

Educación Bilingüe: Tendencias Educativas y Conceptos Clave

Bilingual Education: Educational Trends and Key Concepts



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Prólogo

En palabras de Howard-Jones, investigar sobre la práctica educativa supone un reto de trabajo científico y práctico de forma simultánea y, en este sentido, comprobamos a lo largo de esta obra que existen diferentes visiones sobre la importancia del lenguaje y de la adquisición de los idiomas en el ámbito educativo.

Nadie pone en duda ya hoy día la necesidad del lenguaje, característica claramente humana e impronta de nuestra conducta. Sin embargo, me gustaría hacer referencia a las nuevas teorías y descubrimientos que nos proporciona la neurociencia sobre la aparición del lenguaje, no tanto como medio de comunicación sino como un profundo cambio neurocognitivo, cuya característica más definitoria sería su utilización por el “homo sapiens” como instrumento organizador de sus pensamientos.

Existen múltiples estudios científicos dedicados al proceso de adquisición del lenguaje y de cómo las lenguas organizan nuestro cerebro. Estoy seguro de que en un futuro muy cercano conseguiremos dibujar el verdadero “mapa” del cerebro bilingüe.

En el ámbito educativo ya sabemos, gracias a investigaciones como las de Brainglot, que los alumnos bilingües utilizan más zonas cerebrales en tareas lingüísticas, especialmente el hemisferio izquierdo y que utilizar dos idiomas contribuye al concepto de reserva cognitiva.

Es fundamental la importancia del entorno familiar en el acceso a las primeras etapas del lenguaje y, sobre todo, es imprescindible conocer por qué cuesta tanto esfuerzo aprender un segundo idioma pasada una determinada edad.

A este respecto quiero resaltar que el centro educativo es el medio ideal para favorecer las relaciones e interacciones necesarias para la evolución del lenguaje del niño; de ahí la

especial relevancia de la formación del profesorado y su nivel de competencia lingüística en lenguas extranjeras.

Me gustaría recordar que, entre los objetivos estratégicos de la Educación y Formación 2020 (ET2020), están los de mejorar la calidad y la eficacia de la educación y la formación e incrementar la creatividad y la innovación.

Tres funciones de la Dirección General de Evaluación y Cooperación Territorial del MECD están relacionadas con el contenido que se presenta en esta publicación del Centro Nacional de Innovación e Investigación Educativa (CNIIE), como son la coordinación de actuaciones relativas a las enseñanzas de lenguas extranjeras y a los programas de enseñanzas de idiomas y bilingües, la elaboración y fomento de innovaciones e informes sobre educación, así como la realización y edición de publicaciones y materiales sobre educación. Todo ello contribuye a que el sistema educativo español alcance uno de los objetivos estratégicos formulados en el Marco Estratégico para la Cooperación Europea en el Ámbito de la Educación y la Formación («ET 2020»): que el 50% de los jóvenes de 15 años puedan desenvolverse como usuarios independientes (al menos nivel B1 del MCERL) en la primera lengua extranjera y que el 75% de los alumnos de la Educación Secundaria primera etapa (ESO) estén matriculados en una segunda lengua extranjera.

En este caso concreto, la formación del profesorado, el fomento de la innovación y el intercambio de experiencias y buenas prácticas entre los profesionales de la educación bilingüe es el ámbito elegido por los editores de esta obra, M^a Elena Gómez y Richard Johnstone, para realizar su aportación a la educación internacional en el marco de la coordinación de actuaciones relativas a las enseñanzas de lenguas extranjeras y a los programas bilingües que realiza.

No quiero dejar de aprovechar la oportunidad para agradecer a los Profesores Gómez y Johnstone la invitación para escribir el prólogo de la publicación de esta obra que, sin duda, contribuirá a la mejora y a la innovación de la didáctica y metodología en la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras.

D. José Luis Blanco
*Director General de Evaluación y Cooperación Territorial
Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte*

Prefacio

La educación bilingüe constituye uno de los retos educativos más apasionantes del siglo XXI. La importancia que relevantes instituciones internacionales (e.g. Comisión Europea, OCDE o UNESCO) otorgan a la implementación internacional de estos programas constituye una encrucijada educativa sin precedentes en las últimas décadas. Esta obra incluye algunos de los estudios más innovadores en relación a las últimas tendencias en educación bilingüe, al tiempo que pretende suscitar una discusión científica e informada sobre conceptos clave que pueden ayudar a los docentes, investigadores y políticos a avanzar en este camino.

Sin embargo, y a pesar del éxito que los programas bilingües tienen a nivel mundial, aún se necesita una cantidad razonable de trabajo y de investigación en este tema, ya que cuestiones cruciales sobre diferentes aspectos de su implementación, sobre los métodos y enfoques más apropiados de enseñanza y aprendizaje, y sobre sus interrelaciones con la educación intercultural surgen aún en forma de grandes interrogantes entre el profesorado, investigadores y alumnado. Por tanto, este volumen pone un énfasis especial en estos aspectos que, deseamos, contribuyan a arrojar algo de luz sobre estas cuestiones.

Los veintitrés capítulos que componen esta obra, escritos en dos lenguas (español e inglés), tienen el objetivo común (como ya avanzábamos) de alimentar la discusión científica en educación bilingüe y de contribuir a la mejora de la praxis docente. En la sección de capítulos en español, el lector encontrará una cuidada selección de temas relacionados con las TIC (por ejemplo, big data o el uso del vídeo para la formación del profesorado); implementación de programas bilingües en el panorama educativo español; metodologías y recursos; estudios sobre la competencia lingüística; género; integración educativa y educación intercultural.

Los autores de este volumen constituyen una nutrida representación de consagrados y jóvenes investigadores, que conforman una muestra más que representativa de una nueva

generación de académicos y profesionales de la educación bilingüe. Asimismo, los autores muestran una formación profesional multifacética, ya que han desarrollado sus carreras profesionales en diversos contextos, desde los que la educación bilingüe se contempla desde un horizonte caleidoscópico. El objetivo ulterior de esta visión multidisciplinar, al tiempo que complementaria, es contribuir a enriquecer las conclusiones de nuestros lectores.

La experiencia personal como co-editora de esta obra con el Profesor Johnstone será uno de los grandes hitos académicos de mi vida profesional. Solo un maestro como Richard Johnstone es capaz de enseñar mucho con muy pocas palabras. Pero más allá de eso, solo un ser humano de la grandeza intelectual y personal de R. Johnstone es capaz de estar cerca en los momentos clave, sin importar la hora o el día de la semana.

Finalmente, queremos dedicar aquí unas breves palabras de agradecimiento, sincero y profundo, al Director General de Evaluación y Cooperación Territorial, a la Directora y a los miembros del CNIIE, y al Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, sin cuya valiosa ayuda e incondicional apoyo este volumen no habría sido posible.

M^a Elena Gómez Parra
Profesora Titular Universidad de Córdoba

Preface

Education through the medium of two or more languages, including bilingual education, CLIL and forms of immersion, has been implemented in many countries for several years now. Internationally, it continues to attract the attention of policy-makers, schools, students, parents, national and regional authorities, international bodies such as the European Commission and the Council of Europe, and the wider public (including the media).

It is fair to claim that the introduction and development of this complex and ambitious form of education means that careful thought, planning, collaboration, teaching, assessment, monitoring, evaluation and diverse other forms of research are likely to be needed in order to embrace a wide range of different factors that might lead to success, not only in individual schools or other institutions but also on a larger scale within a particular country or autonomous region. It is not surprising that in some parts of the world its fortunes have fluctuated somewhat.

As a well-disposed outsider looking in on Spain, in recent times I had the privilege of speaking at the two international conferences in Córdoba (2015 and 2016) that form part of the background to the present publication, and now I have the privilege of co-editing the present publication.

What impresses me enormously, both about these conferences and also the present publication, is the clear sense of commitment, enthusiasm, collaboration, realism, professionalism, ambition and goodwill that has been evident.

The present publication comes at a good time. Since it will help both writers and readers to take stock of what has been achieved thus far, what seems to be working well, what seems to be causing concern and what seems to be ways forward into a good future. While

understandably most chapters focus on issues and possibilities in the Spanish context, there are valuable contributions from elsewhere.

Taken together, the chapters address important aspects such as pedagogy; ICT for various purposes as diverse as international links or subtitling; teacher education (both pre-service and continuing professional development); teachers' needs and concerns; study abroad programmes; communication in business English; particular components of proficiency such as listening and speaking in external tests; project work; international comparisons on particular aspects; inclusion; children's development; management; students' profiles; and interdisciplinarity.

They also offer valuable evidence from the field, based on research findings, whether obtained by qualitative or quantitative means or by some combination of these, and therefore offer an invaluable stimulus and precedent for the many future research studies and developments in this area that will undoubtedly be needed and that I am confident will follow.

Also in the present English-language section are two texts of a different sort, one found at chapter 10 and the other at the end, chapter 23. In the first text, one writer interviews the other; and in the final text the roles are reversed. In both cases the intention is not to focus exclusively on bilingual education (including immersion or CLIL), but rather to raise broader issues of 'languages in society', 'positive and less positive factors in the globalized world of today', and 'intercultural communication' that form part of the ever-changing context in which bilingual education takes place.

Finally, I should like to express my deep gratitude to my co-editor Dra. María Elena Gómez Parra. She was instrumental in inviting me to speak at the first two International Conferences on Bilingual Education, held in Córdoba in 2015 and 2016, thereby enabling me to visit the beautiful city of Córdoba for the first time and make the acquaintance of many conference participants from Spain and other countries. It has been a great pleasure to work with Dra. Gómez Parra on the present important publication.

Professor Emeritus Richard Johnstone OBE

Nuevos Avances en Educación Bilingüe a través de Big Data

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Resumen

La sociedad actual está evolucionando a pasos agigantados y en muchas direcciones diferentes. Sería absurdo concebir los métodos educativos con los mismos rasgos y elementos que los han caracterizado en los últimos años. Ninguna metodología debe ser ajena a los estudiantes para los que se diseña, por lo que un cambio en las necesidades de los alumnos e incluso en su forma de desenvolverse en la sociedad en la que viven implica, necesariamente, que los métodos de enseñanza se adapten a las nuevas situaciones. El trabajo con *big data* y con *Twitter*, que tantos beneficios está dando en todos los ámbitos de la investigación y del saber, puede llegar a tener un papel fundamental en la educación bilingüe gracias al elevado número de posibilidades que nos ofrece. En este trabajo se lleva a cabo una aproximación a estos dos conceptos –*big data* y *Twitter*–, se analiza el potencial de esta nueva metodología y se enumeran algunas de las ventajas de su uso.

1.1. Introducción

La sociedad actual está evolucionando a pasos agigantados y en muchas direcciones diferentes. Probablemente, una de las más importantes de todas esté relacionada con el desarrollo de los medios de comunicación y con las nuevas relaciones que están comenzando a producirse entre los seres humanos. La comunicación ha dejado de ser, al menos de forma imprescindible, un acto en el que los interlocutores o los participantes en el proceso de intercambio de información deban estar presentes. Es cierto que siempre ha existido el contacto por escrito y que la comunicación escrita no siempre requiere la presencia de todos los interlocutores, pero la

consecuencia más inmediata de este tipo de intercambio de información era la no simultaneidad, la falta de sincronía entre las personas. Sin embargo, actualmente y desde hace ya un tiempo, la comunicación escrita está creciendo cada vez más, pero está adquiriendo características de la comunicación oral que no solo se refieren a la simultaneidad del acto comunicativo, sino a rasgos textuales propios de la oralidad, lo que está haciendo que surjan géneros textuales mixtos Gómez Torrego (2001), Yus (2001), López Quero (2003), Araujo y Melo (2003), Galán (2007) o Calero Vaquera (2014).

Dadas estas circunstancias, sería absurdo concebir los métodos educativos con los mismos rasgos y elementos que los han caracterizado en los últimos años. Ninguna metodología debe ser ajena a los estudiantes para los que se diseña, por lo que un cambio en las necesidades de los alumnos e incluso en su forma de desenvolverse en la sociedad en la que viven implica, necesariamente, que los métodos de enseñanza se adapten a las nuevas situaciones.

Por otro lado, si estudiamos los planes educativos desde el siglo pasado hasta la actualidad, podremos observar fácilmente que el mayor de los cambios que se ha producido en lo que se refiere a las materias impartidas en los centros educativos de cualquier nivel (Educación Infantil, Educación Primaria, Educación Secundaria y Bachillerato y Educación de nivel superior) está relacionado con la enseñanza de segundas lenguas y con la educación bilingüe. Ha sido tan profunda la concienciación sobre este asunto que no solo en la educación oficial, sino también en la enseñanza no reglada se ha producido un enorme auge en este sentido debido al interés de la población en el aprendizaje de idiomas, al menos a nivel comunicativo. También en el ámbito laboral, la capacidad de manejo de una segunda lengua a distintos niveles es una de las habilidades más requeridas, lo que contribuye, por otro lado, a la necesidad de mejorar la situación educativa.

Pero no solo se están invirtiendo esfuerzos y recursos en la enseñanza de segundas lenguas o de lenguas extranjeras, sino también en la educación bilingüe, desde los primeros años de enseñanza hasta la etapa universitaria, como hemos señalado antes. De hecho, ya se ofertan, desde hace algunos años, grados bilingües en algunas universidades, como es el caso del Grado Bilingüe de Educación Infantil y Grado Bilingüe de Educación Primaria, en la Universidad de Córdoba, o también en la Universidad Loyola Andalucía o en la Universidad de Nebrija, entre otras.

Así las cosas, parece claro que los órganos educativos, las administraciones y los cargos públicos, tanto a nivel estatal como también internacional, están priorizando la educación bilingüe y la enseñanza de idiomas. Aunque, lógicamente, factores geográficos, culturales, sociales, poblacionales y políticos influyen en la perspectiva desde la cual nos aproximamos a este tipo de educación. Además, no podemos olvidar que, hoy en día, cuando se trata de bilingüismo y de educación bilingüe –y, por supuesto, también multilingüe–, entramos sin apenas darnos cuenta en el campo de multiculturalidad, idea que no debe quedarse a un lado y en la que conviene hacer hincapié y reflexionar sobre ella; sobre todo, teniendo en cuenta que es una de las principales consecuencias de la globalización y de la unión entre pueblos. Por lo tanto, ya no sirve pensar solo en la educación bilingüe, sino en la educación multicultural, cuyo objetivo, siguiendo a Banks (1989, p. 11) es, primordialmente: “preparar a todos los alumnos –mayoritarios y, fundamentalmente, minoritarios– para poder comprender, adaptarse y funcionar adecuadamente, tanto en la “macrocultura (mayoritaria) como en la/las microcultura/s (minoritarias); es decir, generar una auténtica competencia multicultural”.

Los medios de comunicación tradicionales, por otro lado, como la televisión, la radio o la prensa escrita, no han fomentado con tanta fuerza como se realiza actualmente el intercambio de información entre idiomas o culturas y, por tanto, el intercambio entre distintas lenguas. Con el paso del tiempo, la apertura de los medios de comunicación a todos los niveles hace que el plurilingüismo se expanda mucho más rápido y en un mayor número de zonas.

Como ya hemos mencionado, la educación, en general, y la educación bilingüe, en particular, no puede ni debe quedarse atrás en el proceso de evolución de la sociedad, porque son los seres humanos los que cambian, los que tienen otras necesidades y nuevos intereses y los que demandan nuevas formas de enseñanza y nuevas metodologías. Y es lógico que así sea. El rápido y fácil acceso a la información que tienen nuestros estudiantes ha provocado un cambio de paradigma en la educación. Poco sentido tiene ya una lección magistral en la que el profesor aporte información y materiales a los que ellos pueden acceder en pocos minutos a través de la red. Y menos útil es, aun, trabajar con ellos a través de metodologías arcaicas o que no se adapten a los tiempos en los que vivimos y a las necesidades y gustos que ellos tienen. Abundan los estudios que hablan acerca del fracaso escolar y de la falta de interés del alumnado en las aulas, independientemente de la materia a la que se enfrenten. Pero esta falta de interés tiene, lamentablemente, o quizá afortunadamente, una clara explicación: los planes de estudios no están diseñados para adaptarse a los alumnos, sino que son ellos quienes tienen que adaptarse a los currículos, que no tienen en cuenta o no han contemplado cuál sería la mejor forma de acercarse a los estudiantes y de conseguir llegar al centro de sus intereses.

