quarter of them never or hardly ever did so.

Finally, we asked the students what they did when either the EFL teacher or the Technology teacher spoke English to them. As Figure 40 depicts, more than a third of the students reportedly spoke English to the Technology teacher, while the percentage of students who did so with the EFL teacher was higher (53%) (see Figure 41). There were fewer students who never or hardly ever spoke English to the EFL teacher (15%) than to the Technology

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91 We did not ask the same question referring to the situation when the teachers speak Catalan or Spanish, since we assume it hardly ever takes place.
teacher (25%). About a third of the respondents sometimes talked in English to the EFL teacher and to the Technology teacher, respectively.

Lastly, in question 19, we asked the students about their perceptions concerning the amount of English used in class by themselves and by the teachers (i.e. the Technology and EFL teachers). This question was also divided into four sections, enquiring about the use of English by a) the Technology teacher, b) EFL teacher, c) pupils in the Technology class, and d) students in the EFL class (see Figure 42, Figure 43, Figure 44 and Figure 45, respectively).

Figure 42 and Figure 43 below illustrate that almost all students reportedly thought that the amount of English used by teachers was adequate.

Almost three quarters of the students thought that they spoke too little English in the Technology class and approximately half of them thought the same about the EFL class, as shown in Figure 44 and Figure 45.
To sum up, the answers to question 19 show, on the one hand, that students considered their use of English in class insufficient, regarding both the EFL class and the content class (i.e. Technology), despite the fact that they seemed to make an effort to speak English specially with teachers. On the other hand, the pupils thought the EFL and Technology teachers used English in class in the right proportion.

5.1.2 The questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the subject of Technology in English

5.1.2.1 Attitudes

In question 1, which inquired about the obligatoriness of English at school, almost half of the students acknowledged that they studied English because it was compulsory to do so, while a little over a third disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement (see Figure 46).
As Figure 47 shows, when we asked the students whether they liked the English subject despite it being compulsory, a vast majority of the students (86%) reportedly agreed or strongly agreed.

The next question (see Figure 48) aimed at establishing whether students liked English because it would help them to find a good job. In this case almost nobody opposed this idea, with about three quarters of the respondents being favourable or very favourable to it.
I like English because it will help me to find a good job

Strongly agree: 35%
Agree: 18%
Undecided: 3%
Disagree: 3%
Strongly disagree: 0%
DK/REF: 0%

Figure 48. Question 3. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

Eighty-four percent of the students usually liked music in English and they wanted to understand it, as Figure 49 below shows.

I like music in English and I want to understand it

Strongly agree: 61%
Agree: 23%
Undecided: 12%
Disagree: 2%
Strongly disagree: 0%
DK/REF: 0%

Figure 49. Question 4. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

The next question, in which we asked the students whether they liked watching films in English and understanding them, did not show such clear differences. It could be said that approximately a third of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed, another third disagreed or strongly disagreed and the last third was undecided. Figure 50 depicts these results.
In response to question 6, almost half of the students thought that knowing English would help them to understand videogames, whilst more than a fifth of the respondents disagreed. It is also remarkable that about a third of the learners did not have an answer (see Figure 51).

Figure 52 shows that eighty-eight percent of respondents liked English. The percentage of students who acknowledged that they did not like the FL at all was very low (3%).
When we asked the students whether they liked English but did not like the EFL subject (in question 8; see Figure 53), almost three quarters of them did not agree or strongly disagreed.

Question 9 inquired about the marks the students obtained in the EFL subject. It is remarkable that seventy-nine per cent of respondents reportedly got good scores in EFL, as shown by Figure 54.
Almost all the students reportedly wanted to travel abroad and they thought that knowing English would help them on their trips, as Figure 55 below shows. It is most remarkable that the option most chosen was “strongly agree”, with three quarters of the answers.

As Figure 56 below illustrates, more than three quarters of the pupils seemed to be in favour of knowing English to be able to communicate with foreign people. As was the case in the previous question, “strongly agree” is the option chosen by most respondents (60% of the total).
As Figure 57 and Figure 58 below show, about two thirds of the students were interested in learning other languages apart from English. However, when the students were asked whether they would learn another FL, the percentage of agreement was lower (little over half).

In question 14 (plotted on Figure 59) we wanted to know the number of students who reportedly liked English but not the Technology class in English. It is remarkable that more than half of them did not match this profile.
I like English but I do not like Technology class in English

Figure 59. Question 14. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

According to 82% of the respondents, the explanations made by the Technology teacher were clear. Figure 60 shows these outcomes.

Figure 60. Question 15. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

Question 16 (see Figure 61) was similar to question 14 (see Figure 59), but in this case we only asked whether the students liked the fact that the Technology subject was in English or not (regardless of whether they liked EFL). Importantly enough, more than half of the students reportedly liked learning Technology in English.
I do not like taking the subject of Technology in English

Figure 61. Question 16. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

Three quarters of the students acknowledged getting good marks in the Technology in English class, as shown by Figure 62.

Figure 62. Question 17. Attitudes. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

Figure 63 reflects that more than half of the students surveyed liked Technology in English. It is also outstanding that about a third of the respondents were undecided.
Finally, we asked the students whether they were happy with the fact of taking a content subject (i.e. Technology) in English. Again, more than half of the pupils answered positively and only 14% of them did so negatively. Almost a third of the students were undecided. These results are plotted in Figure 64.

Broadly speaking, students did like English and Technology in English and they seemed to show a positive attitude towards FLs and especially towards EFL.

5.1.2.2 Beliefs

Before starting to comment on the results of the beliefs section in the questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations, it should be made clear that questions 1-10 are more related to the EFL subject, while the following items of the survey (questions 11-19) are about the subject of Technology in English.
As far as the EFL subject is concerned, in questions 1-4 (see Figure 65, Figure 66, Figure 67 and Figure 68) we wanted to know what the students thought about the difficulty or ease of the four basic language skills (i.e. speaking, reading, writing and listening) in EFL. When the students were enquired about speaking English (Figure 65), the percentage of them who found it easy (39%) was slightly higher than the percentage who found it difficult (35%). However, there were a considerable number of undecided respondents (26%).

![Speaking English is difficult](image)

Figure 65. Question 1. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations (L)

Regarding the ease of reading texts in English, more than half of the respondents considered it an easy activity. Again, the number of undecided respondents was relatively high (28%), as can be seen in Figure 66 below.

![Reading English is easy](image)

Figure 66. Question 2. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations (R)

In question 3, which enquired about the difficulty of writing texts in English (Figure 67), a little over a third of respondents thought that writing in English was difficult. The number of undecided students was high (a fifth).
Almost a third of the respondents considered understanding spoken English (i.e. listening) was easy (question 4; Figure 68), while another third did not have a clear answer.

To sum up, regarding the ease or the difficulty of the activities related to each of the four language skills (namely speaking, reading, writing and listening) in English, general trends show that, on the one hand, the students found it easy to speak and read in English. On the other hand, the learners considered writing and listening to English difficult activities. It is remarkable, thus, that receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening) do not seem to prevail in terms of ease over productive skills (namely speaking and writing). It is also worth mentioning that in the four cases the number of undecided students was high (ranging from 20% for writing to 30% for listening).

Questions 5 (Figure 69) and 6 (Figure 70) are both related to anxiety, thus we will comment on their results in parallel. The aim was to establish differences between the degree of anxiety of the students when they had to speak English in general and when they had an EFL class. Broadly speaking, the students felt more anxious when they had to speak in English. Thus,
results show that 93% of the respondents did not get nervous when they had an EFL class, while the percentage of students who did not get anxious when they had to speak English dropped to 44%. The percentage of undecided students was also very different, with 5% in the case of EFL class and 15% in the case of having to speak English.

Figure 69. Question 5. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations (L)
Figure 70. Question 6. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations (R)

Question 7 shows that more than three quarters of the pupils did not oppose the idea of getting to know more English speakers (see Figure 71). Specifically, more than half of the students would reportedly like to meet more English-speaking people, whereas the percentage of opponents did not reach a quarter of the respondents.

Figure 71. Question 7. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

In question 8, which is visualized in Figure 72, enquiring about the amount of effort students put into EFL, more than half of the informants considered they made a great effort. The percentage of those who were undecided was considerably high (26%).
As Figure 73 below shows, learning English was reportedly important for almost all students (91%). Two percent of the respondents acknowledged that they did not consider English as being important at all and 7% of them did not have a clear opinion.

Figure 74 shows that seventy-three percent of the respondents did not oppose the statement that it is necessary to know English in the Balearic Islands, while 27% of them reportedly disagreed with it.
As far as the Technology subject is concerned, most students (88%) did not acknowledge feeling nervous when they had Technology in English. Twelve percent of respondents did not have a clear answer, as can be seen in Figure 75.

When the students were asked whether they tried very hard in the Technology in English class (Figure 76), half of them answered affirmatively. Less than a quarter of the respondents acknowledged that they did not try hard in the Technology in English class and a similar percentage of the respondents did not have a clear opinion.
It seems to be an acknowledged fact that the students’ self-reported level of English improved thanks to Technology in English, as shown in Figure 77. Indeed, 82% of the respondents did not oppose this idea whereas only 18% did.

Nearly three quarters of the students acknowledged that Technology in English was easier than they thought. A considerable percentage of the pupils did not have a clear opinion, as Figure 78 below shows.
Question 15 (Figure 79) asked the students about improvement in their language performance in relation to hard work in the Technology subject in English. Almost half of the students considered that their level of English was improving as a result of their hard work in this subject. Nevertheless, a similar percentage of the informants was undecided.

![Figure 79. Question 15. Beliefs: Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations](image)

As Figure 80 illustrates, fifty-one percent of the students thought that having a high level of English and much interest were key factors for understanding Technology in English, while 20% of them did not think that way. A considerable third of the pupils did not have a clear answer.

![Figure 80. Question 16. Beliefs: Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations](image)

Question 17, plotted in Figure 81, enquired about the usefulness of the materials students were given in the Technology in English class. It is remarkable that ninety-one percent of the learners agreed with or did not deny the helpfulness of the materials.
The majority opinion of the students was that the Technology teacher helped them to follow the subject very much, with 76% of informants being favourable to that view. Seven percent of the respondents explicitly opposed this idea and 15% of the respondents were undecided, as Figure 82 shows.

Most students either agreed (52%) or did not openly disagree (29%) with the fact that studying content subjects in English is important, regardless of the subject taught. Almost a fifth of the respondents were contrary to this opinion. These outcomes are portrayed in Figure 83.
Finally, we found 57% disagreement to the statement that it was difficult to follow the Technology subject in English among the students, whereas 41% of the respondents did not oppose this opinion (see Figure 84).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I find it difficult to understand the content of the subject of Technology in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK/REF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20%  36%  14%  8%  2%  2%

Figure 84. Question 20. Beliefs. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations

5.1.2.3 Motivations

Prior to commenting on the results of the motivations section in the questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations, it should be noted that items 1-8 in the questionnaire focus on the EFL subject, whereas the following questions of the survey (9-15) are about the Technology in English subject.