Sin duda alguna, las redes sociales han sido otro de los elementos determinantes en la difuminación de las fronteras, en la expansión lingüística que estamos viviendo a nivel mundial y, por supuesto, en lo que Lamo de Espinosa (1995, p. 20) denomina “multiculturalismo”, y que define como “la emergencia de espacios multiculturales de convivencia (o al menos de coexistencia)”. De todas las redes sociales, *Twitter*, por sus características, es una de las que más contribuye al intercambio verbal de comunicación y que más impacto tiene en los usuarios. El verdadero poder de *Twitter* reside en su capacidad para mostrarse como una ventana al mundo (González, 2015).

La metodología que aquí presentamos apuesta por utilizar las tecnologías basadas en *big data* en el trabajo en el aula y en la educación bilingüe. Puesto que este concepto (*big data*), que explicaremos a continuación, abarca un espectro sumamente grande, nos centraremos en la plataforma de *microblogging Twitter* para proponer una forma distinta de trabajar con nuestros alumnos. Es decir, trabajaremos con las enormes cantidades de datos que se generan, se intercambian y se almacenan día a día en internet y que suponen prácticamente la mayor parte de la información que manejamos actualmente. Lógicamente, la forma de trabajo con esta nueva metodología va a cambiar, puesto que este tipo de información (Chen, Mao y Liu, 2014; González, 2015) requiere ser trabajado con técnicas distintas a las tradicionales, dado que estas últimas no tienen la capacidad de manejar ni el tipo ni la cantidad de información de los que disponemos.

En este trabajo pretendemos realizar una introducción al trabajo relacionado con *big data*, como acabamos de explicar, y ofrecer información actualizada sobre las muchas posibilidades que este ofrece desde el punto de vista de diseño de materiales, pero también para la confección de actividades, para la obtención de información y para la motivación del alumnado.

1.2. Marco Teórico

El ritmo y la velocidad a la que crece la información en internet hoy en día son vertiginosos y, además, no paran de aumentar. Toda esta información, que se nos presenta de forma desestructurada en la mayoría de los casos y también con muy distintas naturalezas, es lo que se conoce hoy en día como *big data*. Manyika, Chui, Brown, Dobbs, Roxburgh y Byers (2011, p. 1) lo definen para *McKinsey & Company* como “conjuntos de información cuyo tamaño supera la capacidad de las herramientas de *software* de bases de datos tradicionales para capturar, guardar, gestionar y analizar”, presentándolo también como “la próxima frontera para la innovación, la competencia y la productividad”. Para los autores, por tanto, el volumen no es la única característica de *big data*, sino también la creciente velocidad de producción de información que requiere la superación de las tecnologías existentes para su gestión.

Dentro de las técnicas de análisis de *big data*, el análisis de información textual es un aspecto que no podemos olvidar, puesto que se trata del formato de almacenamiento de la información más común (Carbonell, 1992; Chen et al., 2014). La minería de textos es una rama específica de la minería de datos que está relacionada con sistemas de captura de información, aprendizaje automático, estadística y lingüística computacional e intenta obtener conocimiento de textos no estructurados procedentes de emails, documentos electrónicos, páginas web y medios sociales. La mayoría de las técnicas de minería de textos están basadas en lo que se conoce como PLN (Procesamiento del Lenguaje Natural). El PLN incluye herramientas de adquisición léxica, desambiguación de palabras, etiquetados del discurso y gramática probabilística, entre otros (Manning y Schütze, 1999). Sus principales objetivos, según Carbonell (1992) son interfaces en lenguaje natural, procesamiento de textos y traducción automática.

Otro de los campos de análisis fundamental en *big data* es el estudio de la información multimedia, fundamentalmente de imágenes, audios y vídeos, que han ido creciendo a una velocidad vertiginosa y que son una fuente muy rica de información. Se trata también de una información no estructurada, heterogénea y multidisciplinar que está trayendo consigo gran cantidad de investigaciones y de avances para encontrar sistemas de análisis adecuados.

Sin embargo, el área que más está creciendo como fuente de *big data* y que más nos interesa para nuestra investigación es el análisis de la información existente en las redes sociales. En los últimos años, *Twitter*, *Facebook*, *LinkedIn*, *Instagram* o *Snapchat* están ganando popularidad en todos los ámbitos de la sociedad y están generando cantidades masivas de información y de contenido. La naturaleza de cada red social es diferente y no todas generan el mismo tipo de información ni en la misma cantidad; mientras que algunas, como *Facebook* o *Instagram*, basan gran parte de su contenido (*Facebook*) o prácticamente la totalidad del contenido (*Instagram*) en fotografías, otras, como *Twitter* o *LinkedIn* ofrecen mucha más información textual. En general, los contenidos de la información incluyen texto, imágenes y otra información multimedia, como vídeos o hipervínculos. La información asociada a estas plataformas se presenta en forma de estructuras gráficas que describen la comunicación entre dos entidades. El valiosísimo contenido que podemos extraer de ellas para generar conocimiento y las nuevas características emergentes que presentan los datos están planteando, una vez más, desafíos sin precedentes y grandes oportunidades para el análisis de la información. Entre los principales retos que surgen se encuentra, en primer lugar, el crecimiento masivo y continuado de información, que debe ser analizado de forma automática en un tiempo razonable (Chen et al., 2014); en segundo lugar, dado que las redes sociales son sistemas dinámicos, hay que tener en cuenta que cambian y se actualizan constantemente. A pesar de que la investigación en el análisis de las redes sociales se encuentra todavía en su fase inicial, no cabe duda de que se trata de una de las fuentes de información más importantes en *big data*. Los analistas también consideran las redes sociales como una herramienta para promocionar los negocios, gracias a la información que son capaces de transmitir.

Por otro lado, puesto que la idea que presentamos se centra en *big data* y en la plataforma *Twitter* en particular, llevaremos a cabo a continuación una breve introducción a esta red social que justifique nuestra propuesta. Cuando *Twitter* surgió, una nueva forma de *blogs* saltó a escena, conocida como *microblogging*. Y así lo plasmaron Yoon, Elhadad y Bakken (2013, p. 122) en su definición: “*Twitter* es una red social de *microblogging* con una marca de “¿qué está pasando?” que permite a los usuarios registrarse gratis y publicar posts cortos de 140 caracteres llamados *tweets*, en inglés). La idea era muy simple y concisa: la comunicación a través de la web mediante mensajes cortos con una limitación de 140 caracteres.

La utilidad de la información contenida en *Twitter* está generando enormes beneficios económicos a todos los niveles: empresarial, sanitario, humanitario o gubernamental, por citar algunos casos. Por ejemplo, Asur y Huberman (2010) afirman las ventajas de utilizarlo en el campo de la comunicación y la información, mientras que Paul, Dredze y Broniatowsky (2014),

Lazer, Kennedy, King y Vespignani (2014), McIver, Hawkins, Chunara, Chatterjee, Bhandari, Fitzgerald, Jain, Brownstein (2015) o Ram, Zhang, Williams y Pegetnze (2015) lo hacen en el ámbito sanitario y otros, como Sazaki, Okazaki y Matsue (2010) lo aplican en la prevención de desastres naturales. Más próximos a nuestro campo de aplicación, encontramos autores como Borau, Ullrich, Feng y Shen (2009), que defienden el uso de *Twitter* en educación como herramienta para el fomento de aprendizaje activo de idiomas, o Ebner, Lienhardt, Rohs y Meyer (2010) como plataforma para el aprendizaje en educación superior, entre muchos otros investigadores, como Junco, Heiberger y Loken (2010) o Veletsianos (2011).

Sin embargo, a pesar de que algunos trabajos, como el de Kwak, Lee, Park y Moon (2010) resaltan que *Twitter*, gracias a su API (una especificación que permite conectar un módulo de *software* con otro) abierta, a su peculiaridad de relaciones unilaterales entre usuarios y a los mecanismos de retuiteo, ofrece una oportunidad sin precedentes para investigadores de muy variados ámbitos (entre los que señala a los lingüistas) no existen hasta el momento investigaciones que utilicen la información que nos brinda esta plataforma para un análisis lingüístico profundo a través de las herramientas informáticas adecuadas.

Para solventar este problema hemos desarrollado una herramienta informática de autor que permite la extracción, el almacenamiento y la gestión de la información textual de *Twitter* para llevar a cabo análisis lingüísticos diversos, con una amplia variedad de aplicaciones.

Por estas razones, nos hemos centrado en esta plataforma de *microblogging* para analizar –gracias a una serie de herramientas técnicas– el contenido y el uso que realizan los usuarios de los distintos idiomas y poder estudiar el nivel de implantación de ciertos idiomas en la población. De esta forma, podremos acercarnos de una manera más precisa al estado lingüístico de cualquier zona geográfica, comunidad, etc. y conocer incluso detalles a los que hasta ahora no teníamos acceso de manera inmediata, como la edad, el sexo o los temas de interés. Esto nos permite crear líneas pedagógicas, materiales docentes y programas educativos más reales y personalizados, que cumplan las premisas de lo que Lovelace (1995, p. 23) considera que debe ser la educación multicultural: “la necesaria para afrontar la complejidad de los desarrollos de las sociedades contemporáneas, estableciendo un adecuado equilibrio entre la atención a las diversidades culturales y los contenidos básicos que articulan dichas sociedades”, así como los objetivos que ha de cumplir su modelo de método educativo, a saber “transmitir los conceptos, los procedimientos y las actitudes propias de una cultura determinada y que se refieren a costumbres y tradiciones que se presentan globalmente como modelos universalistas del saber”. Solo llegaremos a conseguir la implantación de una verdadera educación bilingüe o plurilingüe si aprendemos a respetar y a convivir en la diversidad y en la multiculturalidad.

1.3. Uso de Big Data y de Twitter en Educación Bilingüe

Tras analizar las ventajas y los beneficios de *big data* –como concepto más general– y de *Twitter* –para acotar de alguna forma las vastísimas dimensiones del primero, no solo destacan los enormes beneficios del trabajo con estas tecnologías en el ámbito empresarial, sanitario, humanitario o económico, sino también en el campo de la Lingüística. Creemos que, con el enfoque adecuado y las tecnologías oportunas, este tipo de metodología posee un gran potencial tanto en las clases de idiomas como en la educación bilingüe y que el rendimiento que se puede llegar a obtener es considerablemente alto.

Además, la utilización de *big data* y de *Twitter* en la educación puede acometerse desde una doble perspectiva. Por un lado, desde el punto de vista de la recepción del alumnado y de la elaboración de materiales por parte del profesorado. Por otro lado, desde el punto de vista de la producción lingüística, los estudiantes pueden verse altamente beneficiados mediante la utilización de esta plataforma por los motivos que explicaremos a continuación. Dentro del aula

de enseñanza de lenguas, tanto el profesorado como el alumnado pueden utilizar *Twitter* como herramienta dependiendo de las necesidades específicas de cada uno. Lógicamente, el buen funcionamiento de cualquiera de estos dos agentes –profesorado y alumnado– redundan en el del otro, por lo que muchas de las ventajas de las distintas aplicaciones lo son para ambos.

Uno de los usos más evidentes e inmediatos de la utilización, no solo de *Twitter*, sino de cualquier plataforma de *microblogging* es el aumento de la participación de los alumnos en el aula –y también fuera de ella. Así lo afirman Ullrich, Borau, Luo, Tan, Shen y Shen (2008), en su estudio acerca de los beneficios de la utilización de la web y de *Twitter* en el aula de idiomas. La naturaleza de la plataforma anima a los estudiantes a participar de forma más activa en la conversación y a superar la barrera que se les impone de forma natural en los modelos tradicionales de enseñanza, en los que los alumnos reciben información de forma pasiva por parte del profesor mucho más a menudo de lo que construyen sus propios enunciados, ya sea debido a la timidez, a la falta de recursos o a la propia dinámica de la clase. En el mismo estudio mencionado unas líneas más arriba, Ullrich et al. (2008) concluyen que, tras un estudio en el que se les pide a los estudiantes que se creen una cuenta de *Twitter* y se comuniquen entre sí con, al menos, siete tuits por semana, la participación de los mismos aumentó en un 94% y ellos mismos afirmaron sentirse más cómodos, más animados y más seguros de sí mismos en lo que a lo que la producción de textos en lengua extranjera se refiere. Además, su nivel de competencia comunicativa aumentó puesto que no solo se comunicaban con compañeros de su misma clase, sino con hablantes nativos del idioma estudiado. Otros experimentos, como el de Smith y Ranking (2009), confirman también el aumento de la motivación del alumnado a la hora de entablar discusiones en el aula, en este caso, de historia.

También, y en la línea de la innovación metodológica de aprendizaje cooperativo y aprendizaje basado en proyectos, son Ebner, Lienhardt, Rohs, y Meyer (2010) los que resaltan las ventajas de la utilización de plataformas de *microblogging* en el ámbito universitario.

Los resultados de todos estos estudios tienen una explicación lógica si se tienen en cuenta los cuatro usos principales que, según Java, Song, Finin y Tseng (2007), llevan a cabo en esta aplicación los usuarios de *Twitter*. Los autores clasifican estos usos en: la conversación diaria, el intercambio de información, la publicación de noticias y la conversación. Nuestros estudiantes, sin lugar a dudas, también utilizan *Twitter* de todas estas formas, lo que explica los resultados de los estudios arriba mencionados.

Por otro lado, autores como Reinhardt, Wheeler y Ebner (2010) enumeran algunos principios de *Twitter* basados en el poema de Fulghum de 1986, *Todo lo que necesito saber lo aprendí en la escuela infantil*, y los adaptan al uso de la plataforma en educación, de la siguiente forma –exponemos aquí las más importantes–: compartirlo todo (puesto que *Twitter* permite publicar *posts* acerca de cualquier tema con el resto de usuarios); no hacer trampas (es decir, no plagiar, puesto que aquel que desee repetir o parafrasear lo que otro ha dicho lo puede hacer con un retuit, lo que señala de forma directa la fuente original); devolver las cosas a su sitio y ordenarlas (mediante el uso de *hashtags* para filtrar temas y de @ para dirigirte a los usuarios concretos); vivir una vida equilibrada y procurar utilizar otro tipo de recursos para combinarlos con *Twitter* o dormir la siesta todos los días (para poder desconectar de la plataforma a diario y no usarla constantemente).

Desde el punto de vista del profesorado, también se pueden enumerar numerosas ventajas obtenidas del trabajo con *big data* y *Twitter*. Hay, incluso, investigadores que consideran que sería un error considerar el uso de esta plataforma (o aparatos electrónicos) en clase como un elemento distractor en los alumnos y que el verdadero reto se encuentra en conseguir adaptarlos al trabajo en el aula como medio para mejorar el aprendizaje (Reinhardt, Wheeler y Ebner, 2010).

Ya hemos hablado de la mejora que supone el intercambio de conversación entre alumnos o entre los propios alumnos y otros hablantes nativos, pero este intercambio también se puede producir entre profesor y alumno –especialmente útil en grupos muy numerosos en los que resulta difícil que todos puedan intervenir– e incluso entre profesores expertos en una determinada o en varias materias que no se encuentren en zonas próximas geográficamente hablando, es decir, para conectar a investigadores de un mismo campo (Ebner y Schiefner, 2008).

Sin embargo, igual que hemos comentado el refuerzo de las habilidades de escritura a partir de la herramienta, el profesorado también puede aprovechar sus beneficios para fomentar el desarrollo de la lectura, sobre todo de la fase final de comprensión mediante la participación en la plataforma, ya que todos los alumnos pueden participar en las actividades de comprensión sin que la falta de tiempo en el aula suponga un problema (Hamidon, Alias, Siraj, Kokila, Mohammed y Thanabalan, 2013).

Además, existen otras ventajas, como son la posibilidad de enfocar las clases con temas que resulten de interés para el alumnado, lo que mejorará ostensiblemente la capacidad de atención de este, la utilización de contextos de aprendizaje reales, la cercanía con la que los alumnos sienten a sus profesores, la posibilidad de la construcción de una comunidad educativa, el desarrollo de la capacidad de síntesis debido a la limitación de los 140 caracteres, mayor diversión y conocimiento de lo que ocurre en el aula o la capacidad para cambiar la dinámica de la clase en un momento determinado, entre muchos otros.

Por último, no podemos dejar de nombrar, aunque solo sea muy superficialmente, el enorme potencial de la información lingüística que reside en *Twitter* para la investigación –tanto por parte del profesor como por la del alumno– acerca de casi cualquier aspecto concreto de la lengua y para la elaboración de materiales docentes, fundamentalmente (aunque no únicamente) gracias a la posibilidad de compilación de corpus compilados con toda la información textual disponible. Gracias a una herramienta de autor que hemos diseñado específicamente para este tipo de investigación, podemos, además de diseñar y obtener dichos corpus, obtener ejemplos de Key Word In Context (KWIC), frecuencias de palabras y de colocaciones. Mostramos a continuación un ejemplo de KWIC con la preposición inglesa *upon*:

FIGURA 1.1. KWIC de upon

Izquierda	Palabra	Derecha
@guicotsch Nothing to be surprised	upon	. We all are.
@AutoPap I dunno.. U might have mentioned them once	upon	a time.. 🙌
@Lockolike The media played	upon	her vulnerability and turned the community against her, like they do now.
I got lost in Paris and stumbled	upon	the Eiffel tower. I didn't feel like I was in Paris until this... https://t.co/90m5827sYJ
I'm jealous of the rain that falls	upon	your skin It's closer than my hands have been 😊
@ZozeeBo what happened with once	upon	a time? did you finish all the seasons?
@daphartmann @trias_politica @RealJamesWoods wish God would actually listen and act	upon	it appropriately.
Me ha dado muy fuerte Once	Upon	A Time, demasiados feels, demasiado real, demasiado de todo 😊👉
@Eurostar the train manager has said that you'll be providing taxis at St Pancras	upon	arrival. Which is different to what you're saying.
gotta be up in 6 and a half hours but I'm just thinking about it instead of acting	upon	it and sleeping

Fuente: elaboración propia.

La novedad en este caso no se encuentra en el uso de KWIC en las clases de idiomas, sino en la rapidez y la facilidad con la que podemos obtener los usos de cualquier palabra, en

cualquier idioma y con miles de millones de ejemplos. Para hacernos una idea, la herramienta ha encontrado, en décimas de segundo 44.349 tuits en los que aparece esta palabra.

1.4. Conclusiones

Desde nuestro punto de vista y tras lo expuesto a lo largo de estas páginas, *Twitter* ha demostrado ser una herramienta útil en las clases de idiomas para el desarrollo profesional del profesorado y para la evolución académica de los estudiantes, capaz de transformar las convenciones educativas establecidas hasta el momento y de convertir el aula en un espacio de participación, de interés y de aprendizaje colaborativo. Además, es una forma de acercar las clases a la realidad del alumnado, para el cual las redes sociales se han convertido en una parte fundamental de sus vidas. Por otro lado, la metodología con *big data* en el ámbito lingüístico está demostrando aportar enormes beneficios en cuanto al tiempo y a los resultados de las investigaciones, así como a su utilidad para la confección de materiales de trabajo y docentes. Es cierto que estamos solamente empezando con esta metodología y adaptándonos a ella, explorando todas sus posibilidades, pero también parece claro que la enseñanza de idiomas debe evolucionar con los tiempos y sumarse al tren de la innovación metodológica para obtener la mayor tasa de éxito posible, no solo a nivel de resultados, sino también a nivel de implicación de los estudiantes e incluso de los profesores.

1.5. Referencias

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El Uso del Vídeo para la Formación Inicial de Docentes en AICLE

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Resumen

En este capítulo reflexionamos sobre el uso del vídeo para la formación inicial de docentes AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras), como modelo europeo para la educación bilingüe. En líneas generales, se trazan algunos de los puntos más relevantes referentes al uso del vídeo en la enseñanza, en particular en la enseñanza a través de AICLE. El capítulo se centra en particular en la formación inicial de los docentes y en cómo el vídeo puede actuar de manera eficaz en su período de prácticas formativas. Asimismo, se plantea el problema de los docentes en formación inicial en contextos AICLE, y cómo las herramientas de anotaciones en vídeo pueden ayudar a que los docentes mejoren en este contexto siguiendo un proceso reflexivo. Además, las conclusiones de este capítulo nos llevarán a discutir conceptos que surgen de manera secundaria, pero no por ello menos importante, como la construcción de la identidad del docente en AICLE y su relación con la aplicación del vídeo para la transformación de la misma.

2.1. Introducción

El término CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) con sus siglas en español AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras) fue definido por Marsh (2002) para referirse al modelo educativo en el que una lengua extranjera se usa vehicularmente para la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de contenidos: “CLIL is a generic umbrella term which would encompass any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint curricular role” (Marsh,

2002, p. 58). AICLE o CLIL se ha instalado como el modelo europeo para la educación bilingüe. Este modelo está animando a la comunidad educativa a implementar ideas innovadoras que mejoren el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua a través de contenidos curriculares. Igualmente, el Marco Europeo para la Formación Docente en AICLE (Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff & Frigols, 2012) pone de manifiesto las claves más importantes para la integración de AICLE en la formación docente.

En este contexto, se habla de un nuevo paso en el que el aprendizaje de un nuevo idioma en la escuela se hace aprendiendo la lengua junto con un contenido o área específica como, por ejemplo, las Matemáticas o las Ciencias Naturales. Continuamente se presentan experiencias, estudios e investigaciones que fomentan la aplicación de ideas innovadoras para la mejora de la enseñanza en AICLE y, en particular, en la formación de profesionales que sepan impartir un contenido en otra lengua distinta a la de origen. En este sentido, del Pozo (2013) hace hincapié en la necesidad de formar al profesorado universitario en una segunda lengua para capacitarles en habilidades que les permitan impartir una clase AICLE.

En definitiva, este capítulo supone una reflexión sobre cómo es la formación inicial de los docentes AICLE y cómo pueden contribuir las herramientas audiovisuales a la mejora formativa de los mismos. Asimismo, analizaremos relevantes estudios que, aunque no hayan sido diseñados específicamente para el estudio de contextos AICLE, nos ayudarán a arrojar luz sobre la formación de los futuros docentes mediante el uso de nuevas tecnologías como el vídeo, que apoyan la actividad formativa. Además, no olvidaremos analizar el concepto de la reflexión en la formación docente, un término imprescindible para hablar de la mejora de la práctica de los docentes, así como la importancia del mismo proceso reflexivo para evaluar este contexto.

El objetivo principal de este trabajo es, por tanto, contribuir a la reflexión ya iniciada en la literatura especializada sobre el uso del vídeo en la formación inicial del profesorado en relación a la mejora en su praxis docente. Asimismo, discutiremos el problema existente en la formación de docentes AICLE y las competencias de los mismos. Seguidamente, analizaremos el uso del vídeo en contextos de enseñanza AICLE, para concluir con un concepto emergente en la formación de docentes AICLE; la identidad profesional.

2.2. La Formación Inicial del Docente en Contextos AICLE

Hablar de formación en AICLE supone hablar de las competencias que necesita un docente para impartir una clase de contenidos en una segunda lengua. La formación inicial docente en entornos AICLE surge con la implementación de este enfoque a nivel europeo. Además, es necesaria la incorporación de una formación adicional a estudiantes en período universitario con el fin de asegurar una enseñanza bilingüe de calidad. Autores como Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010) resaltan la importancia de la formación docente para la mejora de los entornos AICLE. Escobar Urmeneta (2013) también estudia la formación inicial de los futuros docentes resaltando su importancia, al igual que Cinganotto & Cuccurullo (2015). Por otro lado, Del Pozo (2013) destaca la importancia de la formación del profesorado universitario para la enseñanza del contenido a través de un segundo idioma indicando, además, que es necesaria una formación previa para el docente y más aún, una formación específica de futuros docentes para que aprendan a integrar correctamente sus conocimientos del idioma y el contenido en su praxis docente.

En este contexto, el enfoque AICLE se presenta como un modelo en el que el docente debe conocer el área que está impartiendo, así como tener competencia suficiente en un segundo idioma, es decir, la indisolubilidad del contenido y la lengua. La falta de equidad en esta ecuación ha supuesto (y supone) enormes dificultades en el programa, y no es desconocido el caso en el que el docente sabe abundantemente sobre su tema, pero no es bilingüe o, por el contrario, es excelente en un segundo idioma, pero no domina el contenido (Hillyard, 2011).

Además, desde el Marco Europeo para la Formación Docente en AICLE (Marsh et al., 2012), se requiere que el docente controle todas las vertientes:

“Teachers undertaking CLIL will need to be prepared to develop multiple types of expertise: among others, in the content subject; in a language; in best practice in teaching and learning; in the integration of the previous three; and, in the integration of CLIL within an educational institution” (Marsh et al., 2012: p. 5).

Por lo tanto, el enfoque AICLE pretende aunar estas pautas y hacer que el docente sea experto en todos los puntos de manera integrada. Aunque no existe una formación reglada como tal en esta área, al menos en España, se ha establecido una serie de competencias para el profesional de la docencia bilingüe. Bertaux, Coonan, Frigols & Mehisto (2010) ofrecen una serie de competencias necesarias para llegar a ser un buen docente de contenido en una segunda lengua. Integrar el contenido, la lengua y las destrezas; aplicar una metodología interactiva; evaluar y planificar tareas son algunas de las competencias que un docente AICLE ha de adquirir y aprender en su práctica (Bertaux et al., 2010). Otros autores como Dafouz, Llinares & Morton (2010) proponen ocho áreas de competencia para profesores AICLE: necesidades del estudiante, planificación, multimodalidad, interacción, lenguaje académico de las disciplinas, evaluación, cooperación y reflexión, y contexto y cultura.

En particular, se pretende que el docente integre una serie de competencias que lo capaciten para enseñar contenidos en una segunda lengua. En este sentido, es importante que el futuro docente esté inmerso totalmente en el aprendizaje de contenidos y lenguaje. A este respecto, Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010) ofrecen la estructura de las 4Cs en el modelo AICLE, en la que se explica la integración de la comunicación, el contenido y la cognición integrado en el concepto de cultura con el objetivo de mejorar el progreso y la mejora del aprendizaje en este modelo de educación bilingüe. Por tanto, la formación docente en este modelo es esencial para todos los profesionales y se compone de una serie compleja y extensa de competencias (Madrid Manrique & Madrid Fernández, 2014; Pérez Cañado, 2015). De acuerdo con Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe (2010, p. 496): “Teacher training for CLIL is therefore no simple matter since multilingualism is undeniably essential for intercultural communication, but so are decent surgeons and engineers, even if they are monolingual”. Por lo tanto, se trata de un entorno donde las competencias para la mejora del aprendizaje y la intercomunicación pueden jugar un papel verdaderamente relevante.

2.2.1. Importancia de la Reflexión en la Formación Inicial de Docentes AICLE

No solo el hecho de integrar una serie de competencias hace que el docente en formación mejore en su futura práctica educativa; una evaluación continua conducente hacia una reflexión sobre la integración personal de todas las habilidades necesarias para impartir enseñanza AICLE complementa el proceso de manera eficaz, tal como aparece en el Marco Europeo para la Formación Docente en AICLE (Marsh et al., 2012). En este marco, se defiende la importancia de integrar la evaluación en este entorno a fin de mejorar la práctica docente y, por ende, el aprendizaje del alumnado en contenido y lengua integrados. En este contexto, la evaluación del futuro docente está unida a un proceso reflexivo donde se debe aprender a analizar la propia práctica educativa con el fin de mejorarla. Además, dicha reflexión ayuda al docente a actuar de manera más crítica en su praxis porque hace que pueda discriminar los errores y las cualidades que lo definen como docente AICLE.

El proceso de reflexión de la práctica docente y la formación de los docentes está estrechamente relacionado. El origen de la formación de profesionales viene de la mano de Schön (1984), que plantea y define el concepto de *Reflective Practice* como la capacidad de reflexionar sobre las acciones contribuyendo a una mejora del aprendizaje y el desarrollo personal. Schön

plantea conceptos similares (por ejemplo, *Reflective teaching*) para explicar la importancia de la práctica educativa de los docentes (en ejercicio y en prácticas). En este sentido, hablamos de la relevancia que tiene reflexionar sobre la formación de los futuros docentes ante la integración de un modelo de enseñanza dual (AICLE). Escobar Urmeneta (2013) resalta la importancia de que el docente reflexione sobre la propia práctica con la finalidad de mejorar la enseñanza en AICLE; para Escobar, este proceso se consigue gracias a las grabaciones en vídeo de los docentes. De esta manera, es la herramienta de vídeo la que facilita la obtención de evidencias visuales procedentes de la práctica educativa de los docentes en formación. Como resultado, estas grabaciones se analizan y ofrecen al docente un proceso de reflexión con la finalidad de evaluar su práctica, proceso que se puede completar compartiendo la experiencia con otros compañeros.

2.3. El Vídeo como Herramienta para la Formación Inicial de los Docentes

Tradicionalmente se ha hecho uso del vídeo como técnica para la recogida de datos en las investigaciones y aún se sigue usando en este sentido. Poco a poco, el vídeo ha ido abriéndose camino y convirtiéndose en una herramienta didáctica (creación de contenido para complementar tareas o para añadir información), formativa (en la formación de profesionales de todas las áreas) y evaluativa (evaluaciones de tesis, presentaciones de proyectos etc.). En este sentido, este capítulo atiende al uso de esta herramienta en el ámbito de la formación docente, en concreto en la formación tanto de profesionales como de futuros docentes.

Trabajos e investigaciones han planteado la importancia de incorporar el vídeo para la ayuda en la formación docente. Ya sea para docentes que se insertan en la enseñanza bilingüe con un modelo AICLE como enseñanza monolingüe, se ha hecho visible el uso del vídeo para la mejora de la praxis docente. A continuación, presentamos en este capítulo aquellos estudios relevantes en cuanto al uso del vídeo como herramienta formativa: en primer lugar, en contextos donde no es visible la formación docente en un modelo AICLE y en segundo lugar en contextos AICLE.

2.3.1. Uso del Vídeo para la Formación Docente en Contextos bajo Modelo AICLE y no-AICLE

Es importante destacar aquellos estudios en los que el vídeo está presente como herramienta para la formación docente, aunque estén insertos en un modelo de enseñanza distinto a AICLE. Simplemente, estos estudios sirven para arrojar luz y ayudan a complementar el problema que presentamos en este capítulo en la sección anterior: la formación inicial de los docentes en AICLE.