With regard to the EFL subject, speaking and listening were reportedly the favourite activities to do in this class, chosen by 37% and 33% of the students, respectively. Doing vocabulary and grammar exercises was what 18% of the respondents liked most. Reading (8%) and writing (2%) have a scarce representation (see Figure 85).
The main reason to learn English well (see Figure 86) was being able to communicate with people in other parts of the world, chosen by more than a third of students. About a fifth of the respondents reportedly wanted to learn English well because they wanted a good job and the same proportion of students stated that they liked this language as the main reason to learn English. The fact of being a requirement was the main reason for 13% of the learners to study the target language. Two percent of the respondents chose “other reasons” and specified that they wanted to get a good mark.

Almost half of the students reportedly studied much or quite a lot in the EFL class and about a fifth acknowledged that they studied little or not at all. The number of undecided students was remarkably high (a third), as Figure 87 below shows.
In the EF L class I am studying...

![Chart showing preferences for learning English]

*Figure 87. Question 3. Motivations. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations*

In question 4 (plotted in Figure 88) we asked the students what their main reason for learning English was. Knowing the language, chosen by about two thirds of the respondents, was the most important motivation for learners to study English. Secondly, respondents appeared to think of their future and, accordingly, almost a quarter selected finding a good job as the most important reason. Thirdly, 10% of the informants elected culture-based reasons. Finally, 3% of the students chose fulfilling the requirement and the same percentage opted for “other reasons” and specified that they wanted to be able to speak to other people who did not talk Spanish or Catalan.

![Chart showing most important reasons for learning English]

*Figure 88. Question 4. Motivations. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations*

Questions 5 and 6 enquired about motivations in EFL, from a positive and a negative perspective respectively (i.e. what motivated students most –in question 5– and least –in question 6–), as depicted by Figure 89 and Figure 90. In both cases, students could choose the same options. From the results obtained, the mark, the way the subject was taught, and the activities done seemed to be the three things that motivated students most. These answers
accounted for slightly over a quarter of the total responses each. However, activities done and the mark were also elected by 15% and 12% of the respondents, respectively, as the least motivating thing. It is remarkable that working in groups had very similar results in both questions, since it was chosen by 14% of the students as the main motivating factor and by 13% of them as the least motivating factor. What motivated students least was the amount of work they were required to do: nobody chose this option as the main motivating factor, whereas it was chosen by almost half of the students as the least attractive. Finally, 8% of the students acknowledged that they were not motivated at all by the way the EFL subject was taught.

When we asked the students what they liked most about the English language (Figure 91), more than two thirds agreed that it was the things that could be done by knowing English. Fourteen percent of the respondents reportedly loved the sound of English. English speakers and English-speaking cultures were what 10% and 7%, respectively, of students most liked about English.
In question 8 (see Figure 92), which enquired about the degree of motivation of the students in the EFL class, the motivation of more than half of them was reportedly high or very high, whereas less than a tenth of the respondents said to be either little motivated or not motivated at all. Finally, it is remarkable that over a third of the respondents had a normal degree of motivation.

![My motivation in the EFL class is...](image)

**Figure 92. Question 8. Motivations. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations**

As far as the Technology subject taught in English is concerned, the most chosen reason (44%) why students reportedly wanted to do their best in the Technology in English class was that they liked this subject. Secondly, being a requirement and wanting to find a good job were chosen by less than a fifth of the respondents each. Thirdly, 15% of students thought that the most important reason to do their best was to be able to communicate with people worldwide. Finally, 5% of the students chose other reasons not provided (i.e. to get a good mark and to know both more English and Technology). This question is represented in Figure 93.

![I want to do my best in the Technology in English class because...](image)

**Figure 93. Question 9. Motivations. Questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivations**
Almost all the students (93%) thought that they were not studying little in the Technology class—with more than half of the pupils reportedly studying much or quite a lot—as Figure 94 below shows.

Questions 11 and 12 enquired about students’ motivation. We wanted to know what motivates students most (question 11) and least (question 12) in the Technology in English class (see Figure 95 and Figure 96, respectively). We gave them the same options in both cases. Broadly speaking, it could be said that what motivated the students most was activities done in this subject (39%), whereas the least motivating thing was said to be the amount of work done (59% of negative answers and 2% of positive). Secondly, working in groups was chosen by 29% and 7% of the respondents as the most motivating and least motivating factor, respectively. Thirdly, the mark was what motivated 20% of the students most, and 7% of respondents opted for this category in the opposite way. Finally, it is remarkable that the way the subject was taught was a factor with very similar percentages in both questions (i.e. 9% as what motivated most and 10% as the least motivating factor).
Continuing with motivation, the next thing we wanted to know was how motivated the students were in the Technology in English class. Almost half of the students acknowledged that they were motivated or very motivated and a scarce 4% felt little or very little motivated. It is outstanding that more than half of the pupils did not show a clear opinion about their degree of motivation (see Figure 97).

As seen in Figure 98, three quarters of the respondents had a considerable degree of motivation due to the fact of having to use English in the Technology subject. However, this factor motivated some students little (15%) or not at all (10%).

Finally, the last two questions were about the fact that the Technology in English subject was taught by two teachers (i.e. an EFL and a Technology teacher) at the same time. We wanted to know whether this factor motivated the students (question 15) and whether it facilitated students’ learning in their opinion (question 16). In a few words, it can be said that the presence of the two teachers at the same time was positive both in terms of student motivation and
learning facilitation. As Figure 99 and Figure 100 below show, then, over half of the students felt motivated or very motivated by this factor, whereas 3 out of 4 respondents thought that the fact that the Technology in English subject was taught by both an EFL and a Technology teacher facilitated their learning. About a third of the students did not have a clear answer regarding motivation, while the undecided students were fewer in the case of learning facilitation (less than a fifth).

![Graphs showing student responses to questions 15 and 16 regarding motivations.](image)

5.2 **The teachers’ questionnaires**

As previously stated, the questionnaires were answered by all the instructors involved in the European Sections Programme at IES Son Pacs during school year 2008-2009. They were three female teachers: two EFL and one content subject (i.e. Technology) instructors.

5.2.1 **The questionnaire to the EFL teachers**

The data gathered from questions 1-7 of the questionnaire to the EFL teachers (see Appendix 3) are included in section 4.3.2 to define the teachers’ profile, and therefore this information will not be commented on again in this section.

Regarding question 8a –an open-ended question–, which asked the teachers about the aspects of their teaching that in their opinion promoted students’ learning most, Teacher A referred to the “use of language for real life situations” and to the fact that the “students do not
learn by means of mechanical grammar exercises”, but instead “they practise the four skills [i.e. speaking, writing, listening and reading] by means of practical and useful tasks and exams”; while Teacher B mentioned the fact of working with projects and using templates.

In question 8b, we asked the teachers to choose from a list the statements referred to teaching styles that defined them best. Both teachers A and B acknowledge that they made the students work inside and outside the classroom. They encouraged working in groups (role-plays, projects, etc.) in the classroom. They liked designing new materials for their teaching and they used material of different levels to deal with learners’ diversity. They often used ICT. Apart from these statements, Teacher B opted for the fact of valuing communication ability more than accuracy, working more on productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) and of often complementing the publishing company’s method with other material, while Teacher A reportedly tried to work on the four skills equally and fomented interdisciplinary contents.

Both teachers reportedly spoke English 90% of the time in a typical EFL class (question 8c). Regarding reasons for not using it all the time (which 8d tapped into), Teacher B acknowledged that she used Catalan for disciplinary aspects, because it was more effective. Teacher A used the L1 with “students with serious learning problems or difficulties but only after having explained things once or twice in English first”.

There was no agreement between the two teachers with regards to the percentage of English used by the students in a typical EFL class (question 8e). According to Teacher A, the pupils spoke English 80% of the class time, whereas Teacher B thought the percentage use of English by students was lower (60%). According to Teacher B, the students did not speak English when they did not know how to express what they wanted to say by using structures learned in class. Teacher A answered that students did not use English when they wanted to check that they had understood things correctly. Moreover, Teacher B acknowledged that there were students who talked English much more than others.

In question 8g, we asked the teachers what kind of language support they offered the European Sections students so that they could overcome difficulties posed by the English language. Teacher B mentioned the use of templates, repetition of explanations, personalized monitoring in split-up classes and techniques to simplify what was to be said.

Question 8h enquired about the strategies used by the teachers to integrate the pupils with learning difficulties, both in terms of language and content. Teacher B explained that when doing a group project, these students were assigned tasks they were able to do, while more
precise and detailed instructions were given to these learners when the project was to be carried out individually.

In question 9, we asked the teachers whether they observed any language differences between the students who participated in the European Sections programme and the ones who did not. Both teachers answered affirmatively and agreed upon the kind of language differences: attitudinal (i.e. the European Section students overcame their fears towards the English language and assumed the target language as normal, according to Teacher B), procedural (i.e. the European Sections learners were very used to working in English and to using necessary resources, according to Teacher B), and language competence-wise (i.e. the European Sections students’ performance was higher, according to Teacher B). Moreover, Teacher A added that the European Sections pupils saw the Technology subject in English as a useful part of their life, which would explain why they changed the way they learned and studied: most stopped seeing projects as a chore and exams as a threat.

In questions 10 and 11, the teachers were asked to evaluate their degree of satisfaction with the students who participated in the European Sections Programme (q. 10) and the ones who did not (q. 11), by ticking the most suitable answer from a five-point Likert scale. In the former question, both teachers marked 1 (the highest degree of satisfaction), while in the latter, Teacher A chose 1 and Teacher B wrote 2 (the second highest degree of satisfaction).

The last item of the questionnaire (q. 12) was devoted to further comments. Teacher A added that probably one of the main drawbacks of teaching European Sections was the huge amount of paperwork involved, which she considered useless in many cases.

5.2.2 The questionnaire to the content teacher

The data gathered from questions 1-8 of the questionnaire to the content teacher (Appendix 4) are included in 4.3.2 to define the teachers’ profile, so we are not going to comment on this information again in this section.

When the teacher was asked about her percentage of English use in a European Sections session (q. 9a), she acknowledged that her English use in class reached 60% of the time. She reportedly used the L1 orally to give some explanations depending on their complexity and on the ease for the students to follow the instructions (q. 9b). Regarding percentage use of English
by students, the content teacher said they used English in less than 50% of each session (q. 9c) and the use of English by pupils would depend on their language level. She added that the learners spoke in the L1 to communicate with each other (q. 9d). The teacher partially agreed with the fact that using the L1 in the class has to be avoided (asked by means of a five-point Likert scale in q. 9e).

The next question (q. 9f) asked her about the kind of language support the European Sections students were provided with in order to overcome difficulties posed by English. She referred to the fact that the material employed had visual aids to make comprehension easier and that the EFL teacher was in the class one hour per week (see 4.1.3 for a detailed account on the organization of the European Section).

In questions 9g and 9h we asked the teacher about the strategies used to integrate students with learning difficulties, whether content or language difficulties, respectively. In terms of language, group activities were encouraged in a way that groups were as heterogeneous as possible, so that the students with greater language competence could help the others to do the activities. In terms of content, students with learning difficulties were assigned easier tasks with an increasing difficulty level.

In the teacher’s view, subject contents were perfectly attained despite being taught in English (q. 9i), since projects concerning building things, problem solving and electrical calculations were simple enough. Moreover, she also acknowledged that achievement of objectives was facilitated by assessing only attitudes and knowledge of the subject and not language proficiency.