La mayoría de los estudios que aquí se presentan, al menos los más relevantes, apoyan el vídeo como herramienta formativa ayudando al docente a mejorar en su práctica educativa. Por ejemplo, Beswick & Muir (2013) ofrecen la oportunidad a los futuros docentes de que analicen su práctica para mejorarla en su futuro ejercicio. Al igual que estos autores, Koc (2011) realiza clases simuladas con alumnado de Educación en las que tienen que aplicar sus conocimientos como docentes. En este estudio, el alumnado se graba y analiza todas las clases impartidas compartiendo con sus compañeros todas las experiencias donde reflexionan sobre la práctica docente. Al igual que (Koc, 2011; Schieble, Vetter & Meachman, 2015) ofrecen a los futuros docentes la posibilidad de analizar su práctica educativa mediante grabaciones en vídeo. Otros estudios como los de López (2013 y 2016) plantean modelos de análisis que ayudan al alumnado en formación inicial a estar más preparados antes de impartir una clase. Además, esta autora afirma que analizar el vídeo de una clase ayuda al futuro docente a conectar la teoría con la práctica. Igualmente, el hecho de realizar esa conexión implica que la formación inicial se

inicie desde un espacio reflexivo donde los futuros docentes aprendan a analizar su práctica de manera crítica. Es, por tanto, una habilidad que se debe desarrollar para que los docentes lleguen a ser profesionales reflexivos (Pulvvermacher & Lefstein, 2016).

Por otro lado, también existen investigaciones que reflejan la importancia del uso del vídeo tanto para investigar como para mejorar la formación de los docentes en contextos AICLE. Trabajos como los de Temirova & Westall (2015) han analizado distintas clases AICLE para examinar el uso del idioma. Otras investigaciones han apostado por la grabación y el análisis de clases que siguen el método AICLE (Cinganotto & Cuccurullo, 2015; Coral & Lleixá, 2016; De Graaff, Jan Koopman, Anikina & Westhoff, 2007). Tavares (2015) lleva a cabo un análisis de la clase AICLE para la mejora de la enseñanza en el área de matemáticas. El propósito principal de estos estudios es subrayar la importancia del aprendizaje de la práctica educativa gracias a la observación y análisis del curso de una clase que integran la enseñanza de la lengua y el contenido. Existen modelos como los de Coyle (2013) centrados específicamente en el análisis de la enseñanza: LOCIT (Lesson Observation and Critical Incident Technique). Este modelo ayuda al docente a analizar su práctica educativa en un entorno AICLE con el fin de mejorarla. En la misma línea, Cinganotto & Cuccurullo (2015) defienden el uso de vídeo-anotaciones para mejorar la formación docente en AICLE. Escobar Urmeneta (2013) explica cómo el uso del vídeo puede incentivar la reflexión del futuro docente sobre su práctica educativa.

En definitiva, el vídeo se muestra como una herramienta útil para la formación docente en espacios AICLE (De Graaff et al., 2007). Sin embargo, todas las investigaciones que relacionan el uso de esta herramienta con la formación docente en AICLE se centran normalmente en profesionales que están en ejercicio (exceptuando el estudio de caso realizado por Escobar Urmeneta en 2013 que está centrado en la formación inicial). Otras investigaciones no relacionadas con este modelo de enseñanza (AICLE) sí relacionan el vídeo con la formación inicial (Koc, 2011; Schieble, Vetter & Meachman, 2015). Como consecuencia, constatamos la necesidad de desarrollar investigaciones que se centren específicamente en el uso del vídeo para la formación del futuro docente AICLE.

Ya sea para la formación de docentes en entornos AICLE como en otros entornos que les forme para llegar a ser docentes profesionales, es importante integrar el proceso de reflexión de la enseñanza. Escobar Urmeneta (2013) afirma la importancia de reflexionar a través del uso del vídeo en AICLE. Igualmente, Beswick & Muir (2013) señalan que el análisis de la enseñanza ayuda a identificar errores en la práctica educativa. En este contexto, un espacio reflexivo se consigue gracias a la colaboración entre los miembros de la comunidad y más aún en el entorno AICLE, donde es necesario integrar el contenido y la lengua. De acuerdo con Horrillo Godino (2010), es importante que exista una estrecha colaboración entre profesores para la enseñanza en AICLE. Por lo tanto, el proceso de colaboración y el de reflexión están unidos para la enseñanza integrada del contenido y el lenguaje. Este proceso, unido al uso del vídeo, hace que los docentes en formación inicial se deban servir de herramientas de análisis que posibiliten la observación de manera reflexiva su propia práctica o la de otros profesionales. En efecto, hablamos de programas informáticos especializados en anotaciones en vídeo (*video-annotation tools*) que permiten analizar las grabaciones realizadas.

2.3.2. Vídeo-Anotaciones para la Mejora de la Praxis de Futuros Docentes

El uso de las anotaciones en vídeo ha tenido cierta repercusión en la formación de docentes tanto en la enseñanza con el modelo AICLE como en otros contextos de enseñanza. Rich & Hannafin (2009) realizaron una investigación donde comparaban diferentes herramientas de anotaciones en vídeo con la finalidad de poder aumentar y mejorar las experiencias de reflexión docente facilitando y estructurando el proceso de análisis. Además, propusieron una serie de pasos que habían de seguirse a la hora de elegir un programa de vídeo anotaciones adecuado

(Rich & Tripp, 2011). En este contexto, es viable presentar el uso de programas que ayudan al docente en su formación inicial a analizar su enseñanza de manera reflexiva, aspecto que está mejorando gracias a la variedad de programas existentes para analizar vídeos en el contexto educativo.

De esta manera, podemos afirmar que existe una estrecha relación entre el uso de programas para anotar en vídeo y la reflexión en espacios de formación del docente. Numerosos estudios demuestran el uso de las anotaciones en vídeo para la mejora de la práctica docente a través de la reflexión. Ellis, McFadden, Anwar & Roheris (2015), por ejemplo, presentan un trabajo en el que los docentes en formación inicial analizan su enseñanza mediante un programa específico para las vídeo-anotaciones (*VideoAnt*). Cebrián, Bartolomé, Cebrián-Robles & Ruiz (2015) presentan una herramienta más actual (*Open Video Annotation-OVA*) que utilizan para la evaluación de las prácticas de los estudiantes de educación. En la misma línea, Anderson, Kennedy-Clark & Galstaun (2012) hacen uso de las herramientas de anotaciones en vídeo para la evaluación de pares, así como para la reflexión de la práctica docente, enumerando así los diferentes usos de esta herramienta:

“Use of video annotation tools for collaborative peer review and self-reflection to effectively improve teaching practice: (a) Provide timely and specific training and support on both the technical knowledge of the tool and the pedagogy appropriate for specific curriculum teaching, (b) Ensure staff are trained to model the tool in the context of their curriculum area, and (c) Include a component of video-recorded micro teaching for peer review and self-reflection as part of pre-service teacher professional experience where critical reflection is standard graduate attribute or standard.” (Anderson, Kennedy-Clark & Galstaun, 2012, p. 9)

De manera similar, Picci, Calvani & Boniauti (2012) defienden que las vídeo-anotaciones sean un apoyo para que el docente reflexione sobre su práctica y pueda mejorarla sirviéndose de este tipo de herramientas.

A pesar de existir diferentes estudios que integran el uso de estos programas, son escasos aquellos en los que el modelo de enseñanza de AICLE está presente. Trabajos como los de Cinganotto & Cuccurullo (2015) plantean el uso de vídeo-anotaciones para la mejora de la formación docente en este contexto. Por otro lado, Escobar Urmeneta (2013) apoya la reflexión de los docentes mediante el uso del vídeo en formación inicial como componente crucial para la mejora de la práctica docente en un entorno AICLE. Por lo tanto, estamos hablando de un contexto en el que el estudiante tiene la capacidad de conocer cómo actúa en su práctica, añadiendo a ello la posibilidad de analizarla. A este respecto, si hablamos de un entorno AICLE, las anotaciones de vídeo pueden ayudar a que los docentes en formación inicial reflexionen sobre sus competencias como docentes AICLE. Por lo tanto, es importante que estos conozcan cómo es una clase en la cual se enseña el contenido y la lengua de manera adecuada. Además, las competencias no son el foco principal para llegar a ser un docente AICLE; influyen otras características, (como por ejemplo la identidad profesional, concepto que está emergiendo en la formación de docentes AICLE), que lo ayudan a identificarse como un docente capaz de enseñar un contenido específico a la vez que una segunda lengua.

2.3.3. El Vídeo para el Conocimiento y la Transformación de la Identidad Profesional del Futuro Docente AICLE

El concepto de identidad profesional docente es ciertamente relevante para la formación y el futuro ejercicio de los docentes en formación. Algunos estudios, como por ejemplo el de Pennington & Richards (2016), ofrecen una serie de características que ha de tener un docente para la enseñanza de una segunda lengua, entre ellas, la integración del contenido, así como

el conocimiento de una segunda lengua. Sin embargo, se necesita profundizar en las diferentes características de la identidad del docente AICLE y, más concretamente, en qué medida el uso del vídeo ayuda a la formación de la misma. Algunos estudios están arrojando luz al concepto de identidad profesional unido a la transformación de la misma gracias al apoyo de herramientas audiovisuales (Evnitskaya & Morton, 2011; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Morton, 2016). Sin embargo, entendemos que queda un interesante camino por explorar sobre cómo es la identidad del docente AICLE, y cómo el vídeo puede ayudar a construirla y transformarla.

Diferentes estudios apoyan el uso del vídeo para la formación de la identidad profesional. Cammarata & Tedick (2012) plantean la necesidad de transformar la identidad del docente generalista en un docente AICLE, proceso en el que es muy útil la creación de programas específicos para la formación en este contexto. Otros autores como Evnitskaya & Morton (2011) proponen la posibilidad de crear espacios en AICLE en el que los docentes en formación puedan reflexionar sobre la construcción de su identidad gracias a lo que estos definen como “Comunidades de Práctica”. Estas comunidades se ofrecen como espacios en los que los docentes en formación pueden compartir distintas experiencias. Más recientemente, Morton (2016) concluye que se ha de establecer una identidad específica del docente AICLE, proceso en el que este autor defiende que el uso del vídeo sirve de apoyo para la construcción de la identidad del docente AICLE.

Es interesante resaltar otros trabajos que, aunque no están inmersos en un contexto AICLE, ayudan a visualizar la importancia del concepto de la construcción de la identidad profesional de los docentes. Calandra, Brantley-Dias & Dias (2006) presentan una investigación donde se realizan grabaciones en vídeo de docentes en prácticas. En esta línea, plantean una conexión entre la reflexión y el conocimiento de la identidad docente. Igualmente, Maclean & White (2007) hacen uso del vídeo para la formación docente, donde el conocimiento y la formación de la identidad juega un papel principal en los futuros docentes. Por otra parte, Vetter & Schieble (2016) relacionan el uso del análisis del vídeo para la observación y transformación de las identidades de los docentes. Las evidencias anteriores muestran una clara relación entre el uso del vídeo con la formación docente y la construcción de la identidad profesional.

Es cierto que las referencias de los estudios sobre la construcción de la identidad del docente AICLE y la aplicación del vídeo o el análisis de vídeo es poco común. A pesar de que Morton (2016) ya presenta unas primeras líneas sobre la relación de los conceptos anteriormente mencionados en un entorno AICLE, es necesario que se investigue de manera más profunda en la relación existente entre el uso de esta herramienta para la formación inicial al igual que en la construcción de la identidad. Estudios como los de Vetter & Shieble (2016) han aportado a la literatura la importancia de trabajar la identidad en la formación docente a través del análisis de vídeo. En este sentido, el aporte de estos estudios dentro de un entorno AICLE podría enriquecer el estudio de la identidad profesional del futuro docente AICLE. Es en este período donde tienen la posibilidad de ir transformando su identidad. Por lo tanto, el vídeo ayuda a capturar su práctica docente ofreciendo la posibilidad de analizarla y reflexionar sobre la misma. De acuerdo con Evnitskaya & Morton (2011), el hecho de crear un espacio para la reflexión y la construcción de la identidad es importante para mejorar finalmente la práctica docente. En definitiva, se habla de una relación entre reflexión, vídeo e identidad del docente AICLE en el período de formación inicial.

2.4. Conclusiones

A lo largo de este capítulo hemos observado cómo el uso del vídeo y de programas especializados dedicados al análisis del mismo (vídeo- anotaciones) ayudan a los docentes en sus prácticas y/o formación inicial a reflexionar y mejorar en su práctica educativa. Asimismo, el objetivo de este trabajo ha sido reflexionar sobre el uso que se hace del vídeo en la formación inicial en

entornos AICLE. Un recorrido exhaustivo por los estudios que analizan el uso de herramientas audiovisuales en la formación inicial del docente tanto en contextos AICLE como en otros contextos de enseñanza ha sido el foco central de este capítulo.

En primer lugar, existen ciertas competencias que un docente AICLE ha de tener para permitir que el alumnado realmente aprenda tanto el contenido como una segunda lengua en contextos bilingües. Sin embargo, existen escasos programas específicos de formación universitaria que capaciten al alumnado y lo formen adecuadamente en este enfoque de programas duales. Por lo tanto, es necesario ampliar la oferta formativa y oficial de los futuros profesionales de la enseñanza bilingüe. A este respecto, es necesario capacitar al futuro docente con programas simulados en los que aprendan contenido y una segunda lengua de manera integrada, de manera que puedan aprender esta técnica para su futuro ejercicio como docentes AICLE.

Prestando atención al uso de herramientas como soporte didáctico y formativo podemos afirmar, tras la revisión de los estudios que se presentan en este capítulo, que el vídeo es una de las mejores herramientas para capturar la práctica educativa de aquellos docentes que están en formación. Igualmente, las anotaciones en vídeo junto con programas especializados también permiten realizar análisis exhaustivos de una clase AICLE. De este modo, las grabaciones son evidencias que sirven tanto para una investigación como para el propio docente en formación. En particular, y atendiendo al objetivo de este estudio, son las anotaciones en vídeo las más idóneas para que el docente reflexione sobre su práctica docente con el fin de enmendar errores y formarse de manera continua y eficaz gracias al análisis del vídeo de su propia praxis. Además, el hecho de grabar una clase AICLE permite ver y evaluar si verdaderamente ese docente en prácticas tiene las competencias necesarias para ser un profesor AICLE.

Por último, no solamente el uso del vídeo para la formación inicial debe quedarse en una mejora de la reflexión (y por ende de la práctica), sino que debe dar paso hacia conceptos más profundos y relevantes, como el de la identidad profesional. En este sentido, hablar sobre auto-reflexión como docente supone hablar de identidad, o de cómo un docente se siente y se observa a sí mismo en un ámbito real o simulado. En definitiva, se trata de un concepto que abarca inmensas peculiaridades pero que, sin duda, hace que el futuro docente AICLE se detenga a pensar si verdaderamente se siente como tal, algo sumamente importante. Unido a esto, el vídeo junto con un espacio que permita reflexionar sobre el recorrido en la formación inicial a través del análisis de las grabaciones, permiten que se hable de identidad en un período crítico, donde el docente pone en juego todas sus habilidades. Es en este período donde la persona se encuentra más receptiva en la transformación de su identidad profesional, pasando de ser alumno a docente, y de ser docente a ser un docente AICLE.

En resumen, el análisis sobre el uso del vídeo para la formación inicial en un entorno AICLE comprende conceptos como la reflexión sobre la propia práctica y el concepto de identidad profesional. Por este motivo, creemos que la realización de estudios que profundicen en el uso del vídeo en formación inicial de los docentes AICLE es ya una cuestión perentoria, tras las dos décadas de implementación del enfoque y la cantidad ingente de investigaciones que reclaman la identidad específica del docente AICLE (Morton, 2016). Asimismo, sería interesante proponer programas específicos en el período de formación de los docentes donde la construcción de la identidad sea clave para su transformación profesional.

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La Competencia Lingüística: un Estudio sobre su Desarrollo en el Alumnado de Educación Primaria

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Resumen

En este trabajo se presenta un estudio centrado en conocer el desarrollo de la Competencia en Comunicación Lingüística en Educación Primaria. Participaron un total de 343 estudiantes de 6º curso de Educación Primaria de Córdoba (España), procedentes de centros escolares públicos y concertados. Los resultados demuestran que, en general, el alumnado se siente muy competente en todas aquellas habilidades y destrezas relacionadas con la comunicación lingüística. Sin embargo, son las chicas las que valoran en mayor grado el desarrollo de esta competencia, sin apreciarse diferencias en función de la titularidad del centro escolar en el que desarrollan sus estudios. En definitiva, se deduce la necesidad de analizar en mayor profundidad el aprendizaje por competencias, con la intención de poder introducir cambios en el uso de métodos y recursos acordes a un proceso de enseñanza centrado en el alumnado y su propio proceso de aprendizaje.