Regarding the benefits and drawbacks of carrying out the European Sections Programme (q. 9j and 9k, respectively), the teacher pointed out a lack of content teachers with the required qualifications in English (she was the only one at her school) and time to prepare activities and coordinate the activities with EFL teachers as the main drawbacks. Regarding the benefits, she referred to the fact that activities in English enabled her to cover more online resources and that teaching with teachers from another department entailed improved, increased teaching strategies.

In question 9l, we asked the teacher which language(s) could be used by students to do class activities, homework, projects and tests. She answered that written activities were to be done in English, although the students could speak to each other in the L1 freely.

The next question (9m) enquired about whether the students’ language competence was evaluated when assessing the subject. The teacher answered negatively, but added that,
obviously, a student with a greater language competence would be able to follow the subject more easily.

We wanted to know whether any kind of temporal progression was established with regard to English use in class. The teacher answered negatively again and emphasized that oral and written activities (e.g. presentations, tests and projects) always had to be done in English. In class, oral use of English was encouraged, while using this language for written activities was compulsory.

Finally (q. 10), we asked the teacher about her degree of satisfaction with the running of the European Sections Programme. The question had to be answered by ticking the appropriate box of a five-point Likert scale. The teacher chose “1”, the highest degree of satisfaction.

No further comments were provided by the teacher in response to question 11.

5.3 The questionnaire to the European Sections Programme coordinator at the school

In the first question, which enquired about the functions of the programme coordinator, she reportedly had to coordinate all the teachers involved, write the project and the annual report, participate in COMENIUS European projects and apply to do so, as well as organize European Section extracurricular activities.

Regarding coordinating mechanisms between different agents involved in the programme at her school (q. 2), the coordinator stated that they had usually had a weekly hour devoted to coordinating tasks, when possible. Nonetheless, during school year 2008-2009 it was not possible and the teachers participating in the European Sections had to devote free hours to coordination. In question 3, we asked the coordinator how the teachers involved in teaching Technology in English were coordinated. She replied that in school year 2008-2009 she was the only content teacher participating, but the year before the teachers coordinated each other at the Technology Department meetings.

When we asked the coordinator about the drawbacks of her position regarding the relationship with other agents involved (q. 4), she mentioned the huge amount of paperwork necessary for some activities (e.g. COMENIUS) and the difficulty of coordinating many
teachers at the same time. Regarding the drawbacks of her position relative to her own training and experience (q. 5), none were stated. We also asked the coordinator about the benefits of her position as European Sections coordinator. She mentioned the fact of seeing that the European Sections students achieved the objectives, as well as participating in schools associations.

In question 7 we asked her whether participating in the programme has entailed participating in other European programmes or projects. She provided an affirmative answer and specified that she had participated in a preparatory visit in Krakow (Poland). Moreover, the school had reportedly applied for a COMENIUS project, which was pending approval when she answered the questionnaire. If approved, this project would be developed in English in another four countries, according to what the coordinator stated in answer to question 8, in which we asked her whether participating in the European Sections Programme had entailed organizing stays in countries where students had to speak English.

In questions 9 and 10 we wanted to know the programme’s strong and weak points, respectively. On the one hand, regarding strong points, students knew how to do more global projects (i.e. which involved the four basic language skills: reading, speaking, writing and listening) and, above all, they got used to using English in any situation. On the other hand, she acknowledged that the weak points were that teachers with the required qualification in the FL were lacking.

When asked about her degree of satisfaction with the working of the European Sections Programme (q. 10), she provided 1 as an answer, the highest degree in the five-point Likert scale provided.

5.4 The questionnaire to the high school headship

Information gathered from questions 1-6 of the questionnaire to the high school headship (Appendix 6) is already included in section 4.1.3, describing how the European Section works at the high school we are studying.

In question 7, which enquired about the communication with families interested on the European Sections Programme or who had children involved in this programme, the high school headmaster answered that they gave information about it when presenting the school’s academic programme. In other words, the school advertised that they participated in the European Sections
Programme when they gave information about the studies that could be taken. Moreover, welcome meetings with families were held annually.

When we asked the headmaster about the acceptance of the programme by families (q. 8) and students (q. 9), he answered that it is very well accepted by both groups.

We wanted to know what kind of training the implementation of the European Section required (q. 10) and the headmaster answered that the teachers had been trained and for the time being they were trainers of other European Section teachers.

In question 11, which enquired about the expected social impact of the programme, the headmaster acknowledged that what they wanted to achieve was to improve students’ language competence in the FL.

The continuity of the programme at the high school chosen for this research was not assured, according to the headmaster (q. 12). In order to do so, the high school had to be allowed, by the educational administration, to create a specific teacher profile combining knowledge of Technology and English.

In question 13 we asked the headmaster whether the school received any benefit from the education administration for participating in the programme. The headmaster reported that the second year of the implementation of the programme (i.e. 2005-2006) they received ICT equipment.

The headmaster mentioned teaching coordination and the fact that the school was considered a point of reference in European Sections as strong points of the programme (q. 14). The weak points of the programme (q. 15) were not having all the teachers needed with the adequate linguistic competence.

The headmaster’s degree of satisfaction with the working of the programme was the highest (in a 1-5 Likert scale), according to his answer to question 16.

Questions 17-19 enquired about future plans regarding the European Sections Programme. The headmaster indicated the consolidation of the programme (q. 17), but he also added that there were no plans to introduce any other subjects (q. 18) or languages (q. 19) in the programme at his high school for the time being.
5.5 Informal questions to the teachers

All the data in this section were provided by Teacher A by means of informal questions asked by the researcher when visiting the school (sometimes after observing some class sessions) and recorded through note-taking (see 4.2.1.5 for more information about the informal questions as a research procedure). The qualitative information presented refers to all the teachers participating in the European Sections Programme during school year 2008-2009, and not only to the respondent.

In the teachers’ view, learning has to be meaningful and attention-grabbing and the learners have to realize that English is something they can use in real-life situations (see Appendix 7c). It is most remarkable that teachers consider learning is a game and that classes have to be challenging and exciting. Accordingly, when both the content and EFL teachers are together in the Technology class, they play roles. That is to say, the EFL teacher plays the role of a clumsy non-academically-oriented student and the content teacher plays the role of a brilliant person who helps the poor-achieving student. These role-plays usually appear to be unplanned and take place when the content teacher is explaining theoretical content and the English teacher—who is listening to her as if she were a student—interrupts her to ask an apparently trivial question related to a tricky aspect of the content that is being explained. By means of these amusing but also educational role-plays, the teachers help the students to learn by having fun and by remembering specific situations which have been displayed by the teachers. As we could observe, Teacher A also applies some of these strategies to the EFL classes (e.g. she tries to grab students’ attention by playing different roles in order to make learning fun).

Moreover, every time students are requested to do a project they are given detailed instructions (mostly written), as shown in Appendixes 7a and 7b. Additionally, teachers do the task first and display it in class (the so-called “templates”). When the assignment consisted of recording a video, for instance, the teachers themselves recorded a video and appeared on it

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92 See, e.g., Pérez Márquez (2008).
93 According to the teachers themselves, the aim of integrating a content and language subject is making learning fun (Cobb and Vidal, 2007).
94 As stated in 3.5.3, Belinchón (2009) considers that using templates is a form of scaffolding.
playing the aforementioned roles. According to the instructors, by using templates as a teaching practice, students know exactly what to do because they have the sample task done by the teachers as an example to follow and the students do their best, since they want to improve on the teachers’ project by producing a better one.

As far as teaching material is concerned, the teachers consider written materials a starting point, but they are not read in class, since the students can do that on their own at home. Reading the material and making vocabulary lists would be extremely boring and students would not learn much. The teachers do not follow a commercially produced text-book. They prefer to elaborate their own material (see, e.g., Appendix 7d).

Regarding the L1 in class, the teachers speak English and request students talk in English too if they consider learners can express what they want in English. Should doing so interrupt the normal development of the class, the teacher lets the pupil speak the L1. However, students strive to speak English as much as they can.

5.6 Other data collection procedures

The data gathered from other data collection procedures are included in different sections, so we are not going to comment on this information again in this section.
Chapter 6. Discussion

In the ensuing lines, we will attempt to provide a global explanation for the results described in the previous sections regarding the implementation of the European Sections Programme (i.e. teaching Technology in English) at IES Son Pacs during school year 2008-2009. Thus, based on the three aims of this dissertation, we are primarily interested in discussing the results involving i) European Section students’ language profile, and their beliefs, attitudes and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the content subject in English, ii) the role and use of students’ L1 and L2 in Technology and EFL classroom interactions, and iii) strong and weak points of the CLIL programme.

6.1 European Section students’ language profile, and their beliefs, attitudes and motivations

In reply to our study’s first objective, which concerned the language profile of the European Section students, answers provided by the students themselves show that, in outline, Catalan is the most mentioned language in almost all situations (except as the language spoken by the fathers when they were children, in which Spanish got a slightly higher percentage), with figures ranging from 62% (by the mothers when they were kids) to 92% (at high school). On the one hand, the role of the analyzed school in terms of linguistic normalisation of the Catalan language is most remarkable, in line with what is stated in legal regulations (BOCAIB, 1986, 1997). On the other hand, the lowest results with regard to presence of Catalan are found in the language habits of the students’ parents when they were children and are probably due to the prohibition of using autochthonous languages in Spain (i.e. Catalan, Basque and Galician) in public contexts, established by Franco’s dictatorship regime (1939-1975).

In particular, findings indicate that Catalan and Spanish are the only mother tongues of the students. Surprisingly, only 13% of the respondents acknowledged that they considered Catalan and Spanish as being both their mother tongues. No other languages were mentioned as mother tongues, which would seem unexpected, since 18% of the population in Majorca comes from abroad (Ibestat, 2008). Nevertheless, this figure is very far from the number of people who were
reportedly born abroad in the studied classes, which was only 5% of the 52 students who answered this item of the questionnaire. It has to be noted that the rate of immigrant students in the whole school is extremely low (less than 2%) compared to the percentage of immigrant students in the Balearic Islands (more than 14%) (Consell Escolar de les Illes Balears, 2009). All the foreigners in the studied educational context come from Latin-America, which means they have Spanish as their mother tongue, a reason that explains the lack of mother tongues other than Catalan or Spanish within the sample studied. It is worth mentioning that there might be students who were born in the Balearic Islands from immigrant parents who could have a language other than Catalan or Spanish as their mother tongue (i.e. their parents’ mother tongue), but this is not the case in the sample analyzed.

This relative linguistic homogeneity among students is also present in the case of languages spoken to their families. In fact, all students speak either Spanish or Catalan (or both languages) to their family members and the presence of other languages is very scarce. Only in the case of the languages spoken to friends outside high school, does English have a more remarkable presence, but still very limited. The use of Catalan and Spanish with friends is the most balanced one. In fact, 31% of the learners reported that they only spoke Catalan with their friends, 20% of respondents reportedly spoke only Spanish to their friends and 41.6% of students acknowledged that they spoke both Catalan and Spanish. At high school, English is present in 25% of the answers, which may be motivated by the importance this language is given in that setting. In fact, students have two core subjects in English (EFL and Technology) in which they have to use this language.

Regarding the activities students do in English outside school, there are no unexpected or outstanding results. Contact with the FL outside the class is limited, probably because the offer of free or affordable activities in English is very scarce (there are not many films in cinemas, movies, programmes or series on TV broadcast in the original version in English), although it is true to say that the Internet does make many interesting resources in English available for free. Moreover, adolescents have not generally been accustomed as children to watching films or TV programmes in the original version in Spain. Out of the six activities enquired about (namely, watching TV or videos; listening to music or to the radio; reading books, newspapers, etc.; browsing the Net; writing letters, etc., participating in chats; and talking), only listening to music or to the radio has a remarkable presence as a frequent activity done in English by the students. In our opinion, this is due to the great amount of music in English that students listen to (and not
to the fact of listening to the radio), which is explained by the fact that many groups and bands
which are popular among teenagers play music in English irrespective of their national origins.
Listening to music (regardless of language) is the second Internet service most used by Spanish
youth aged 11-20, according to a survey carried out with a sample of 1,000 subjects (Fundación
Pfizer, 2009). The radio (even in the L1), in turn, has a scarce presence in the everyday life of
youth, having been displaced by television, videogames and the Internet (probably because they
are more modern and dynamic). In our opinion, this could, thus, lead to misunderstanding the
answer provided by the students, since what it actually shows is that students often listen to
music in English rather than to the radio. We do not know for sure whether students do these
activities as a means of autonomous learning to improve their knowledge of English or for
leisure, since this was not the aim of the question. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that all
six activities are considered recommended activities to be done by language learners on their
own (i.e. autonomous learning) in order to improve language learning (Arroyo Arroyo, 2009).
To sum up, the linguistic background of the European Sections students does not show
exceptional features that may exert a remarkable influence on the outcomes of CLIL provision in
a bilingual Catalan-Spanish context.

The second part of this first objective sought information on students’ beliefs, attitudes and
motivations towards the English language, the English subject and the content subject
(Technology) taught through English.

As far as their beliefs are concerned, almost all the students (91%) think learning English
is important, but it is surprising that the percentage of those who think learning this language is
necessary in the Balearic Islands is much lower (53%). Despite the fact that knowing English is
obviously not essential to live and carry out everyday activities in the Balearic archipelago, we
wonder how this view could be held by inhabitants in an autonomous community mainly
devoted to tourism, where 79.8% of tourists are foreigners and, more specifically, 27.9% of total
visitors are British (Riera Font and Aguiló Pérez, 2009). Moreover, English is the lingua franca
of tourism resorts in the Bay of Palma, as Bruyèl-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2009) report. A
possible explanation for the students’ perception could be that they might consider the German
language more necessary\(^{95}\) than the English language in the Balearic archipelago due to the
higher percentage of tourists of this nationality (32.9%), especially if learners’ parents work in

\(^{95}\) The questionnaire had no item enquiring explicitly about the German language.
the tourism sector. Furthermore, there are more German than British\textsuperscript{96} citizens living in the Balearic Islands (29,189 vs. 19,803, accounting for 2.83\% and 1.92\% of the total population, respectively) (Ibestat, 2008). Besides, the presence of two official languages in the Balearic Islands might make some students think that no other languages are necessary in this context. A third reason (and maybe the most probable one) to explain this answer may be that students do not work and do not use English in their everyday life in Majorca, which may explain why they do not perceive this language as very necessary in the archipelago. However, pupils are aware that it is important to know English for many reasons and answer the questionnaire accordingly. In fact, most students (91\%) acknowledge that they want to travel abroad and knowing English will help them. Besides, a slightly lower percentage, yet still very high, (83\%) of respondents want to know English to be able to communicate with people from other countries. These answers reveal that students consider the English language a tool for global communication (i.e. a \textit{lingua franca}).

With regard to attitudes, the results show that there are strong differences in the degree of nervousness felt by the students towards the fact of having to speak English in general and the anxiety experienced in the EFL class. Indeed, 44\% of respondents do not get nervous when they have to speak English in any situation, in comparison to 93\% of pupils who are not anxious in the EFL class. Despite the fact that a number of students are nervous when they have to speak English in general, when asked about the activity they most liked doing in the EFL class, the majority choose speaking, which can be explained by the stress-free atmosphere present in the EFL classes at IES Son Pacs. It is also possible that students like speaking because they consider it challenging or because the fact of being able to do things in English makes them feel good. The results in the case of the content subject in English (i.e. the Technology class) show that over half of the respondents do not reportedly get nervous. Thus, in our sample, there are more anxious students in the CLIL class than in the EFL class. These results are not in line with the study carried out by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) regarding attitudes towards EFL and CLIL among 287 students aged 14-16 in the Basque Country. According to their research, CLIL takes place in a more anxiety-free environment than a traditional EFL class. This possible

\textsuperscript{96} German and British are the two most common nationalities of foreigners living in the Balearic Islands (Ibestat, 2008).
contradiction\textsuperscript{97} between our results and Lasagabaster and Sierra’s could be explained by the fact that the EFL teachers at IES Son Pacs promoted a relaxed atmosphere for their classes by using different techniques such as cooperative learning, which is said to reduce learners’ anxiety (Fernández Fontecha, 2008). Cooperative learning, in turn, is motivating, as discussed by Ágreda Labrador (2007). In fact, “encouraging students to share with one another empowers them and takes some of the pressure off the teacher” (Edelvives Bilingual Learning, 2009: 23). Moreover, the EFL class analyzed in this dissertation could not be considered a traditional one, since many different pedagogical techniques were used to challenge students and make the learning both meaningful and amusing. The crux of the matter is that CLIL classes are usually compared to \textit{traditional} EFL ones.\textsuperscript{98} However, at IES Son Pacs the English subject can not be considered to be taught by means of \textit{traditional} methodology at all, but rather the teaching style used in this EFL class is ground-breaking. The English class in the studied context, thus, shares a number of the features typical of CLIL instruction (also found in the Technology class taught in English at the analyzed school), such as naturalistic and implicit learning, cooperative learning (e.g. group work is encouraged), scaffolding (by means of templates), and authenticity (e.g. using English to do real tasks), to name but a few (see, e.g., 3.5.). In short, the example of CLIL and EFL provision analyzed in this dissertation is far from the typical situation in which the methodology used to teach the content subject by means of CLIL is innovative and the FL class is more traditional. At the high school where this study was carried out, therefore, the long-established division between \textit{traditional} EFL classes and \textit{innovative} CLIL methodology has proved false.

We also wanted to know what students thought about their level of English in relation to the fact of having a content subject in that FL. More than half of students are sceptical regarding the relationship between having a content subject in English and, consequently, improving their level in this language. They provide a similar reply in the question that related effort in the content subject with outcomes in terms of English performance (i.e. more than half of the respondents acknowledge that they work hard in the Technology class, but their level of English

\textsuperscript{97} The discrepancies between our results and the outcomes from the study in the Basque Country can also be due to differences in the questionnaires used in each case.

\textsuperscript{98} In our opinion, “traditional” is often seen as a negative concept applied to a less effective teaching methodology, in comparison to “innovative”, which is commonly related to success.
has not improved much). In addition, it is worth mentioning that when the students are asked whether they study much in the Technology class, about half of them give an affirmative answer.

Regarding motivation, students’ learning potential has been shown to increase when attitudes are positive and motivation runs high (Elyildirim and Ashton, 2006). In the case of the analyzed school, the students seem to be more motivated in EFL class than in the content subject in English. In fact, 58% of the respondents acknowledge that they are motivated in the EFL class and only 7% of them state the opposite. By contrast, 45% of pupils are reportedly motivated in the Technology class. In this case, however, the number of non-motivated students is lower (4%) and the percentage of undecided learners is remarkably high (more than half). These results are not in line with Marsh (2000) and Fernández Fontecha et al. (2005), since both authors state that CLIL classes are more motivating than traditional language classes. Again the explanation could be found in the aforementioned atypical nature of the EFL class. It is an acknowledged fact that the teacher’s attitude is crucial to motivate students (Ágreda Labrador, 2007) and in the analyzed context the attitude of the EFL and Technology teachers is exemplary: among other techniques to motivate students, they demonstrated that every activity they have to do can be fun and showed interest and care towards the subject (op. cit.). In line with this, Teacher A reportedly loves teaching and we could observe that she tries to instil her enthusiasm in the students. Secondly, the analyzed students feel motivated in the EFL class by the way this subject is taught, the activities they do and the mark (28% each). In the case of the Technology class, activities done by the students is what 39% of them consider the most motivating factor, followed by working in groups (29%) and the mark (19%). There is more agreement regarding the least motivating factor (i.e. the amount of work), which was chosen by 45% of the respondents as the least motivating factor in the EFL and by 59% in the Technology class. Nobody feels motivated by this aspect in the EFL class and only 2% does in the content class. This result could be interpreted either positively or negatively, since it is not specified whether this amount of work is too much or too little. However, we think that it would probably be right to interpret this answer as meaning that the students do not feel motivated by an amount of work they consider difficult to cope with.
6.2 The role of the students’ L1 and L2 in classroom interactions

With respect to our second objective on the use of the L1 and L2 in classroom interactions, the findings show slight differences regarding the use of English both by students and teachers, depending on the context: EFL or content classes. As far as the teachers are concerned, EFL and content classes are taught totally or nearly totally (95-100%) in English, according to answers provided by the students, although the percentage of respondents with this opinion is higher in the case of EFL than in content classes (88% vs. 77%). However, the teachers have a different view. Teachers A and B (EFL teachers) are the ones who approximate the most to the students’ answer, since they reportedly speak English 90% of the class time, while Teacher C reportedly uses English 60% of class time. There are also slight differences in the perception of students regarding the amount of English used by the EFL and content teachers: 90% of respondents consider it is adequate for the case of the Technology teacher and 96% do the same for the EFL teacher. Few students see this use of English as excessive in either case, but the figures are somewhat higher for the content teacher than for the EFL teachers (8% vs. 2%). Although the aforementioned differences are small, the results could indicate that learners’ perception towards the fact that teachers speak English in class is more positive in the case of the EFL teachers. The reason may be that the pupils are used to having EFL as a compulsory school subject from EP and have assumed that English should be spoken in this class. However, having a content subject in English is something newer for them.

Regarding the use of English by students during class time, considerable differences were observed by the researcher when visiting the school, both in EFL and content classes, which was verified by the information provided by Teacher B and Teacher C in the questionnaire. In fact, the EFL teachers reported more English use (70% on average) by students during class time than the content teacher did (less than 50%). These differences between content and EFL subjects remain when students are asked about their perception regarding their own use of English. In fact, 70% of pupils acknowledge that it is not sufficient in the content classes, while this percentage is only 51% in the case of EFL classes.

As previously suggested, English is used more in EFL classes than in content classes, both by teachers and students, an idea which is supported by the observations. Besides, as could be appreciated by the researcher, written material given to students by both teachers was always completely in English, likewise the online resources and visual aids used to help the learners.
Oral explanations by teachers were also in English, except when serious comprehension problems arose and remained unsolved after explaining things in English first once or twice. Students were requested to present their projects orally in English, sometimes with visual aids (often slide presentations), which all of them did according to their ability.