3.1. Las competencias clave en Educación Primaria

De forma global, las publicaciones relativas a las Competencias Básicas han ido evolucionando en la última década. Los documentos iniciales tuvieron como principal objetivo su conceptualización a partir del informe DeSeCo (Definition and Selection of Competencies, OCDE, 2005) y la selección de aquellas competencias que debían estar integradas en el currículo oficial (Espinós, 2002; Moya Otero, 2007a). Posteriormente, la finalidad cambió en la necesidad de analizar cómo integrarlas en los proyectos de centros y programaciones, proponiendo metodologías de trabajo concretas (Casanova y Pérez, 2010; Mingorance y Calvo, 2013; Moya Otero y Luengo, 2011). Finalmente, los últimos trabajos se centran en la evaluación y el desarrollo de las competencias

dentro del marco curricular (Medina, Domínguez y Sánchez, 2013; Méndez, Sierra y Mañana, 2013).

Centrándonos en el contexto particular de Andalucía, la enseñanza en la Educación Primaria está determinada por el desarrollo de las competencias clave, que constituyen el currículo de esta etapa educativa a través de un enfoque interdisciplinar. Esta forma de abordar el aprendizaje facilita la realización de tareas relevantes, así como la resolución de problemas complejos en diferentes contextos, desde una perspectiva funcional, significativa y motivadora, teniendo en cuenta como elementos transversales en la formación del alumnado el respeto de los derechos humanos y los valores propios de una sociedad libre y democrática (Orden del 17 de marzo de 2015).

Según la Unión Europea (EACEA, 2012) la adquisición de competencias clave es fundamental para que los y las estudiantes alcancen su desarrollo personal, social y profesional, de la forma más adecuada a las demandas del contexto y de la sociedad actual en la que nos encontramos. El desarrollo económico, vinculado al conocimiento, es uno de los factores (Pepper, 2011). El carácter dinámico que se le confiere a las competencias está determinado por su adquisición y desarrollo, consistente en un proceso mediante el cual los individuos, a medida que las van poniendo en práctica, aumentan su nivel competencial. Según Silinskas, Lerkannen, Tolvanen, Niemi, Poikkeus y Nurmi (2012) el desarrollo de una competencia supone un conocimiento adquirido a través de la participación activa del alumnado en contextos formales y no formales. Este aprendizaje implica un abordaje en la formación integral del alumnado, desde las diversas instancias educativas y con una marcada proyección social y laboral a lo largo de toda su vida.

El Parlamento Europeo y el Consejo de Europa establecen unas recomendaciones para la inclusión de las competencias en el currículo, documento que ha constituido un claro referente para el diseño del currículo en el sistema educativo español.

Las Competencias Clave propuestas por el Consejo de Europa (Recomendaciones del Parlamento y el Consejo, 2006) son las siguientes:

- a. Comunicación en lengua materna.
- b. Comunicación en lenguas extranjeras.
- c. Competencia matemática y competencias básicas en ciencia y tecnología.
- d. Competencia digital.
- e. Aprender a aprender.
- f. Competencias interpersonales, interculturales y sociales, y competencia cívica.
- g. Espíritu de empresa.
- h. Expresión cultural.

Las Competencias Clave en Educación Primaria son las siguientes (LOE, 2006 y LOMCE, 2013):

1. Competencia en comunicación lingüística: que hace referencia a la habilidad para utilizar la lengua, de forma oral o escrita, expresando ideas e interactuando con los demás.
2. Competencia matemática: para aplicar el razonamiento matemático y resolver problemas de la vida cotidiana; competencias básicas en ciencia centradas en el desarrollo de habilidades para utilizar conocimientos y metodología científicos para explicar la realidad que nos rodea; y la capacidad tecnológica para aplicar estos conocimientos y métodos según las necesidades humanas.
3. Competencia digital: imprime la habilidad para obtener, analizar, producir e intercambiar información, a través del uso adecuado de las TIC.

4. Competencia para aprender a aprender: implica el desarrollo de la capacidad para que el alumno inicie y perpetúe su aprendizaje, organice y gestione su trabajo y su tiempo y sea capaz de conseguir los objetivos previstos, ya sea de forma individual o en grupo.
5. Competencias sociales y cívicas: esta competencia, hace referencia a la capacidad del alumno/a para relacionarse y participar de forma activa en la sociedad.
6. Sentido de iniciativa y el espíritu emprendedor: supone la habilidad convertir las ideas en hechos y desarrollar la capacidad para crear, planificar y gestionar proyectos y asumir riesgos.
7. Conciencia y expresiones culturales: confiere el desarrollo de la sensibilidad por la expresión del arte, la música, la literatura y las artes escénicas en general.

Coincidimos con Pérez Esteve (2008) en que un currículo orientado hacia el logro de las competencias básicas supone que todas las áreas o materias han de propiciar su desarrollo y adquisición. La primera de ellas, la que se sitúa en la base de todos los aprendizajes, es la competencia en comunicación lingüística. En España se procedió a fundir las competencias relativas a la comunicación lingüística de Europa (lengua materna y lengua extranjera) en una sola, dada la realidad plurilingüe de España y la imposibilidad de diferenciar solamente entre lengua materna y extranjera (Tiana Ferrer, 2011).

3.2. La Competencia en Comunicación Lingüística (CCL)

Desde la segunda mitad del siglo XX, nos encontramos en un continuo proceso de globalización que nos obliga a superar nuevos retos como consecuencia de la desaparición de fronteras entre los diferentes países, a nivel social y cultural.

Por ello, desde la educación cada vez se hace más necesario dar una respuesta, dotando a los ciudadanos de instrumentos para desarrollar competencias que les permitan relacionarse y adaptarse a una sociedad en continuo progreso, interdependiente y global (Bolívar, 2008). En este contexto pluricultural y plurilingüe, el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras adquiere gran notabilidad ya que la comunicación es uno de los requisitos fundamentales para poder desenvolverse e integrarse en la sociedad.

A lo largo de los últimos años, la Unión Europea (OCDE, 2005) ha reconocido esta necesidad iniciando numerosas actuaciones dirigidas a conseguir el conocimiento de dos idiomas como mínimo, además de la lengua materna. En el sistema educativo español, se otorga especial atención a la capacitación para la comunicación en una o más lenguas extranjeras considerando la importancia del multilingüismo como factor determinante en la competitividad de los estados miembros.

La CCL promueve la utilización del lenguaje como instrumento de comunicación oral y escrita, de representación, interpretación y comprensión de la realidad, de construcción y comunicación del conocimiento y de organización y autorregulación del pensamiento, las emociones y la conducta (Bolívar y Moya Otero, 2007; Luengo y Bazo, 2004).

Según Delors (1996) todo esto se explicita en los tres saberes de la educación:

- Conocimientos (*saber*): Conocimientos lingüísticos, textuales y discursivos; reflexión sobre los elementos lingüísticos que contribuyen en el uso del lenguaje, intención comunicativa estructuras lingüísticas y características.
- Saber hacer (*destrezas*): habilidades para hacer uso de estos conocimientos en situaciones y tareas comunicativas.

- Actitudes (*saber ser*): saber escuchar, emitir opiniones, contrastarlas con las de otros, respetarlas y tenerlas en cuenta.

En la CCL podemos destacar la interacción de los siguientes componentes (Guarneros Reyes y Vega Pérez, 2014):

- El componente lingüístico que comprende diversas dimensiones: la léxica, la gramatical, la semántica, la fonológica, la ortográfica y la ortoépica.
- El componente pragmático-discursivo contempla tres dimensiones: la sociolingüística, la pragmática y la discursiva.
- El componente socio-cultural incluye dos dimensiones: la que se refiere al conocimiento del mundo y a la dimensión intercultural.
- El componente estratégico permite al individuo superar las dificultades y resolver los problemas que surgen en el acto comunicativo. Incluye tanto destrezas y estrategias comunicativas para la lectura, la escritura, el habla, la escucha y la conversación, como destrezas vinculadas con el tratamiento de la información, la lectura multimodal y la producción de textos electrónicos en diferentes formatos; asimismo, también forman parte de este componente las estrategias generales de carácter cognitivo, metacognitivo y socioafectivo que el individuo utiliza para comunicarse eficazmente, aspectos fundamentales en el aprendizaje de las lenguas extranjeras.
- Y por último, la CCL incluye un componente personal que interviene en las siguientes dimensiones: la actitud, la motivación y los rasgos de personalidad.

El diseño curricular de la etapa de Educación Primaria fomenta un tratamiento holístico de los contenidos en el que el desarrollo de las competencias no está vinculado a una materia o asignatura concreta, sino que se intentan integrar en mayor o menor medida de forma transversal a todas ellas (Bronfenbrenner, 1987). Así, por ejemplo, el proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje en el área de Lengua Castellana supera el abordaje de contenidos específicos de esta disciplina y se encuentra integrada en el desarrollo de la CCL.

Por otro lado, es importante destacar que la capacidad para comunicarse de forma eficaz, precisa también del conocimiento y control de códigos sociales y culturales que intervienen en las comunicaciones, así como un dominio pragmático, centrado en el uso de la lengua en su propio contexto (Del Moral, Villalustre y Neira, 2017). Por ello, uno de los ejes centrales de la CCL es la llamada competencia intercultural. El aprendizaje de la lengua y la cultura deben ser simultáneo y cuanto antes se comience, mayor arraigo tendrá en una persona que inevitablemente se ve involucrada en una sociedad multilingüe y multicultural (Rico y Nikleva, 2017). Asimismo, el estudio de Barna, Androne y Dobrota (2012) en Rumania demostró que el 75% del alumnado de octavo grado no se consideraba capaz de interactuar lingüística y creativamente en varias situaciones sociales y culturales.

Por su parte, la investigación de Silinskas et al. (2012) en Finlandia sobre el desarrollo de la CCL reveló que las niñas conseguían mejores resultados en destrezas de lectura y pre-lectura en Educación Primaria (Del Moral, Villalustre y Neira, 2017).

Teniendo en cuenta lo anterior, en este trabajo presentamos los resultados obtenidos, desde la opinión del alumnado de Educación Primaria, sobre su capacidad en diferentes habilidades o destrezas relacionadas con la CCL. Numerosas investigaciones (Moya Otero, 2007b; González Nieto y Zayas Hernando, 2008) demuestran la importante contribución de esta competencia en el desarrollo de otras competencias básicas, porque capacita al alumnado para interactuar lingüísticamente de forma adecuada y en distintos contextos comunicativos.

3.3. Método

3.3.1. Objetivos

El objetivo fundamental de esta investigación se centra en evaluar el desarrollo de las competencias básicas, establecidas por la orden del 10 de agosto de 2008, para el alumnado de 6º curso de la etapa de Educación Primaria en la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía. Para ello, se analizan las respuestas, que desde la reflexión y el autoanálisis, emite el alumnado. Como objetivos específicos nos planteamos los siguientes:

1. Evaluar el desarrollo de la Competencia en Comunicación Lingüística desde la percepción del alumnado.
2. Analizar cuáles son los descriptores más y menos valorados desde la opinión del alumnado y que están relacionados con el desarrollo de la competencia en comunicación lingüística.
3. Comprobar si existen diferencias significativas en función del género y la titularidad del centro de procedencia (pública o concertada).

3.3.2. Muestra

La muestra estuvo compuesta por el alumnado de 6º curso de Educación Primaria de centros escolares de Córdoba capital de diferente titularidad, pública (61.4%) y concertada (38.6%). Participaron un total de 343 alumnos y alumnas, de los cuales un 48.2% eran chicos y un 51.8% chicas, con una edad media de 11 años.

3.3.3. Instrumento

Se elaboró un cuestionario estructurado en 8 dimensiones, coincidiendo con las competencias básicas de la etapa de Educación Primaria y con un total de 82 ítems: comunicación lingüística (15 ítems); competencia matemática (12 ítems); conocimiento e interacción con el mundo físico (10 ítems); tratamiento de la información y competencia digital (17 ítems); competencia social y ciudadana (7 ítems); competencia cultural y artística (7 ítems); competencia para aprender a aprender (8 ítems), y autonomía e iniciativa personal (6 ítems). La respuesta a los ítems se presenta en una escala tipo Likert con puntuaciones que oscilan desde “1” (Poco) a “5” (Excelente). En este estudio solo se presentan los resultados relacionados con la Competencia en Comunicación Lingüística (CCL).

El análisis de consistencia interna de la escala arrojó un alfa de Cronbach de .964 para el conjunto de la escala y .828 para la CCL.

3.3.4. Procedimiento

Se utilizó SPSS 22.0 para realizar análisis estadísticos de corte descriptivo y comparativo. Para obtener una visión global sobre las percepciones del alumnado, se estudiaron las medias y sus respectivas desviaciones típicas. Posteriormente, se utilizó la prueba *t* para muestras independientes para comprobar la existencia de diferencias significativas entre las puntuaciones medias de ambos grupos (género femenino y masculino) y para el tipo de centro (público y concertado).

Se aplicó la prueba de Levene como criterio para asumir si las varianzas eran iguales o no. El nivel de confianza aplicado ha sido del 99% ($p < .01$) y 95% ($p < .05$), dependiendo de los casos.

3.4. Resultados

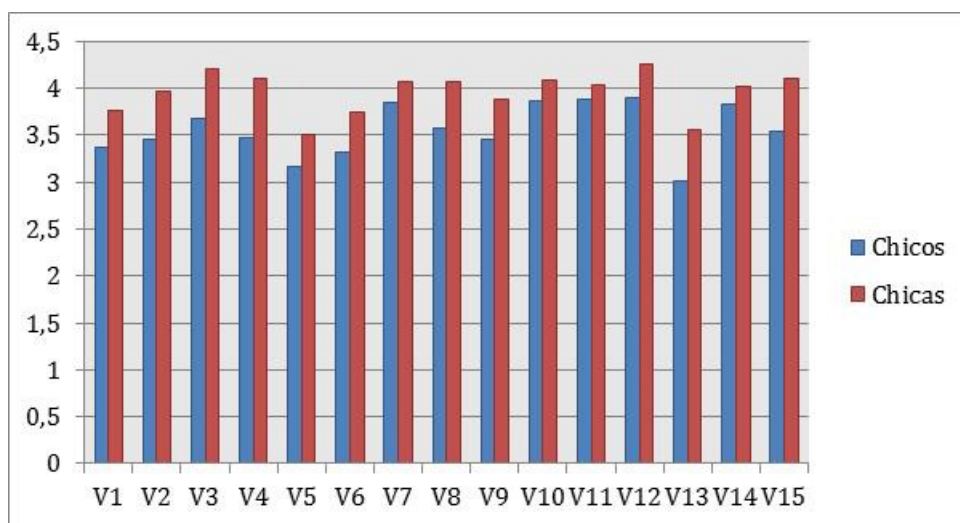
En la Tabla 3.1 se muestran los resultados obtenidos en relación al desarrollo de la CCL. En general, los resultados obtenidos en todas las variables se sitúan por encima de la media de la escala. Los ítems mejor valorados por el alumnado son los que hacen referencia a su capacidad para escribir diferentes textos de forma correcta, tanto en papel como en el ordenador (4.08); a la capacidad de responder a las preguntas después de haber leído un texto, y decir cuáles son las ideas principales (3.98); a ser capaz de entender el contenido de un texto ya sea leído o escuchado (3.96), y a la capacidad para usar el lenguaje para defender sus ideas ante los demás con un 3.95. En contraposición, el alumnado se siente menos capaz de escribir sin cometer faltas de expresión ni de ortografía (3.29), y menos competente para comunicarse con otras personas de diferentes idiomas y culturas (3.34).

TABLA 3.1. Competencia en Comunicación Lingüística (CCL)

Variables	M	Sd
1. Uso el lenguaje para organizar mis ideas y enlazarlas entre sí.	3.58	1.13
2. Uso el lenguaje para expresar mis sentimientos y emociones.	3.72	1.23
3. Uso el lenguaje para defender mis ideas ante los demás.	3.95	1.17
4. Cuando hablo ordeno mis ideas, escucho, respeto el turno de palabra, miro a los demás.	3.80	1.05
5. Soy capaz de comunicarme con otras personas de distintas culturas e idiomas.	3.34	1.35
6. Uso el lenguaje para evitar la discriminación sexista y las discusiones.	3.54	1.31
7. Cuando leo o escucho un texto, me entero de todo el contenido.	3.96	.93
8. Soy capaz de usar un lenguaje distinto dependiendo del lugar en el que estoy (colegio, casa, cumpleaños, supermercado...)	3.83	1.36
9. Puedo comunicarme con distintas personas sin tener que hablar: con gestos, miradas, postura corporal...	3.67	1.26
10. Soy capaz de responder a las preguntas que me hacen después de haber leído un texto y de decir cuáles son las ideas principales.	3.98	1.05
11. Soy capaz de distinguir un chiste, un doble sentido, una ironía, etc.	3.97	1.14
12. Soy capaz de escribir diferentes textos de forma correcta tanto en papel como en el ordenador.	4.08	1.02
13. Soy capaz de escribir sin cometer faltas de expresión ni de ortografía.	3.29	1.22
14. Soy capaz de distinguir en una frase el sujeto y el predicado, los verbos, los adjetivos, adverbios, preposiciones, etc.	3.92	1.11
15. Me gusta leer libros.	3.83	1.33

En relación al género (Figura 3.1), en general las chicas se sienten más competentes en todas las variables relacionadas con la comunicación lingüística. Si comparamos las medias encontramos diferencias significativas en las siguientes variables 4, 13 y 15. En la comunicación con los demás, son las chicas las que se sienten más capaces de ordenar sus ideas al hablar, respetar el turno del otro y mantener el contacto visual ($F=4.11$; $M=3.48$). Igualmente, a la hora de escribir sin cometer faltas de expresión ni de ortografía ($F=4.25$; $M=3.90$) las chicas se sienten más capaces y en el gusto por la lectura también son las chicas las que puntúan con valores más altos.

FIGURA 3.1. Comparación de medias entre grupos



La prueba “t” de Students para muestras independientes arrojó diferencias significativas en función del género en los siguientes ítems: (V4): “*Cuando hablo ordeno mis ideas, escucho, respeto el turno de palabra, miro a los demás*” ($t_{343} = -2.220$, $p < .05$); (V5): “*Soy capaz de comunicarme con otras personas de distintas culturas e idiomas*” ($t_{343} = -3.028$, $p < .05$); (V7): “*Cuando leo o escucho un texto, me entero de todo el contenido*” ($t_{343} = -3.419$, $p < .05$); (V9): “*Puedo comunicarme con distintas personas sin tener que hablar: con gestos, miradas, postura corporal,...*” ($t_{343} = -1.918$, $p < .05$); (V10): “*Soy capaz de responder a las preguntas que me hacen después de haber leído un texto y de decir cuáles son las ideas principales*” ($t_{343} = -3.163$, $p < .05$) y (V11): “*Soy capaz de distinguir un chiste, un doble sentido, una ironía, etc.*” ($t_{343} = -4.340$, $p < .05$).

En relación al tipo de Centro (Tabla 4.2), de titularidad pública o concertada, encontramos los siguientes resultados: en primer lugar, observamos que los valores de las medias entre los dos grupos se encuentran muy igualados.

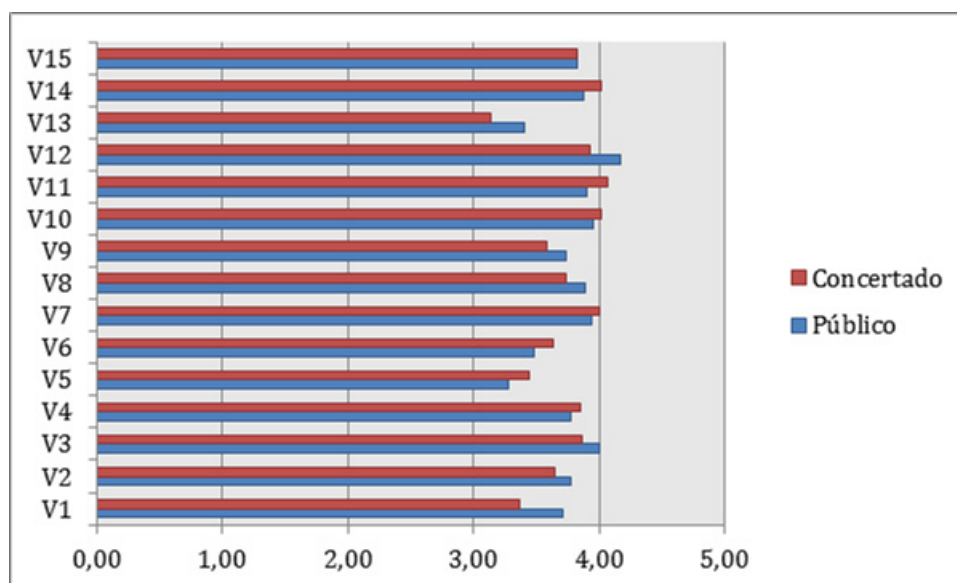
TABLA 3.2. Estadísticos descriptivos en función del tipo de centro

Variables	Público	Concertado
1. Uso el lenguaje para organizar mis ideas y enlazarlas entre sí.	3.71	3.37
2. Uso el lenguaje para expresar mis sentimientos y emociones.	3.77	3.64
3. Uso el lenguaje para defender mis ideas ante los demás.	4.0	3.86
4. Cuando hablo ordeno mis ideas, escucho, respeto el turno de palabra, miro a los demás.	3.77	3.85
5. Soy capaz de comunicarme con otras personas de distintas culturas e idiomas.	3.28	3.44
6. Uso el lenguaje para evitar la discriminación sexista y las discusiones.	3.48	3.63
7. Cuando leo o escucho un texto, me entero de todo el contenido.	3.94	4.0
8. Soy capaz de usar un lenguaje distinto dependiendo del lugar en el que estoy (colegio, casa, cumpleaños, supermercado...).	3.89	3.74

9. Puedo comunicarme con distintas personas sin tener que hablar: con gestos, miradas, postura corporal...	3.73	3.58
10. Soy capaz de responder a las preguntas que me hacen después de haber leído un texto y de decir cuáles son las ideas principales.	3.95	4.02
11. Soy capaz de distinguir un chiste, un doble sentido, una ironía, etc.	3.9	4.07
12. Soy capaz de escribir diferentes textos de forma correcta tanto en papel como en el ordenador.	4.17	3.93
13. Soy capaz de escribir sin cometer faltas de expresión ni de ortografía.	3.4	3.13
14. Soy capaz de distinguir en una frase el sujeto y el predicado, los verbos, los adjetivos, adverbios, preposiciones, etc.	3.87	4.02
15. Me gusta leer libros.	3.82	3.83

Sin embargo, en la Figura 3.2 podemos observar que son los ítems (V1) “*Uso el lenguaje para organizar mis ideas y enlazarlas entre sí*”; (V12) “*Soy capaz de escribir diferentes textos de forma correcta tanto en papel como en el ordenador*” y (V13) “*Soy capaz de escribir sin cometer faltas de expresión ni de ortografía*” los que puntúan más alto, ocurriendo a favor de los centros de titularidad pública.

FIGURA 3.2. Comparación de medias en función del tipo de centro



El gusto por la lectura de libros (V15) es la variable en la que ambos grupos se encuentran muy igualados: los centros públicos con $M=3.82$ y los concertados con $M=3.83$ en contraposición con el (V1), en el que el alumnado de los centros públicos se percibe más capacitado para usar el lenguaje para organizar sus ideas y enlazarlas entre sí que el alumnado de los centros concertados.

Para comprobar si persisten estas diferencias en función del tipo de Centro, la prueba “t” de Students nos muestra que existen diferencias significativas a favor del alumnado de los centros públicos en los ítems, (V6) “*Uso el lenguaje para evitar la discriminación sexista y las discusiones*” ($t_{343} = -1.065$, $p < .05$) y (V9) “*Puedo comunicarme con distintas personas sin tener*

que hablar: con gestos, miradas, postura corporal,...” ($t_{343} = 1.047$, $p < .05$). En el ítem (V12) “Soy capaz de escribir diferentes textos de forma correcta tanto en papel como en el ordenador” ($t_{343} = 2.055$, $p < .05$), son los alumnos y alumnas de los centros concertados los que se sienten más capacitados.

3.5. Discusión y Conclusión

En esta investigación, hemos comprobado cómo el alumnado de sexto de Educación Primaria de Córdoba es capaz de percibir su mayor o menor capacitación en diferentes aspectos que integran la CCL y, en concreto, manifestar que su formación, en aspectos relacionados con esta competencia, es bastante buena. No obstante, este grado de capacitación queda condicionado, como se ha comprobado, por factores asociados al género (Silinskas et al., 2012).

La diferencia de género a favor de las chicas en esta competencia correlaciona con otros estudios anteriores (Shaw, 2001; Swann, 1992) y con las teorías del desarrollo lingüístico. Estudios sobre lenguaje y género (Jiménez, 2010) han demostrado la influencia que tiene el género en el aprendizaje y en el uso de habilidades lingüísticas. Según esta autora, la adquisición de lenguas extranjeras está influida por factores sociales (p.e. grado de exposición a la lengua extranjera) y afectivos (motivación, ansiedad o estrategias de aprendizaje, entre otros) relacionados con el género.

El tipo de centro en el que se encuentra escolarizado el alumnado también influye en el desarrollo de la CCL. Igualmente, el centro está asociado al contexto y determina el modelo de familia y las características del alumnado. Las diferencias entre un centro de titularidad pública o concertada no son significativas hasta el momento en el que pueda repercutir en aspectos fundamentales como por ejemplo, el proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje.

El alumnado percibe que se siente bastante capacitado para escribir textos, tanto en formato papel como en ordenador. En los últimos años, con las evaluaciones externas, se han incrementado los métodos de aprendizaje y los recursos didácticos centrados en la lectura y la escritura, sobre todo en la etapa de Educación Primaria, para acometer los resultados tan poco satisfactorios obtenidos por nuestra comunidad en dichas pruebas. Igualmente, el uso de las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación (TIC) también se ha extendido de forma notable en nuestro país; en algunos centros escolares la *tablet* ha sustituido en gran parte a la metodología tradicional, cuyo recurso didáctico fundamental ha sido siempre el libro de texto. Todo esto contribuye a que el alumnado desarrolle de un modo más eficaz las competencias relacionadas con este tipo de habilidades.

En relación a que el alumnado, en general, se considere menos capacitado para comunicarse con otras personas de diferentes culturas y que hablen en otro idioma manifiesta el reto que mantiene nuestro sistema educativo ante el aprendizaje de una segunda y una tercera lengua. Este aspecto no solo está relacionado con el aprendizaje del alumnado ante la necesidad de formar ciudadanos capaces de desenvolverse en un mundo global, sino también desde la perspectiva de la formación del profesorado, al que se le exige estar preparado para atender a la diversidad que se presenta hoy en día en las aulas, consistente en alumnos y alumnas de diferente nacionalidad, cultura e idioma.

Conscientes de las dificultades a las que actualmente se enfrenta el profesorado de Educación Primaria, preocupado por cumplir con las exigencias curriculares vigentes, hemos pretendido en este trabajo aportar una visión sobre el desarrollo de la CCL desde la opinión del alumnado. Así pues, en consonancia con las nuevas demandas emanadas de las reformas legislativas educativas en el contexto de convergencia europea, se ha partido de una problemática inicial de adaptación a nuevos procesos de enseñanza aprendizaje, añadiendo a ello la presencia de alumnado extranjero con lenguas y/o culturas diferentes.

Por otro lado, como apuntaban Rico y Nikleva (2017) el desarrollo de la competencia intercultural debe ir asociado al desarrollo de la competencia lingüística en la medida en que nos encontramos en un contexto multilingüe y multicultural; sin embargo, según los datos obtenidos en esta investigación, el alumnado manifiesta una dificultad para comunicarse con personas de diferentes culturas e idiomas (Barna, Androne y Dobrota, 2012).

En general, la puesta en marcha de las competencias en nuestro país durante los últimos años ha estado asociada a la necesidad de transformar la formación inicial del profesorado (Gairín, 2011), la forma de enseñar y de aprender del alumnado, estableciendo un proceso que permita disponer de docentes mejor preparados y capacitados para la educación del siglo XXI. Ante esta realidad los futuros y las futuras docentes demandan una formación que dé respuesta a sus necesidades como profesionales de la educación y que los cualifique para realizar estas tareas, dotándolos de las herramientas necesarias para poder enseñar en esta etapa educativa y para reflexionar sobre todos los aspectos que pueden ayudarles a mejorar el desarrollo de la profesionalidad docente (Perrenoud, 2010). Es evidente que las competencias profesionales deseables no se pueden desarrollar en el marco de un modelo de formación inicial breve y limitado, sino que requieren de un buen periodo de tiempo para poder sembrar ideas, madurar y reflexionar sobre la práctica docente (Marcelo, 2011).

Pero no solo el profesorado está comprometido con esta labor, sino que la institución escolar en general está implicada en su proceso. Además, todo el profesorado de la etapa educativa, sea docente de una materia u otra, tiene la responsabilidad de cooperar en el desarrollo de estas competencias y no solo el maestro de lengua castellana o lengua extranjera. Se debe garantizar la comprensión y la expresión correcta del alumnado en cada campo de conocimiento y en cada contexto, además de fomentar el uso del diálogo en la construcción del conocimiento y el desarrollo de las habilidades cognitivo-lingüísticas.

Finalmente, debemos señalar que los resultados del estudio deben ser tomados con cautela debido a sus posibles limitaciones, relacionadas con el tamaño de la muestra y la naturaleza del instrumento de recogida. Sin embargo, a pesar de tales limitaciones, consideramos que la información aportada en esta investigación puede servir de base para desarrollar en el futuro análisis más complejos y procesos de investigación más minuciosos en torno a las expectativas y al desarrollo de la CCL en el alumnado de Educación Primaria.

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Evolución e Innovación de la Enseñanza Bilingüe: Metodologías y Recursos

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Resumen

Este artículo intenta dar una visión panorámica de la evolución y la situación actual de la enseñanza de idiomas y los programas bilingües en España con la intención de aportar luz, informar y apoyar desde diferentes ámbitos la tarea cotidiana y la formación de nuestros docentes. Se analiza la situación desde distintos ángulos que convergen en un mismo objetivo: la mejora de la calidad educativa. Por un lado, se ofrece una visión de lo que puede ser una metodología eficaz e innovadora en un aspecto clave: las destrezas de expresión oral y la lectura a través de la tutoría entre iguales. Y por otro, se ofrecen referencias prácticas sobre las actuaciones que el Gobierno, concretamente desde el Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, ha puesto en marcha para apoyar la formación continua del profesorado de idiomas o de AICLE en la aplicación de las nuevas metodologías.

4.1. Introducción

La enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras y los programas bilingües o plurilingües han constituido una punta de lanza en los cambios sustanciales que se han experimentado en el escenario y el espíritu de la educación en España durante las últimas décadas.

Desde principios de 1990, las instituciones europeas han influido notablemente en la planificación de políticas lingüísticas en España.