Nonetheless, from the data gathered from the observations, students often spoke to teachers or to peers in the mother tongue in EFL and content classes, but some of them did their best to use the target language. Curiously, the technical vocabulary learned in class was always used in English by students, even when speaking Catalan or Spanish with peers (see 3.8 for a detailed account of code-switching). The fact is that the students often did not know the expression used in their L1 to refer to the technical concepts learnt in class (e.g. tools or electrical units). In cases where Spanish or Catalan was used by learners instead of English, the teachers’ reaction was slightly different. Whilst Teacher A always spoke English to all their pupils (even outside the classroom), even when addressed in Catalan or Spanish, and only used the L1 when it was absolutely essential, the content teacher was more prone to using Catalan. There are two possible reasons to explain this fact. On the one hand, Teacher A was the EFL teacher (who should be a language model for the pupils) and, above all, English is her mother tongue, a language that she used to speak to the other EFL teachers or the content teacher outside the classroom, as well as to the researcher when visiting the school (she confirmed this idea herself by indicating that the daily percentage use of English –inside and outside the classroom– is 95-100% in the questionnaire). On the other hand, the content teacher has English as a FL, despite the fact that she is very fluent in this language.

As Chavez (2003) discusses, language learners often distinguish between pedagogical functions (i.e. rehearsal functions such as language practice) –in which students are willing to take more risks (i.e. using the target language)– and real functions (i.e. they serve true communication needs, like instructions, explanations and regulating students’ behaviour) –in which learners may desire less ambiguity and thereby use the L1. In the case studied, the L2 is almost always used for pedagogical functions, while both teachers and students sometimes used the L1 for real functions (e.g. the content teacher acknowledged using the L1 for disciplinary purposes, and instances of students asking for clarification using the L1 were recorded). This use of the L1 observed in the analyzed context is also in line with what Birello (2005) discusses regarding code-switching in learning contexts. According to this author, the use of the L1 is due
to two reasons: on the one hand, a need for comprehension and explanation, and on the other hand, a need for organization and management of the activity itself.

To sum up, the findings show differences in the amount of English used in EFL and content classes (with the target language being more present in EFL classes) and between what can be called “planned discourse” —“pedagogical functions”, using the terminology of Chavez (2003)– (i.e. oral explanations by the teachers, written material given to students to support their learning, visual aids and online resources, and oral presentations requested of pupils) and unplanned discourse —“real functions”, in the words of Chavez (2003)– (i.e. spontaneous comments and questions made by both teachers and students, as well as students chatting with their peers), with almost total presence of English in planned discourse and a much lesser presence in unplanned discourse, especially in the case of students. However, “if we want our students to associate the L2 with genuine communication, we need to incorporate it in equally genuine ways in our classrooms. And genuine inclusion will rely on norms which develop naturally” (Chavez, 2003: 194-195).

6.3 Strong and weak points of the European Sections Programme

Our third question sought information on the strong and weak points of the European Sections Programme. Regarding the strong points, the high school headmaster mentioned the coordination between the teachers participating in the programme (Goicoechea Tabar et al., 2007). As the researcher could observe when visiting the school, coordination between the content and the EFL teachers was total. They both planned every session and met almost everyday. Such a high degree of coordination became apparent in the classrooms, where each teacher taught their subject following the official curriculum, but also taking into account what the other instructor was teaching at that moment, so that what students learnt in a class was not de-contextualized, isolated knowledge. In fact, as previously stated, one of the EFL hours per week was devoted to dealing with topics taught in the content class and the assessment was also carried out jointly by the EFL and content teachers. As Pérez Márquez (2008) remarks, coordination between the teachers who teach in CLIL programmes is essential. In line with this, Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2010) highlight the need for coordination between the content and
FL teachers in the European Sections Programme, which is emphasized in the Balearic Islands legislation on the subject (see BOIB, 2009b).

Additionally, the fact that IES Son Pacs is a point of reference in the implementation of the European Sections Programme was also considered a strong point. This may be explained by the fact that the studied secondary school was one of the first schools to implement the European Sections Programme in academic year (2004-2005) when this programme was created in the Balearic Islands. Furthermore, the scope and development of the programme at the school has increasingly expanded to reach all students from 2007-2008 (see Table 2 on page 55). Thus, the fact that the European Section is “universalized” (using the terminology of Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2009c) in the aforementioned school is a feature that makes IES Son Pacs unique in the Balearic Islands’ CLIL scenario. It is not surprising, therefore, that the school has been regarded as a model to follow or a point of reference. The official website of the school mentions the European Section among its main characteristics. Furthermore, the annual report of the school describes the European Section in this school as an exceptional case in the Balearic Islands (Institut d’Educació Secundària Son Pacs, 2009a).

With regards to the answers provided by the coordinator of the programme at the studied school, she mentioned the fact that students learn to do more global projects in line with the four basic skills (i.e. reading, listening, writing and speaking). This fact was recorded by the author of this dissertation, who was able to observe that students were requested to do projects in which the four skills were used (both in the content and EFL classes). The results obtained from the questionnaires of the EFL teachers (see 5.2.1 for a detailed account of these results) can shed some light in this respect. Firstly, when asked about the aspects of their teaching that promote learning most, Teacher B mentioned working with projects and Teacher A pointed out the fact that students practise the four skills. Secondly, when the teachers were requested to choose the statements that defined their teaching style best from a list, one of the elections of Teacher A was that she tried to work the four skills equally, an option opted for by 86% of the EFL teachers working in state secondary schools of the Balearic Islands in a large-scale study carried out by Borrull Cubo et al. (2009). However, Teacher B reportedly worked more on productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing), an option not presented in the study by Borrull Cubo et al. (op. cit.). Only 9% of the respondents in the abovementioned paper by Borrull Cubo and colleagues acknowledge that they work more on receptive skills (namely listening and reading) than on productive skills. Moreover, Casal (2008) argues that whilst comprehension skills are really
boosted in CLIL environments, this may not be the case of productive skills, a vision that contradicts the opinion of the coordinator of the programme at the studied school when she pointed out, as another strong point of the programme, the fact that the students are accustomed to using English in any situation.

In our opinion, using a language involves both comprehension and productive skills. This view is supported by the emphasis of CLIL on communication and meaning (see, e.g., Muñoz, 2007). Besides, it is worth remembering that CLIL promotes both BICS and CALP (as explained in 3.5.6), that is to say, both interpersonal skills for communicating and language for academic purposes, which is in line with the statement by the coordinator referring to the fact that the students use the language in every context.

With respect to our third objective on the weak points of the CLIL programme, the findings reveal a lack of teachers with adequate language qualification as one of the weaknesses of CLIL, a drawback which is pointed out both by the coordinator of the programme at the high school and the high school headmaster. This result is consistent with a study by Fernández Fontecha (2008), in which 92 randomly-selected teachers in monolingual Spanish autonomous communities working at IE, PE and SE schools were asked about shortcomings in the methodological aspects of CLIL implementation, among other questions.

However, we do not see the mentioned lack of teachers with sufficient training in the FL as a weak point of the CLIL programme itself, but as a limitation for its implementation that might contribute to the stagnation of this bilingual teaching initiative. This is a problem not only posed at the studied school, but also in a global education context. Indeed, according to a report on languages by the European Commission (2004b), a lack of qualified teachers capable of teaching content subjects in a FL and at all levels of education is mentioned by a number of Member States (namely Austria, French-speaking Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands and Spain). There are other publications that echo this lack of teachers with dual qualification in the European context (see, e.g., Eurydice, 2006a). Wolff (2005: 21) provides a noteworthy view of this problem both on a global and local scale, as this quotation shows:

99 See, e.g., Vázquez (2007) for an interesting account on the German experience.
One central problem related to implementing CLIL on a larger scale is the lack of teachers capable of teaching CLIL professionally. Apart from the German-speaking countries both in the European context and world-wide the type of teacher who is qualified in only one subject dominates. The additional training in the subject – a foreign language or a content subject – is quite a costly endeavour for a country which intends to implement CLIL. And even in Germany and Austria where a dual qualification at least for secondary schools exists it is necessary to provide additional training to teach in an integrated context. A way to resolve this problem could be to make use of native speakers who have studied a content subject in their respective mother tongue country. Such a solution would, however, necessitate foreign language teacher training.

In Spain, a possible explanation for this situation of a lack of qualified teachers capable of teaching a content subject in a FL could be found in the low performance in FLs of Spaniards (see 1.1). Optimistically, regulations by the controversial Bologna Declaration (adopted in 1999 by Ministers of Education in 29 European countries) to create a European Higher Education Area (EHEA), as well as the new master’s degree in Teacher Training, will offer some clues in order to find a solution to this problem. In fact, within the framework of the EHEA, students enrolled in a new bachelor’s degree in Spain will be required to reach a minimum level of English to graduate from most universities (possibly B2 of the CEFR). Moreover, one of the pre-requisites to access the aforementioned master’s degree, which is a requirement to teach in State and private SE and VS schools in Spain, is to present proof of having attained at least a B1 level of the CEFR in a FL (the University of the Balearic Islands, for example, demands this level in either English, German, French or Italian). Albeit insufficient, these measures are a first step towards the objective of having more qualified teachers capable of teaching a content subject through a FL. Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (in press a) share the opinion that these requirements “will improve pre-service teacher education thus facilitating trilingual programme development”.
Chapter 7. Final considerations

7.1 Conclusions

In this dissertation a case study on the provision of CLIL in the Balearic Islands has been presented, which is the very first research of this kind carried out in this field and setting. CLIL is a European approach to FLL in which non-language contents are taught through the medium of a FL within the communicative language teaching framework. CLIL is based on previous experiences of content-based language teaching in the United States and immersion in Canada. Furthermore, EU policies on multilingualism promote CLIL as an educational approach to FLL that can help European citizens to reach the 1+2 formula (mother tongue(s) plus two FLs). Moreover, CLIL is especially useful in bilingual contexts (such as the Balearic Islands), where students have to deal with two languages in the curriculum and where the time available for additional languages is scarce.

In the Catalan-Spanish bilingual autonomous community of the Balearic Islands, programmes using CLIL methodology (the so-called “European Sections”) were first implemented in academic year 2004-2005. In this case study, carried out in 2008-2009, an example of universalized provision of the European Sections Programme at a state high school in Majorca was analyzed, in which the compulsory subject of Technology has been taught in English in CSE since the year of the implementation of the programme in the Balearic archipelago (Spain).

The analyzed school succeeds in integrating all the students thanks to the coordination between the content and EFL teachers participating in the European Sections programme. In fact, the findings indicate that this coordination is a crucial factor for CLIL provision. The use of templates (i.e. pieces of sample work done first by teachers to illustrate what students are requested to do) also stands out as a useful strategy to help the learning process. Moreover, the fact that the teachers play roles in the classes in order to make them attractive is very remarkable. Consequently, students understand and learn the subjects involved in the European Sections Programme (i.e. EFL and Technology) more easily, since they become meaningful to them. Cooperative learning is promoted as another strategy to integrate all pupils. In the
teachers’ view, all the students have to realise that the FL is useful and that they can do real activities with it. For this reason, learners carry out global projects, that is to say, projects that imply the use of the four language skills (namely writing, reading, speaking and listening). Cross-curricular issues (such as the environment, copyright and plagiarism) are included in the syllabus too.  