La publicación del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas (2001) supuso el inicio de un profundo replanteamiento a nivel político, lingüístico y metodológico. En España, la Ley de Educación de 2003 (Capítulo VII, art. 59 a 62) ya aplicó los niveles de referencia en la definición de los niveles de certificación oficial del sistema educativo. Las Escuelas Oficiales de Idiomas (EEOOI) iniciaron inmediatamente la adaptación del currículo, los cambios en las pruebas de certificación y la equiparación de los niveles entonces existentes con los del Marco.

Además del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia, en los años sucesivos se fueron desarrollando diversos documentos y herramientas, como el Portfolio y el Manual de Equivalencias de Exámenes. Los países europeos han ido asumiendo de forma paulatina los principios y criterios emanados del Consejo de Europa.

Posteriormente, se ha trabajado de forma conjunta y se han ido elaborando recomendaciones que inciden, particularmente, en el papel clave del aprendizaje de las lenguas extranjeras para el desarrollo social y económico de Europa, como “The Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training” (ET2020); “Rethinking Education” (2012), “Study on Foreign Language Proficiency and Employability Final Report” (2016), entre otros.

Dentro de este marco normativo y teórico, los programas bilingües en inglés han sufrido un crecimiento exponencial en la oferta educativa en España. Estos programas han dejado de ser un coto de instrucción para un sector privilegiado y se han “democratizado”. Hoy en día, el sector público de la enseñanza garantiza el acceso, casi general, a estudios de todos los niveles en programas bilingües, bien es cierto que con resultados irregulares pero que, sin duda, van mejorando en su conjunto.

4.2. El Cambio Metodológico en la Enseñanza de las Lenguas

Desde finales de los años 90, las universidades y las administraciones estatales y las autonómicas se hicieron eco de las recomendaciones europeas. Han sido numerosos los congresos, publicaciones y reuniones sobre esta nueva escala de referencia y sus implicaciones en la reconceptualización de la competencia lingüística y de su enseñanza, aprendizaje y evaluación. En una primera fase, se trataba de afrontar el reto de darle forma a estos cambios, dentro de los ámbitos institucionales, académicos y administrativos.

El impacto de las nuevas políticas educativas transformó las programaciones de los contenidos lingüísticos y su secuenciación, en algunos casos, en un plazo de tiempo más extendido de lo que cabría esperar. De hecho, la enseñanza y evaluación del nivel C del Marco Europeo está en distinta fase de aplicación e implementación en las EEOOI de las diferentes comunidades autónomas.

En una última fase, los cambios metodológicos se han ido desarrollando e incorporando a la enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras y en los programas bilingües de forma más paulatina y como resultado de la investigación. Esta secuencia de factores es, no obstante, la lógica: una vez que se consolidan las políticas educativas, se desarrollan los aspectos lingüísticos y, por último, se establecen los criterios pedagógicos y metodológicos (Corder, 1992).

Estos cambios comparecen en las aulas junto a otros factores de gran importancia como la universalización de las nuevas tecnologías y las comunicaciones en una sociedad que se debate ante no pocos retos, como los procesos migratorios de masas, la inclusión social o un mercado de trabajo en constante cambio. Todos estos elementos han dado a los procesos educativos, y muy señaladamente al aprendizaje de idiomas, un papel preponderante. Por un lado, por la especial dificultad que requiere una formación del profesorado adecuada y, por otro lado, porque es un medio fundamental para proporcionar a la población acceso al conocimiento, es

un recurso muy eficaz para generar justicia social, cohesión y empleabilidad y porque promueve la conciencia y el respeto por la diversidad cultural y lingüística.

Para llevar a cabo las propuestas que desde el ámbito político y lingüístico se han ido pautando, el profesorado ha trabajado constante y eficazmente en dos frentes: en mejorar su competencia técnica y lingüística y en conocer e implementar nuevas metodologías que requieren una reformulación profunda del enfoque docente tradicional.

La enseñanza de idiomas, de ser tradicionalmente muy académica y desproporcionadamente dedicada a la regulación gramatical, cobra una naturaleza práctica y requiere que el aprendizaje proporcione una competencia comunicativa efectiva: que incorpore la capacidad comunicativa interpersonal y la conceptualización académica de carácter formal (BICS-CALP, según Cummings, 1984).

Por otro lado, no debemos olvidar que en los programas bilingües, el profesorado de asignaturas no lingüísticas debe familiarizarse y dominar no solamente la lengua extranjera, sino también los principios básicos de CLIL (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*).

En estas circunstancias, se difunden metodologías que abogan por trasladar el protagonismo del proceso de aprendizaje a los propios estudiantes, fomentar el pensamiento crítico y el aprendizaje basado en proyectos y colaborativo.

4.2.1. Innovación Pedagógica e Investigación Aplicada: la Tutoría entre Iguales como Herramienta de Apoyo al Cambio

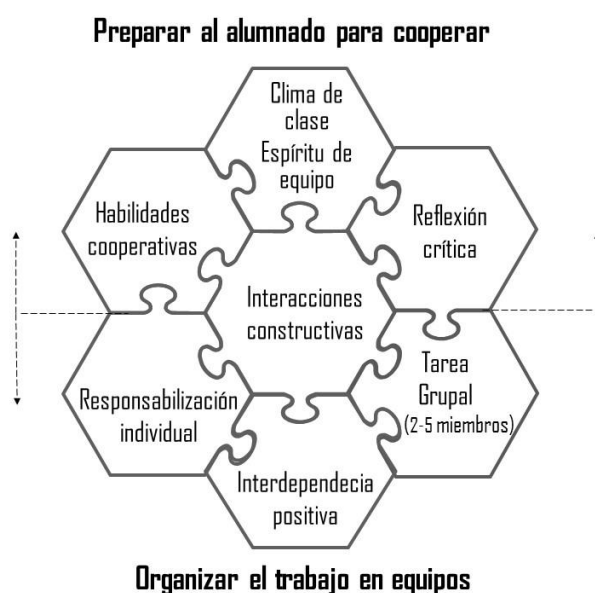
El cambio metodológico en el aula que se requiere es tan necesario como complicado. Aspiramos a que docentes y alumnos compartan la responsabilidad del proceso educativo, a que el alumnado tenga voz en las decisiones que le incumben, y a que su capacidad crítica y reflexiva sea puesta en práctica en el día a día del aula. Es importante que mantengamos estas metas claras, pero al mismo tiempo hemos de observar de manera objetiva en qué punto del proceso nos encontramos para así poder buscar herramientas que nos permitan avanzar.

No es fácil conseguir este gran cambio de la cultura escolar, pues tanto docentes como alumnos a menudo quedan enquistados en sus roles tradicionales. Por ejemplo, uno de los grandes retos para los docentes de hoy en día es la gestión de la participación activa del alumnado, especialmente cuando nos referimos a la participación oral en segundas lenguas. Para aprender un idioma hemos de hablarlo, pero los alumnos no están acostumbrados a participar activamente en el aula y muchos experimentan una gran dificultad para hablar frente al grupo. Además, los docentes que organizan su clase de modo tradicional solo pueden dedicar un tiempo limitado a cada alumno para que se exprese frente a todo el grupo. Sin embargo, existen alternativas a esta organización del aula que pueden potenciar el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua notablemente. Una de estas estrategias pedagógicas es el aprendizaje cooperativo, definido por Lehraus y Buchs (2008, p. 160) como “trabajo en grupo estructurado por el docente para asegurar tanto un buen funcionamiento del equipo a nivel social como un trabajo cognitivo profundo y eficaz gracias a las interacciones entre los participantes”.

Una gran cantidad de investigaciones respaldan la utilidad del aprendizaje cooperativo (Hattie, 2008; Johnson, Johnson, Roseth y Shin, 2014), pero los datos también muestran una gran variabilidad en los resultados, ligada a la calidad de las implementaciones. El aprendizaje cooperativo va mucho más allá de “poner a los estudiantes a trabajar en grupo”; una planificación cuidadosa de las interacciones en grupo es esencial para obtener buenos resultados. Siguiendo a Buchs (2017) resumimos esta óptima planificación de las actividades en dos grandes bloques (ver Figura 1). Por un lado, el docente ha de *preparar al alumnado para la cooperación*, y para

ello es necesario que los docentes planifiquen el trabajo explícito de tres principios: (1) las habilidades cooperativas, (2) el clima de clase y el espíritu de equipo, y (3) la reflexión crítica, es decir, la capacidad y la costumbre de observar y evaluar constructivamente las interacciones sociales en las que estamos inmersos. Por otro lado, el trabajo en grupo ha de darse de modo que el alumnado alcance los objetivos académicos y, para ello, los docentes han de *organizar el trabajo en equipos*, prestando atención a tres principios más: (4) la interdependencia positiva, asegurándose de que el equipo tiene un objetivo compartido, y de que los esfuerzos de cada uno de los miembros contribuyen al éxito grupal; (5) la responsabilidad individual, estructurando la situación de modo que todos los miembros del equipo puedan contribuir a la tarea, y que sus contribuciones sean visibles y reconocibles; y (6) la estructuración del grupo clase en pequeños grupos de 2 a 5 alumnos con una tarea que sea grupal, y no solo una adición de las tareas individuales de cada alumno.

FIGURA 4.1. Principios necesarios para estructurar actividades de aprendizaje cooperativo. Traducido y adaptado de Buchs (2017).



Estos seis principios promueven las *interacciones constructivas*, aquellas interacciones sociales que facilitan el aprendizaje, las que se dan por ejemplo cuando los miembros del equipo intercambian información entre sí. Buchs, Lehraus y Butera (2006) destacan la utilidad de estos intercambios de información, incluyendo en esta categoría el resumen de contenidos, la enseñanza entre pares, la co-construcción de conocimiento y los conflictos cognitivos que son regulados de manera epistémica, es decir, los conflictos en los que la conversación gira en torno a la comprensión de los contenidos y los diferentes puntos de vista, dejando de lado la comparación social.

Algunos de los beneficios del aprendizaje cooperativo son especialmente relevantes para el desarrollo de la expresión oral en segundas lenguas. En primer lugar, es destacable la creación de contextos comunicativos más naturales, focalizados en la práctica formativa. Hablar frente al grupo clase en una segunda lengua puede ser estresante para algunos alumnos dada la presión social vinculada al número de oyentes. En contraste, los pequeños grupos permiten a los alumnos comenzar a naturalizar el uso de la lengua en sus interacciones sociales en un contexto menos estresante. Otra ventaja es la interacción paralela de muchos alumnos, ya que cuando la

clase está dividida en varios grupos, la expresión oral de varias personas es posible al mismo tiempo: cada cual puede practicar más y obtener más retroalimentación, lo que le permite avanzar en su dominio de las estructuras y el vocabulario trabajado. A pesar de la extendida creencia de que la retroalimentación ofrecida por los docentes es de mucha más calidad que la de los compañeros, el *feedback* que los alumnos se ofrecen entre sí puede ser de gran calidad, ya que poseen una perspectiva más cercana que les permite comprender más fácilmente las dificultades cognitivas de sus pares y ofrecer ayudas ajustadas. Además, hemos de puntualizar que en este proceso quien ofrece retroalimentación también aprende, pues al dialogar sobre el contenido ha de reflexionar sobre su propio conocimiento, explicarlo con sus propias palabras, elaborar preguntas para asegurarse de que se le ha comprendido adecuadamente y construir respuestas para las preguntas que le sean formuladas (Duran, 2014).

En cuanto a la expresión y comprensión escrita en segundas lenguas, los métodos de aprendizaje cooperativo también tienen muchos beneficios potenciales. Destacamos en particular la facilidad con que se pueden reforzar estrategias de comprensión y expresión escrita ya trabajadas previamente. Cuando los alumnos han de realizar una tarea grupal correctamente estructurada, es necesario que compartan sus propuestas, y que negocien las ventajas de cada una de ellas. En ese proceso se explicitan estrategias que unos alumnos usan habitualmente, pero que otros no dominan o simplemente habían olvidado. Quienes realizan la propuesta han de justificar razonadamente el uso de la estrategia, lo cual les ayuda a reforzar su dominio de la habilidad, y el resto recibe explicaciones individualizadas y adaptadas a su nivel. Es también destacable la oportunidad que el trabajo en grupo ofrece al docente de “escuchar” los pensamientos de los alumnos. Cuando los ejercicios son realizados de modo individual, a menudo los docentes se preguntan sobre el origen de ciertos fallos; sin embargo, escuchar a los alumnos negociando sobre cómo realizar el ejercicio aporta al docente información valiosa, que puede utilizar para ofrecer ayudas individualizadas o para adaptar sus clases más allá de las sesiones de aprendizaje cooperativo.

La planificación óptima de actividades de aprendizaje cooperativo tiene numerosas ventajas, pero también es costosa en cuanto a tiempo de planificación y a esfuerzo del docente, especialmente si no tiene experiencia en el ámbito. Una buena manera de comenzar a usar aprendizaje cooperativo en el aula es optar por el trabajo en parejas, ya que la complejidad de las interacciones sociales disminuye y la responsabilidad individual se ve muy reforzada, pues no es fácil ser “el que no hace nada” en un grupo de dos. En este trabajo en parejas la relación entre los miembros puede estructurarse como simétrica o asimétrica, dependiendo de la similitud o diferencia entre sus niveles de habilidad en la tarea que se va a realizar. En caso de ser una relación asimétrica, estaríamos hablando de tutoría entre iguales, un método de aprendizaje cooperativo que consideramos de especial interés para el desarrollo de la competencia de expresión oral en segundas lenguas. En la tutoría entre iguales, un miembro de la pareja adopta el rol de tutor y otro el de tutorado y, como en el resto de métodos de aprendizaje cooperativo, comparten un objetivo común y trabajan para alcanzarlo a través de la estructura de trabajo planificada por el profesorado (Duran & Vidal, 2004).

El programa de tutoría entre iguales *Reading in Pairs* es una de las iniciativas más relevantes en innovación educativa en España. Diseñado y promovido por el Grupo de Investigación sobre Aprendizaje entre Iguales de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona, este programa cumple muchos de los requisitos y buenas prácticas consensuadas en la literatura referente a tutoría entre iguales, aprendizaje cooperativo y aprendizaje de segundas lenguas. La puesta en práctica de *Reading in Pairs* en las aulas comienza con tres sesiones dedicadas a formar al alumnado sobre las ventajas de la tutoría entre iguales para tutores y tutorados, las características de un buen tutor y un buen tutorado, y el aprendizaje de técnicas de retroalimentación que permiten al alumnado corregir de modo constructivo los errores de los compañeros. El resto de las sesiones del programa *Reading in Pairs* están organizadas en torno a una hoja de actividad, que provee a los alumnos con la estructura necesaria para que cada pareja sea independiente, sabiendo

en cada momento qué deben hacer. Las hojas de actividad contienen un texto real en inglés, tomado de un periódico, blog, libro u otro material. Además, se proponen actividades iniciales para activar el conocimiento previo y que las parejas analicen las características estructurales del texto. La lectura se realiza tras las actividades iniciales y se organiza en tres etapas. Primero es el tutor quien lee el texto en voz alta –proveyendo un modelo– a continuación, ambos miembros de la pareja leen juntos –tomando el tutor el liderazgo– y finalmente el tutorado lee de forma independiente, mientras su tutor escucha atentamente y ofrece retroalimentación cuando es necesario. Tras la lectura del texto se presentan actividades centradas en la comprensión, interpretación y reflexión sobre el contenido.