As regards the CLIL students in the analyzed context, they are not outstanding from the point of view of their language profile and exposure to the English language outside the school. With regard to their attitudes, beliefs and motivations, they consider learning English is important and feel a considerably low degree of anxiety both in EFL and content classes. Language differences are observed in the use of the L1 and L2 depending on a) who the speakers are (i.e. teachers or students) and b) in which class they are (i.e. the EFL or content class). English is, thus, more spoken by the teachers, especially by the EFL teachers. Students use this language more to talk to the instructor in the EFL class than in the content class and they hardly ever speak English among themselves, with the exception of technical terms that have been learned in the target language (a situation of code-switching takes place in these cases). The pupils are not forced to speak English in unplanned situations (e.g. to ask teachers questions or to speak with their peers when working in groups), but they are encouraged to do so. However, all the written tasks are done in English, as well as oral presentations of assignments and projects.

To sum up, with the analyzed elements it can be stated that CLIL seems to be a successful approach for FL teaching and that the studied school is an example of best practices in CLIL provision.

### 7.2 Further research

In this dissertation we have attempted to analyze –by using both qualitative and quantitative data– an example of the European Sections Programme provision in a secondary school in Majorca, which had not been previously addressed in the Balearic Islands. This case

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100 See Cobb and Vidal (2007) for a detailed account on these cross-sectional issues within the European Sections Programme.
study has provided some clues to explain success in the implementation of CLIL programmes in a bilingual setting without selecting students.

As there is still ample room for improvement and further research, some possible lines of enquiry derived from this work shall be outlined below. The research in CLIL carried out so far in other European regions should provide us with some useful guidelines on the procedure to be followed in the future research.

First and foremost, a systematic analysis of the observations, and transcriptions of the videotaping of the European Section classes mentioned in this dissertation should be carried out. This would enable a deeper examination of CLIL provision in the studied case by providing additional qualitative and quantitative elements for investigation and reflection (e.g. information about the type of language used in the L1 and the FL in class). Besides, the findings obtained from the present study should be compared with the outcomes revealed by this future research.

Regarding the instruments used in this dissertation to gather information, a few ambiguities detected in the wording of the questionnaires should be corrected if the questionnaires are to be used again in the future. Moreover, data collected by means of the students’ profile questionnaire and the students’ questionnaire on beliefs, attitudes and motivations should be correlated by using statistical tools. By doing so, correlations between on the one hand, gender, language background, and language and overall performance (i.e. profile) and, on the other hand, beliefs, attitudes and motivations might be established (Tragant and Muñoz, 2000; Marcos-Llinàs, 2007; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009). Besides, statistical tools should be used to determine whether the differences discussed in this dissertation (see 6.2) regarding language behaviour of the students are mathematically significant or not.

It would be revealing to find out how CLIL affects learners’ motivation towards learning a FL in comparison with non-CLIL instruction. In general, all CLIL results should be compared with those obtained with students included in non-CLIL programmes. Furthermore, a longitudinal study using the same CLIL students could shed light on how the learners’ age and FL competence influence their motivation (Tragant and Muñoz, 2000).

Last but not least, a comparison between the results of this case study and a large-scale quantitative study on CLIL provision in all the secondary schools of the Balearic archipelago, which is currently being conducted by researchers of the COLE Project, should be considered.
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APPENDIX 1. STUDENTS’ LANGUAGE PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE
**Qüestionari de perfil lingüístic**

L'objectiu d'aquest qüestionari és conèixer les llengües que parles i com has après la llengua anglesa. És important que contestis amb sinceritat. Pots utilitzar la llengua amb la qual et sensi més cómode/a per fer-ho (català, castellà o anglès). Els qüestionaris es tractaran amb absoluta confidencialitat. **Gràcies per la teva col·laboració!**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Curs i grup:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data de naixement:</td>
<td>Sexe: □ femení □ masculí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lloc de naixement (en cas que no sigui Espanya, indica també el país):</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1) En cas que no hagis nascut a les Illes Balears, des de quin any hi resideixes? ____________

2) Quina llengua consideres la teva llengua materna?  
□ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________

3) Llengües que parlaven els teus pares de petits a casa:  
Pare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
Mare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________

4) Llengües en què et parlen habitualment els pares:  
Pare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
Mare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________

5) Quines llengües parles...? (En cas que una resposta no sigui pertinent, deixa-la en blanc.)  
amb la mare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
amb el pare: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
amb els germans: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
amb altres membres de la família: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
amb els teus amics fora de l'institut: □ català □ castellà □ altres (especifica-les) ____________  
a l'institut: □ català □ castellà □ anglès □ altres (especifica-les) ____________

6) Estudis alguna llengua estrangera, sense comptar l'anglès? □ Sí □ No.  
En cas afirmatiu, quina/quines? ________________________________

7) Has estat en algun país de parla anglesa? □ Sí □ No.
• En cas afirmatiu, on?

• En cas afirmatiu, en quina/es data/es?

• En cas afirmatiu, indica el temps total passat a països de parla anglesa:
  - d'1 dia a 14 dies
  - de 15 dies a 1 mes
  - d'1 mes a 6 mesos
  - més de 6 mesos

• En cas afirmatiu, indica el motiu de la teva estada:
  - aprendre la llengua anglesa
  - de vacances
  - altres (especifica'ls) ________________

8) Si poguessis, t'agradaria fer un intercanvi cultural amb joves d'un país de parla anglesa?
  - Sí  - No
  Per què?

9) Va ser la llengua anglesa la primera llengua estrangera que vas aprendre a l'escola?
  - Sí
  - No, vaig aprendre _______________ com a primera llengua estrangera a l'escola.

10) Quin curs començares a estudiar la llengua anglesa?
    Educació Infantil:  - 3 anys  - 4 anys  - 5 anys
    Educació Primària:  - 1r  - 2n  - 3r

11) a) Les classes de llengua anglesa a l'IES aquest curs les feis del tot o gairebé del tot en anglès (95-100% d'ús)?  - Sí  - No.
b) Les classes de tecnologia en anglès a l'IES aquest curs les feis del tot o gairebé del tot en anglès (95-100% d'ús)?
  - Sí  - No

12) Havies estudiat una matèria de contingut (Ciències Socials / Educació Física / Tecnologia, etc.) en llengua anglesa abans?
  - Sí  - No.  En cas afirmatiu, quina/ quines? ________________
    En cas afirmatiu, ha estat  - durant l'Educació Primària  - durant l'ESO

13) Quants anys fa que estudies una matèria de contingut en llengua anglesa, ja sigui tecnologia o una altra?
  - 1 any  - 2 anys  - 3 anys  - 4 anys

14) El curs passat, quina nota vares treure de…?
    llengua catalana __________  llengua castellana __________
    llengua anglesa __________

15) Des de la teva infància, has assistit a cursos de llengua anglesa fora de l'escola (escoles d'idiomes, classes particulars, cursos d'estiu, etc.)?  - Sí  - No.

En cas afirmatiu:

Adaptat de Projecte COLE (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO).
• Anys d’assistència a escoles d’idiomes o classes particulars d’anglès: □ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 o més
• Nombre de cursos intensius d’estiu d’anglès realitzats: □ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 o més
• Durada total dels cursos d’estiu d’anglès realitzats: □ 15 dies □ 1 mes □ 2 mesos □ 3 mesos o més

16) Aquest any fas algun curs de llengua anglesa fora de l’institut? □ Sí □ No.

En cas afirmatiu:
• Quantes hores setmanals de classe d’anglès tens fora de l’institut? □ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 o més

17) Indica amb quina freqüència realitzes les següents activitats fora de l’institut (marca la casella corresponent):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activitat</th>
<th>Molt sovint</th>
<th>Sovint</th>
<th>De vegades</th>
<th>Gairebé mai</th>
<th>Mai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mires pel·lícules, vídeos, etc. en anglès?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escoltes música, la ràdio, etc. en anglès?</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llegeixes llibres, diaris, etc. en anglès?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Consultes pàgines web en anglès?</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escrís (xats, cartes, etc.) en anglès?</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parles amb algú en anglès?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fas altres activitats que impliquin l’ús de l’anglès?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

18) Indica què fas en les següents situacions (encercla la resposta correcta en cada cas):

a) Si un/a company/a et parla en català o castellà a classe de tecnologia, li contestes en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

b) Si un/a company/a et parla en català o castellà a classe d’anglès, li contestes en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

c) Si un/a company/a et parla en anglès a classe de tecnologia, li contestes en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

d) Si un/a company/a et parla en anglès a classe d’anglès, li contestes en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

e) Quan la professora de tecnologia explica en anglès i li vols fer alguna pregunta o comentari, li parles en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

f) Quan la professora d’anglès explica en anglès i li vols fer alguna pregunta o comentari, li parles en anglès?
   a. sempre        b. sovint     c. algunes vegades  d. gairebé mai    e. mai

19) Encercla la resposta que consideres que millor s’adequa en cada cas:

a) Consideres que la quantitat d’anglès que utilitza la professora de tecnologia durant les classes és
   a. excessiva     b. adequada    c. insuficient

b) Consideres que la quantitat d’anglès que utilitza la professora d’anglès durant les classes és
   a. excessiva     b. adequada    c. insuficient

Adaptat de Projecte COLE (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO).
c) Consideres que la quantitat d'anglès que utilitzen els alumnes durant les classes de tecnologia és
   a. excessiva                      b. adequada                      c. insuficient

d) Consideres que la quantitat d'anglès que utilitzen els alumnes durant les classes d'anglès és
   a. excessiva                      b. adequada                      c. insuficient
APPENDIX 2. STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE ON ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND MOTIVATIONS
T’agrairíem que contestassis amb sinceritat les preguntes següents sobre la teva actitud, les teves creences i la teva motivació cap a l’aprenentatge de l’anglès i a les classes de tecnologia en anglès. Pots utilitzar la llengua amb la qual et sentis més cómode/a per fer-ho (català, castellà o anglès). Els qüestionaris es tractaran amb absoluta confidencialitat. Gràcies per la teva col·laboració!

1. Qüestionari d’actituds (encercla només una opció en cada cas)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Núm.</th>
<th>Pregunta</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Estic estudiant anglès perquè és obligatori.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Encara que és obligatori, m’agrada l’anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>M’agrada l’anglès perquè m’ajudarà a trobar una bona feina.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>En general, m’agrada la música en anglès i vull entendre-la.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>M’agrada mirar pel·lícules en anglès i entendre el que diuen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Saber anglès m’ajuda a entendre els videojocs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>No m’agrada l’anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>M’agrada l’anglès però no m’agrada la clase de llengua anglesa.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Trec bona nota a la classe de llengua anglesa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Vull poder viatjar a l’estranter i saber anglès m’ajudarà.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Vull saber anglès per poder comunicar-me amb gent d’altres països.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>En general, m’interessa aprendre altres llengües.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Si pogués, estudiaria una altra llengua estrangera a més de l’anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>M’agrada l’anglès però no m’agrada la classe de tecnologia impartida en anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>La professora de tecnologia explica amb molta claredat.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>No m’agrada fer classe de tecnologia en anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Trec bona nota a la classe de tecnologia impartida en anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>M’agrada la classe de tecnologia en anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Estic content de cursar una altra matèria en anglès, a més de llengua anglesa.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2. Qüestionari de creences sobre l’aprenentatge de l’anglès (encercla només una opció en cada cas)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Núm.</th>
<th>Pregunta</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Parlar en anglès és difícil.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Llegir l’anglès és fàcil.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Escrivir textos en anglès és difícil.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Entendre l’anglès parlat és fàcil.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Em pos nerviós/osa quan he de parlar en anglès.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Em pos nerviós/osa quan tinc classe de llengua anglesa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>M’agradaria conèixer més gent de parla anglesa.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>M’esforç molt a la classe de llengua anglesa.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>En general, crec que aprendre anglès és important.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Adaptat de Projecte COLE (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO).
10. A la nostra comunitat autònoma és necessari saber parlar en anglès.  1 2 3 4 5
11. Em pos nerviós/osa quan tenc classe de tecnologia en llengua anglesa.  1 2 3 4 5
12. M’esforç molt a la classe de tecnologia impartida en llengua anglesa.  1 2 3 4 5
13. El meu nivell d’anglès ha millorat gràcies a la classe de tecnologia en anglès.  1 2 3 4 5
14. Estudiar tecnologia en anglès és més fàcil del que em pensava.  1 2 3 4 5
15. Faig molta feina a la classe de tecnologia, però el meu anglès no millora massa.  1 2 3 4 5
16. Tenir bon nivell d’anglès i molt d’interès és vital per entendre la tecnologia.  1 2 3 4 5
17. Els materials de la classe de tecnologia són molt útils.  1 2 3 4 5
18. La professora de la classe de tecnologia ens ajuda molt a seguir la matèria.  1 2 3 4 5
19. És important cursar assignatures en anglès sigui quina sigui la matèria impartida.  1 2 3 4 5
20. Em resulta difícil entendre el contingut de la tecnologia en anglès.  1 2 3 4 5

3. Qüestionari de motivació (encerbla només una opció en cada cas)

1. El que més m’agrada de la classe d’anglès és…
   a. parlar  b. escoltar  c. escriure  d. llegir  e. fer exercicis de vocabulari i gramàtica

2. Vull aprendre bé l’anglès perquè…
   a. és un requisit  b. m’agrada  c. vull una bona feina  d. podré comunicar-me amb gent arreu del món  e. una altra raó (especifica-la)

3. A la classe de llengua anglesa estudii…
   a. molt  b. bastant  c. regular  d. poc  e. gens

4. La raó més important per aprendre anglès és…
   a. trobar una bona feina  b. saber l’idioma  c. conèixer una altra cultura  d. complir amb el requisit  e. una altra raó (especifica-la)

5. El que més em motiva de la classe de llengua anglesa és…
   a. com s’ensenya  b. les activitats que feim  c. la quantitat de feina que feim  d. el treball en grup  e. la nota

6. El que menys em motiva de la classe de llengua anglesa és…
   a. com s’ensenya  b. les activitats que feim  c. la quantitat de feina que feim  d. el treball en grup  e. la nota

7. El que m’agrada més de l’anglès és…
   a. com sona  b. com s’escriu  c. la cultura dels països de parla anglesa  d. la gent de parla anglesa  e. les coses que puc fer amb aquest idioma

8. La meva motivació a la classe d’anglès és…
   a. molt alta  b. alta  c. regular  d. baixa  e. molt baixa

9. Vull fer-ho bé a la classe de tecnologia impartida en anglès perquè…
   a. és un requisit  b. m’agrada  c. vull una bona feina  d. podré comunicar-me amb gent arreu del món  e. una altra raó (especifica-la)

10. A la classe de tecnologia estic estudiant…
    a. molt  b. bastant  c. regular  d. poc  e. gens

Adaptat de Projecte COLE (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO).
11. El que més em motiva de la classe de tecnologia impartida en anglès és…
   a. com s’ensenyà  b. les activitats  c. la quantitat de feina que feim  d. el treball en grup  e. la nota

12. El que menys em motiva de la classe de tecnologia impartida en anglès és…
   a. com s’ensenyà  b. les activitats  c. la quantitat de feina que feim  d. el treball en grup  e. la nota

13. La meva motiació a la classe de tecnologia és
   a. molt alta  b. alta  c. regular  d. baixa  e. molt baixa

14. El fet d’haver d’utilitzar la llengua anglesa a l’assignatura de tecnologia m’ha motivat...
   a. molt  b. bastant  c. regular  d. poc  e. gens

15. El fet que l’assignatura de tecnologia en anglès la imparteixin conjuntament una professora de llengua anglesa i una professora de tecnologia m’ha motivat...
   a. molt  b. bastant  c. regular  d. poc  e. gens

16. El fet que l’assignatura de tecnologia en anglès la imparteixin conjuntament una professora de llengua anglesa i una professora de tecnologia facilita el meu aprenentatge
   a. molt  b. bastant  c. regular  d. poc  e. gens
APPENDIX 3. EFL TEACHERS’ QUESTIONNAIRE
Moltes gràcies per contestar amb sinceritat les preguntes que trobareu a continuació! Podeu utilitzar la llengua que vulgueu (català, castellà o anglès). La vostra col·laboració és essencial per conèixer millor el Programa de Seccions Europees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM I LLINATGES</th>
<th>CARREC</th>
<th>DATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Titulació acadèmica:
   - Diplomatura en ___________
   - Llicenciatura en __________
   - Postgrau en __________
   - Doctorat en __________

2. Llengua materna:
   - Català □
   - Castellà □
   - Anglès □
   - Altres (especificau-les) __________

3. Percentatge d’ús diari de la llengua anglesa (dins i fora de l’aula):
   - 10-15% □
   - 16-30% □
   - 31-59% □
   - 60-74% □
   - 75-94% □
   - 95-100% □

4. Anys d’experiència en l’ensenyament de l’anglès:
   - 0-5 □
   - 6-10 □
   - 11-15 □
   - 16-20 □
   - 21-25 □
   - 26-30 □
   - >30 □

5. Anys d’experiència en Seccions Europees:
   - 1 □
   - 2 □
   - 3 □
   - 4 □
   - 5 □
   - >5 □

6. Tipus de formació rebuda en EICLE (Enfocament Integrat de Continguts i Llengua Estrangera).
   - Especificau en cada cas el nombre de cursos o activitats formatives de cada tipus:
   - Cursos organitzats per la Conselleria d’Educació i Cultura □
   - Cursos organitzats pel Centre de Professorat □
   - Jornades pedagògiques □
   - Sessions formatives organitzades per editorials □
   - Cursos de postgrau □
   - Cursos a l’estranger □
   - Altres (especificau-los) __________

7. Hores de formació rebuda en EICLE:
   - 0-25 □
   - 26-50 □
   - 51-75 □
   - 76-100 □
   - 101-150 □
   - 151-200 □
   - 201-250 □
   - >250 □

8. Aspectes metodològics:
   a. Quins creieu que són els aspectes de la vostra docència en llengua anglesa que més afavoreixen l’aprenentatge de l’alumnat?
b. De les afirmacions següents, marcau aquelles que millor us defineixen:

| Consider fonamental l’ensenyament de la gramàtica i del vocabulari. |
| Valor més la capacitat comunicativa que la correcció. |
| Treball més les destreses receptives (*listening, reading*). |
| Treball més les destreses productives (*speaking, writing*). |
| Procur treballar totes les destreses per igual. |
| Faig treballar l’alumnat dins i fora de l’aula. |
| Foment el treball en grup (*role-plays, projectes, etc.*) a l’aula. |
| Foment la interdisciplinaritat dels continguts. |
| Faig servir fonamentalment el mètode de l’editorial. |
| Sovint complement el mètode de l’editorial amb altres materials. |
| M’agrada dissenyar nous materials per a la meva tasca docent. |
| Utilitz material de diversos nivells per atendre la diversitat de l’alumnat. |
| Faig servir sovint els dictats i les traduccions. |
| Faig servir sovint les TIC. |


c. Quin percentatge d’anglès feis servir com a professora en una sessió típica?

100% □  90% □  80% □  70% □  60% □  50% □  <50% □

d. En cas que no utilitzeu sempre l’anglès, per a quines activitats no l’utilitzeu? Per quin motiu?

e. Quin percentatge d’anglès fa servir l’alumnat en una sessió típica?

100% □  90% □  80% □  70% □  60% □  50% □  <50% □

f. En cas que l’alumnat no utilitzi sempre l’anglès, per a quines activitats no l’utilitza? Per quin motiu?

g. Quin tipus de suport lingüístic oferiu a l’alumnat de Seccions Europees per superar les dificultats (de comunicació, de comprensió oral, de comprensió escrita, d’expressió oral, d’expressió escrita, etc.) en llengua anglesa?

h. Quines estratègies (adaptació curricular, etc.) feis servir per integrar l’alumnat amb més dificultats, tant des del punt de vista lingüístic com de contingut?
9. Marcau la casella corresponent en cada cas si observa alguna tipus de diferències lingüístiques entre l’alumnat que participa en Seccions Europees i l’alumnat que no ho fa.
   D’actitud ☐
   De procediments ☐
   De domini de la llengua (competència lingüística) ☐
   D’altres tipus ☐ especifiqueu-les __________________________________________________

Podeu descriure-les?


   1☐  2☐  3☐  4☐  5☐


   1☐  2☐  3☐  4☐  5☐

12. Afegiu qualsevol altra consideració que trobeu oportuna:
APPENDIX 4. CONTENT TEACHER’S QUESTIONNAIRE
**QÜESTIONARI PER AL PROFESSORAT DE TECNOLOGIA EN ANGLÈS**

_Moltes gràcies_ per contestar amb sinceritat les preguntes que trobareu a continuació! Podeu utilitzar la llengua que vulgueu (català, castellà o anglès). La vostra col·laboració és essencial per conèixer millor el Programa de Seccions Europees.

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</tbody>
</table>

1. **Titulació acadèmica:**
   - Diplomatura en ___________
   - Llicenciatura en ___________
   - Postgrau en ___________
   - Doctorat en ___________

2. **Títols de llengua anglesa:** __________________________________________

3. **Llengua materna:**
   - Català □
   - Castellà □
   - Anglès □
   - Altres (especificau-les) ___________

4. **Percentatge d’ús diari de la llengua anglesa (dins i fora de l’aula):**
   - 10-15% □
   - 16-30% □
   - 31-59% □
   - 60-74% □
   - 75-94% □
   - 95-100% □

5. **Anys d’experiència docent:**
   - 0-5 □
   - 6-10 □
   - 11-15 □
   - 16-20 □
   - 21-25 □
   - 26-30 □
   - >30 □

6. **Anys d’experiència en Secció Europea:**
   - 1 □
   - 2 □
   - 3 □
   - 4 □
   - 5 □
   - >5 □

7. **Tipus de formació rebuda en EICLE (Enfocament Integrat de Continguts i Llengua Estrangera).**
   - Especificau en cada cas el nombre de cursos o activitats formatives de cada tipus:
     - Cursos organitzats per la Conselleria d’Educació i Cultura □
     - Cursos organitzats pel Centre de Professorat □
     - Jornades pedagògiques □
     - Sessions formatives organitzades per editorials □
     - Cursos de postgrau □
     - Cursos a l'estranger □
     - Altres (especificau-los) __________________________________________

8. **Hores de formació rebuda en EICLE:**
   - 0-25 □
   - 26-50 □
   - 51-75 □
   - 76-100 □
   - 101-150 □
   - 151-200 □
   - 201-250 □
   - >250 □

9. **Aspectes metodològics de l’aplicació d’EICLE:**
   a. **Quin percentatge d’anglès feu servir com a docent en una sessió EICLE?**
      - 100% □
      - 90% □
      - 80% □
      - 70% □
      - 60% □
      - 50% □
      - <50% □

   b. _En cas que no utilitzeu sempre l’anglès, per a quines activitats no l’utilitzeu? Per quin motiu?_
c. Quin percentatge d'anglès fa servir l'alumnat en una sessió EICLE?
   100% □ 90% □ 80% □ 70% □ 60% □ 50% □ <50% □

d. En cas que l'alumnat no utilitzi sempre l'anglès, per a quines activitats no l'utilitza? Per quin motiu?

e. *La utilització de la L1 (català o castellà) s'ha d'evitar a classe.* Quina és la vostra opinió sobre aquesta afirmació?
   Acord total □ Acord parcial □ Ni acord ni desacord □ Desacord □ Desacord total □

f. Quin tipus de suport lingüístic oferiu a l'alumnat per superar les dificultats en llengua anglesa?

g. Quines estratègies feis servir per integrar l’alumnat amb més dificultats, des del punt de vista lingüístic?

h. Quines estratègies feis servir per integrar l’alumnat amb més dificultats, des del punt de vista del contingut?

i. Pensau que l’alumnat pot assolir els objectius curriculars utilitzant l’anglès com a llengua vehicular? Justificau la vostra resposta.

j. Principals entrebancs trobats a l’hora de dur a terme el Programa:
k. Principals avantatges experimentats:

l. Quina llengua (o llengües) pot utilitzar l’alumnat per a portar a terme les activitats de la matèria i les proves d’avaluació?

m. Donau un pes específic a la competència lingüística de l’alumnat en anglès a l’hora d’avaluar la matèria?

n. Establiu algun tipus de progressió temporal en la utilització de l’anglès (p.ex. a principi de curs es permet l’ús del català/castellà a determinades activitats i després ja no)?


11. Afegiu qualsevol altra consideració que trobeu oportuna:
APPENDIX 5. QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE COORDINATOR OF THE EUROPEAN SECTIONS PROGRAMME AT THE SCHOOL
QÜESTIONARI PER A LA COORDINADORA DEL PROGRAMA DE SECCIONS EUROPEES EN ANGLÈS

Moltes gràcies per contestar amb sinceritat les preguntes que trobareu a continuació! Podeu utilitzar la llengua que vulgueu (català, castellà o anglès). La vostra col·laboració és essencial per conèixer millor el Programa de Seccions Europees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM I LLINATGES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CARREC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. En què consisteix la vostra tasca com a coordinadora del Programa?

2. Quins mecanismes de coordinació entre els diversos agents implicats al Programa s’han establert al vostre Centre?

3. Com es coordina el professorat implicat en la docència de l’assignatura de tecnologia en anglès (p. ex., planificació dels ensenyaments, elaboració de material conjunt, etc.)?

4. Quines dificultats heu experimentat en la vostra tasca com a coordinadora relatives a la relació amb els altres agents implicats (incidències amb l’alumnat, amb el professorat, amb les famílies, etc.)?

5. Quines dificultats heu experimentat en la vostra tasca com a coordinadora relatives a la vostra pròpia formació i experiència?

Adaptat de Projecte COLE (HUM2007-66053-C02-02/FILO).
6. Quins beneficis heu experimentat en la vostra tasca com a coordinadora (p. ex. reconeixement de la feina feta per part de les famílies)?

7. La participació en el Programa ha donat peu a la participació en altres programes o projectes europeus? Sí ☐ No ☐. En cas afirmatiu, quins?

8. La participació en el Programa ha donat peu a l’organització d’estades a països on l’alumnat s’hagi de comunicar en anglès? Sí ☐ No ☐. En cas afirmatiu, quines?

9. Quins diríeu que són els punts forts del Programa?

10. Quins creieu que són els punts débils del Programa?


12. Afegiu qualsevol altra consideració que trobeu oportuna:
APPENDIX 6. QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE SCHOOL HEADSHIP
QÜESTIONARI EQUIP DIRECTIU

Moltes gràcies per contestar amb sinceritat les preguntes que trobareu a continuació! La vostra col·laboració és essencial per conèixer millor el Programa de Seccions Europees a l’IES Son Paes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM I LLINATGES</th>
<th>CÀRREC</th>
<th>DATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Quin any acadèmic es va implantar el Programa de Seccions Europees al vostre Centre?
   - 2004-05
   - 2005-06
   - 2006-07
   - 2007-08

2. Nivells que han participat al Programa des que es va implantar al vostre centre:
   - 1r ESO
   - 2n ESO
   - 3r ESO
   - 4t ESO
   - 1r Batx.
   - 2n Batx.
   - CFGM
   - CFGS

3. Nombre d’alumnes de cada nivell que ha participat al Programa des que es va implantar al vostre centre:
   - Nombre de grups a 1r ESO
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 1r ESO
   - Nombre de grups a 2n ESO
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 2n ESO
   - Nombre de grups a 3r ESO
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 3r ESO
   - Nombre de grups a 4t ESO
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 4t ESO
   - Nombre de grups a 1r Batx.
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 1r Batx.
   - Nombre de grups a 2n Batx.
   - Nombre d’alumnes a 2n Batx.

4. Per quin(s) motiu(s) es va triar l’assignatura de tecnologia per implantar-hi el programa de Seccions Europees?

5. Com va sorgir la iniciativa d’integrar tot l’alumnat d’un curs en la Secció Europea, sense excloure’n cap per motius acadèmics, lingüístics, etc.?

6. Es va aplicar aquesta iniciativa pionera des de l’inici de la implantació de la Secció Europea al vostre centre?
7. Quina comunicació s’estableix amb les famílies interessades en el Programa o amb fills/es en el Programa?

8. Quina acollida té el Programa per part de les famílies?

9. Quina acollida té el Programa per part de l’alumnat?

10. Quina formació va requerir la implantació de la Secció Europea?

11. Quin impacte social s’espera aconseguir amb el Programa (per exemple, augmentar la qualitat educativa, atreure més alumnat, etc.)?

12. Trobau que està prou garantida la continuïtat del Programa al Centre? Sí ☐ No ☐. En cas negatiu, quin(s) mecanisme(s) es podrien arbitrar per assegurar-la?

13. Rep el Centre algun avantatge (finançament extraordinari, ajuts per a la formació del professorat, recursos humans i/o pedagògics, etc.) per part de l’Administració Educativa pel fet de participar en el Programa? Sí ☐ No ☐. En cas afirmatiu, quin(s) i a què es destina(en)?

14. Quins diríeu que són els punts forts del Programa?
15. Quins creieu que són els punts débils del Programa?


17. Quina és la previsió de desplegament futur del Programa?

18. Teniu planificat augmentar el nombre d’assignatures que s’acullin al programa de Seccions Europees en anglès per a propers cursos?

19. Teniu planificat implantar alguna Secció Europea en una altra llengua?

20. Afegiu qualsevol altra consideració que trobeu oportuna:
APPENDIX 7. SAMPLES OF THE MATERIAL USED AT CLASS
a. “Choose our energy!”

This is a presentation checklist to be used by the students to assure that their oral presentation meets all the requirements.
Choose our energy!

Presentation Checklist

We have completed a presentation plan (Storyboard) on paper that shows we have planned my PPT.

Our information is relevant and makes sense to the audience.

The content is presented in an organized way.

The audience can read my slides EASILY. (Big enough font, only 3 bullets per slide).

All of the information on the slides is IN OUR OWN WORDS. If we have used something "word for word," it is in direct quotes.

We have proofread my slides so that they do not contain spelling, grammar, or punctuation mistakes.

All of our backgrounds, clipart, images, etc. connect with our presentation in some way.

We have used animation, and it has a specific purpose. I'm not just using it because we can.

We have used slide transitions.

If we use sound, it has a purpose that adds to the effectiveness of our presentation.

We have practiced the oral presentation so that we can pronounce everything correctly and we are not just reading from our slides.

We have included a glossary slide where we explain (with words or pictures) new vocabulary.

We have asked both our English and Technology teachers to review our presentation.

We have included our names in the presentation.

KISS: Keep It Short and Simple

English and Technology
are our favourite subjects
b. “Design project: How sustainable are we?”

These are the instructions for a task to be done by the students.
DESIGN PROJECT:

**How sustainable are we?**

Do you want good marks in English and Technology? Then read on, this project is for YOU! You must create an advert in the form of a story with photos using photostory 3.

**EVALUATION CRITERIA**

- You must write and speak on the advert.
- The story may use people/cartoon characters/pictures, etc.
- Creative and correct use of English (both oral and written).
- Originality (you get more points if you don’t use copyrighted material).
- Technical complexity of the presentation.

The video may be 3 minutes long **MAXIMUM**, (or 6 Mb aprr.), and 1 minute long **MINIMUM**. You can do it individually or in pairs, but participation is **COMPULSORY**. This is homework. You can ask your English or your Technology teacher for advice.

The project is due on **February 5th**, you must give it to your English or Technology teacher, with your name VISIBLE. The format may be .wmv, or .avi. You can give it in on a CD, bring it in a pendrive, or send it by email to antoniavidal@iessonpacs.cat.

Together with the video, you must give in a small project folio including:

- Sources
- Who did what
- Music used
- Pictures used

Prizes are:

- BEST ADVERT
- Most original advert
- Best use of technology
- Funniest advert
- Best voice over

English and Technology are my favourite subjects.
c. “Simple machines”

It is a practical activity regarding simple machines applied to everyday life.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rooms in the house</th>
<th>Gears</th>
<th>Inclined Plane</th>
<th>Lever</th>
<th>Pulley</th>
<th>Screw</th>
<th>Wedge</th>
<th>Wheel &amp; Axle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Garage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitchen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Directions: Answer the questions about the simple machines in each part of the house.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bedroom</th>
<th>Bathroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How is a baseball bat a lever?</td>
<td>1. How is a toilet paper dispenser a wheel and axle?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How is the front of a ship a wedge?</td>
<td>2. Besides a lever, what other simple machine do you think that a faucet handle could be?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How are the fan blades an inclined plane?</td>
<td>3. How is a door knob a wheel and axle?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How are show faces like pulleys?</td>
<td>4. What is a block and tackle?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Garage</th>
<th>Kitchen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Where is the fulcrum of a broom?</td>
<td>1. How does the cookie jar use a simple machine?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What is the purpose of gears?</td>
<td>2. Why are stairs used as opposed to just jumping up to another level?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
d. “What is electricity?”

It is a fragment of theoretical notes designed and hand-written by the content teacher for the students to follow oral explanations.
What is electricity?

Electricity is a type of energy that can build up in one place or flow from one place to another. When electricity gathers in one place it is known as static electricity (the word static means something that does not move); electricity that moves from one place to another is called current electricity.

Static electricity

Static electricity often happens when you rub things together. If you rub a balloon against your jumper 20 or 30 times, you will find the balloon sticks to you. This happens because rubbing the balloon gives it an electric charge (a small amount of electrons). The charge makes it stick to your jumper like a magnet, because your jumper gains an opposite electric charge. So your jumper and the balloon 'attract' one another like the opposite ends of two magnets.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Positive charge} & \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{attract} \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{Negative charge}
\end{align*}
\]