Este programa educativo propone el trabajo de los alumnos en parejas estables durante unas quince a veinte sesiones de treinta minutos distribuidas a razón de una por semana. Las parejas pueden organizarse en dos modos distintos, en la opción *cross age tutoring*, los tutores son alumnos de uno o dos cursos superiores de los tutorados y las parejas se forman tomando en consideración el nivel de inglés de los alumnos. El alumno de más nivel en la clase de tutores será emparejado con el alumno de más nivel en la clase de los tutorados y así sucesivamente. Este método tiene como ventajas principales la naturalidad con la que los alumnos asumen sus roles, la socialización de los alumnos entre diferentes cursos y el posicionamiento en rol de “expertos” (tutores) a alumnos que, por su nivel académico o por necesidades educativas especiales, no tienen esa oportunidad a menudo. Como principal inconveniente es destacable la mayor complejidad organizativa de esta opción, ya que dos clases han de coordinarse entre sí, y es necesario que los alumnos se desplacen de su aula, sea para ir a un espacio común más amplio en el cual las dos clases completas trabajen juntas, sea partiendo las clases en dos grupos de modo que la mitad de tutorados acuden al aula de los tutores y viceversa. La segunda opción para organizar las parejas es el *same age tutoring*, modalidad en la cual tutores y tutorados pertenecen al mismo curso. En este caso, puede optarse por dividir la clase en dos grupos según el nivel de inglés, estando el grupo de tutores compuesto por los alumnos con más nivel. El alumno de nivel más alto del grupo de tutores es emparejado con el alumno con nivel más alto del grupo de tutorados, y así sucesivamente. Esta organización es conocida como tutoría fija, y tiene como ventaja la facilidad organizativa. Es, sin embargo, importante tener en consideración que la adjudicación de roles de tutor y tutorado dentro del seno de clase puede tener efectos no deseados a nivel motivacional y de autoestima si los alumnos lo interpretan como una división entre “los mejores y los peores” alumnos. En este caso ha de prestarse especial atención a los principios nombrados anteriormente como componentes de “preparar al alumnado para cooperar” (ver Figura 4.1) creando un clima de clase cooperativo, trabajando las habilidades sociales y asegurándose mediante diversos modos de reflexión crítica de que el proceso se desarrolla adecuadamente. Además, los alumnos han de tener claro uno de los principios básicos de la tutoría entre iguales: la diversidad de habilidades en el grupo es una gran fuente de aprendizaje, tanto para quienes reciben apoyo como para los que lo aportan (Duran, 2014). La segunda opción de *same age tutoring* es la tutoría recíproca, modelo en el cual tutor y tutorado tienen un nivel lo más similar posible, e intercambian sus roles cada cierto número de sesiones. En este caso, una dificultad potencial es proveer a las parejas de nivel más bajo de la clase con el suficiente apoyo para lograr su trabajo independiente. Como beneficio, es importante que todos los alumnos pasan por el rol de tutor y tutorado.

Finalmente, nos gustaría destacar que una de las claves de éxito de la tutoría entre iguales en general, y del programa de *Reading in Pairs* en particular, es la responsabilización de los alumnos tutores. En *Reading in Pairs* los tutores han de familiarizarse con las hojas de actividad antes de las sesiones, y asegurarse de que dominan el vocabulario y las estructuras presentes en el texto y en las actividades propuestas. Esta responsabilización es esencial tanto para el éxito de las sesiones como para la motivación de los tutores, quienes se encuentran situados en el rol de expertos y tienen un objetivo claro y cercano que cumplir: asegurar el aprendizaje de su tutorado. Lo más interesante es que, al preparar las sesiones y al realizarlas, los tutores afianzan sus propios conocimientos. Para realizar correctamente las tareas asociadas a su rol, los tutores

necesitan apoyo que los docentes han de ofrecerles, tanto en las sesiones de formación inicial como a lo largo de todo el programa, por ejemplo, facilitándoles con unos días de antelación los archivos de audio con los textos leídos por lectores competentes, así como los documentos de *language support* que contienen sugerencias de estructuras y vocabulario útiles para las actividades propuestas.

4.2.2. Características, Requisitos y Resultados de la Propuesta Metodológica

Reading in Pairs es una propuesta innovadora de gran interés en el ámbito del aprendizaje de segundas lenguas. Se trata de un programa ambicioso y coherente, que combina buenas prácticas ampliamente estudiadas en el ámbito de la enseñanza de lenguas, la interacción entre iguales y la formación permanente del profesorado. El Grupo de Investigación sobre Aprendizaje entre Iguales establece una colaboración con los docentes participantes en las formaciones para recoger datos durante la implementación. Estos datos son utilizados tanto para asegurarse de la eficacia de las estrategias pedagógicas como ir mejorando progresivamente el programa (véase Duran, Flores, Oller, Thomson-Garay y Vera, 2016, y Duran et al., 2016).

La metodología de formación que propone este grupo de investigación es uno de los puntos fuertes del programa, ya que se pide a los centros un compromiso de participación de tres años, con el objetivo de integrar *Reading in Pairs* como una metodología sostenible a largo plazo en la cultura del centro, y de asegurar apoyo del equipo directivo a los docentes participantes. Además, se solicita la participación de dos docentes por centro, para potenciar la colaboración entre pares no solo entre los alumnos, sino también a nivel de los profesores. En cuanto al formato de las sesiones de formación, se realizan tres jornadas presenciales a lo largo del curso, para permitir una reflexión sobre la práctica una vez ha sido iniciado el programa y el trabajo de posibles dificultades en la implementación. La estructura de la formación también está diseñada conforme a la investigación en el área, y su eficacia es objeto de estudio del grupo de investigación (véase Miquel, 2016).

En lo referente a la interacción entre los alumnos en aula, es de destacar la claridad de los roles y de la estructura de la tarea. Si bien en las primeras sesiones los alumnos necesitan cierto apoyo del docente, la mayoría de las parejas alcanzan un gran nivel de independencia, reforzado por las actividades de autoevaluación que realizan cada tres o cuatro sesiones. Este nivel de independencia potencia que los alumnos se responsabilicen de su propio aprendizaje.

En cuanto a posibles obstáculos para la implementación del programa, hemos de hablar de nuevo del compromiso y esfuerzo necesario para que se produzca de modo sostenible, tanto a nivel de centro como a nivel individual de cada docente. El cambio metodológico general en nuestro sistema educativo no puede llevarse a cabo sin aprendizaje y dedicación por parte de los profesionales de la educación, que hemos de modificar (en ocasiones de modo bastante radical) nuestro rol en el aula. El desarrollo de nuevas habilidades es imprescindible y no ha de ser demorado, pero es, sin duda, costoso cuando los docentes no disponen de suficiente tiempo para la planificación pedagógica y el desarrollo profesional. Consideramos, en todo caso, que este esfuerzo ha de ser visto desde una óptica positiva, invirtiendo energía en proyectos de calidad, como el programa *Reading in Pairs*, un excelente ejemplo de buenas prácticas en innovación pedagógica, investigación aplicada y desarrollo profesional docente.

4.3. Recursos Institucionales: Formación del Profesorado y Recursos para el Aula Bilingüe

De forma paralela y complementaria a los avances que se han realizado en el campo de la innovación metodológica, las universidades, los organismos europeos y las administraciones

educativas españolas han ejercido un papel relevante en la ejecución de las políticas lingüísticas de apoyo al bilingüismo o al plurilingüismo. Desde distintos ángulos y utilizando distintas herramientas, se ha proporcionado al profesorado de idiomas y de programas bilingües oportunidades para mejorar la competencia lingüística, los conocimientos metodológicos, el dominio de recursos de la tecnología y la comunicación con fines educativos y la participación en comunidades virtuales, redes sociales y proyectos internacionales, entre otras. Además, las administraciones estatales y autonómicas han creado numerosos repositorios de recursos para el aula.

Concretamente, el Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte ha llevado a cabo distintas iniciativas y proyectos para apoyar la formación del profesorado y difundir los programas bilingües y plurilingües en todo el estado.

Distintas unidades del organigrama ministerial colaboran con iniciativas que van dirigidas a la mejora de la capacitación docente y a dotar al profesorado de recursos para el aula, siempre en la línea de las tendencias metodológicas más actuales y siguiendo las recomendaciones de los organismos europeos. En el tema que nos ocupa, cabe destacar la actuación de:

- el Centro Nacional de Innovación e Investigación Educativa (CNIIE),
- el Instituto Nacional de Tecnologías Educativas y de Formación del Profesorado (INTEF),
- la Subdirección General de Promoción Exterior Educativa y
- las Agencias Españolas de Programas Europeos (eTwinning y SEPIE).

Señalaremos de forma sucinta algunos de los muchos proyectos y actividades que se desarrollan desde los distintos ámbitos del Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte que se pueden adaptar a las necesidades de formación metodológica, así como recursos educativos para docentes de idiomas o de programas bilingües/plurilingües en niveles no universitarios.

A. Programa de Lenguas Extranjeras del Centro Nacional de Innovación e Investigación Educativa (CNIIE)

Colaboración MECD-British Council

Desde 1996, el Ministerio de Educación y el British Council han suscrito un acuerdo de colaboración para implementar un programa bilingüe de Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras o AICLE en centros repartidos por toda la geografía española. En estos centros, el profesorado recibe formación específica y los resultados son evaluados con rigor. En la actualidad hay alrededor de 90 centros de primaria y 50 de secundaria. Son centros de referencia, que proporcionan una educación bilingüe y bicultural de calidad.

Este mismo organismo facilita colonias y programas de inmersión para el alumnado y colabora con la Organización del Bachillerato Internacional (OBI).

Enlace informativo: <http://educalab.es/cniie/proyectos/lenguas-extranjeras>

B. Programas y Recursos del Instituto Nacional de Tecnologías Educativas y de Formación del Profesorado (INTEF)

B.1 CeDeC y Procomún

El Centro Nacional de Desarrollo Curricular en Sistemas no Propietarios (CeDeC) es un organismo dependiente del INTEF y de la Junta de Extremadura. Tiene como finalidad la

creación, la promoción y el desarrollo de material digital para el aula a través de software libre. Su objetivo es poner a disposición de la comunidad educativa recursos digitales de libre acceso que permitan profundizar en la implantación de las TIC. A través del proyecto EDIA se han creado recursos educativos abiertos para aulas activas, cooperativas y flexibles que comparten a través del espacio PROCOMÚN. Todos los proyectos inciden en el enfoque ABP y colaborativo; facilitan rúbricas, evaluación compartida y modelos metodológicos dinámicos, incluyen blogs y redes sociales y plantean una tarea o resultado final atractivo (un blog o un videoclip, por ejemplo).

PROCOMÚN, además de un repositorio de recursos digitales abiertos (con licencia Creative Commons) incorpora una red social profesional en la que los miembros disponen de espacio personal y de espacios sociales para crear, compartir, valorar y difundir experiencias y contenidos educativos.

Por último, eXeLearning es una herramienta de autor de código abierto para que los docentes adapten y publiquen los contenidos web.

Enlaces: <http://cedec.ite.educacion.es>, <http://exelearning.net/> y <http://educalab.es/recursos/procomun>

B.2 Estancias Profesionales

Son ayudas que se convocan anualmente para visitas de estudio y observación (*job shadowing*) para docentes que imparten clase de lengua extranjera o de otra disciplina en una lengua extranjera. Tienen una duración de dos semanas y la dotación económica es de 1.300€ (sujetos a retenciones). Los países participantes son: Alemania, Austria, Bélgica, Francia, Italia, Países Bajos, Portugal, Reino Unido, República de Irlanda y Suiza.

Es un programa de movilidad que intenta favorecer el intercambio cultural, el conocimiento de buenas prácticas docentes y organizativas, el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras y la participación en programas educativos europeos.

Los centros educativos españoles también pueden solicitar acoger a un docente europeo durante un período corto.

Enlace a la convocatoria: <https://goo.gl/fHYzZm> y al blog del programa: <https://goo.gl/CP38BT>

B.3 Cursos de Verano

Son ayudas para la realización de cursos de verano para profesores. Se llevan a cabo a través de un convenio con la Universidad Internacional Menéndez Pelayo. Tienen una fase presencial, de 30h durante una semana en julio, y una fase en línea de 20h.

Están dirigidos a docentes de centros sostenidos con fondos públicos que impartan enseñanzas en los distintos niveles educativos. Dentro de un variado catálogo de títulos, siempre se incluye un curso específico para profesorado de idiomas o de asignaturas de contenido no lingüístico en programas bilingües (AICLE). Se convocan en primavera.

Enlace al curso de 2016, “Inspiring Teaching and Learning in a Bilingual Environment”: <https://goo.gl/ljKjKMJ> y a la última convocatoria: <https://goo.gl/URjCRj>

B.4 Cursos en Red

Hay una nutrida oferta de cursos tutorizados en línea para la adecuación de los conocimientos y métodos a la evolución de las ciencias y de las didácticas específicas. En este

amplio catálogo siempre se incluyen algunos títulos específicos para enseñanza bilingüe o de idiomas, como Digital *Storytelling*, Recursos en Abierto (REA) para AICLE, etc.

Se han incorporado nuevos formatos, como los MOOC (*Massive Open Online Courses*), los NOOC (Nano Cursos Masivos Abiertos en Línea), los SPOOC (*Self-Paced Open Online Course*), el espacio EN ABIERTO, para la consulta de materiales o planes de actividades y, últimamente, las EDUPILLS, una app de micro formación para docentes, con unidades categorizadas de acuerdo a las cinco áreas del Marco de Competencia Digital Docente 2017 del INTEF.

Enlace a los cursos:

<http://educalab.es/intef/formacion/formacion-en-red>

Edupills:

<http://edupills.educalab.es/>

C. Programas de la Subdirección General de Promoción Exterior Educativa

C.1 Profesores Visitantes

A través de este programa se puede solicitar una plaza para trabajar como profesor visitante en centros educativos de EE.UU., Canadá y Reino Unido. Dirigido a maestros o profesores españoles con dos años de experiencia docente mínimo, de prácticamente todas las especialidades, según los requisitos de cada país o estado.

La duración del contrato es de un mínimo de un año. Es una experiencia muy enriquecedora, que supone una notable mejora en la competencia comunicativa e intercultural de nuestros docentes, que al retornar se pueden incorporar a programas bilingües y aportar toda lo aprendido en gestión del aula, planificación de unidades didácticas, etc.

Enlace a la Guía de Profesores Visitantes: <https://goo.gl/zd7dBE> y a la última convocatoria: <https://goo.gl/e5G2OF>

C.2 Auxiliares de Conversación

Es un programa dirigido a estudiantes de ciertas especialidades (preferentemente Traducción e Interpretación, Filología, Magisterio, etc.) del último año o recientemente graduados. Por lo general, la edad máxima para solicitarlo es 30 años. Se les ofrece trabajar durante un año como auxiliares de conversación de lengua española en centros docentes de Alemania, Australia, Austria, Bélgica, Canadá, Estados Unidos, Federación de Rusia, Francia, Irlanda, Italia, Malta, Noruega, Nueva Zelanda, Reino Unido y Suecia.

Los beneficiarios, además de mejorar su competencia lingüística y comunicativa, tienen la oportunidad de vivir una experiencia personal y profesional que les permitirá profundizar en el conocimiento de la sociedad y el sistema educativo del país.

Enlace a la convocatoria: <https://goo.gl/CzqtUD>

D. Programas de Agencias Españolas de Programas Europeos (eTwinning y SEPIE)

D.1 Agencia Nacional eTwinning http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/multilingualism/rethinking-education_en

eTwinning fomenta la colaboración escolar en Europa utilizando las tecnologías de la información y la comunicación (TIC) y apoya a los centros escolares prestándoles las herramientas

y los servicios necesarios que faciliten su asociación para desarrollar un proyecto en común en un entorno seguro y motivador. eTwinning también ofrece oportunidades de desarrollo profesional en línea, continuo y gratuito para educadores.

Enlace a eTwinning:

<https://www.etwinning.net/en/pub/index.htm>

D.2 Erasmus+ (Servicio Español para la Internacionalización de la Educación)

Dirigido a los centros y docentes de enseñanza preescolar, primaria y secundaria. Se ofrece una gran diversidad de oportunidades de movilidad para participar en actividades como:

- Cursos o actividades de formación estructuradas en el extranjero.
- Docencia en centros de enseñanza asociados.
- Período de observación en el extranjero en un centro asociado u otra organización relevante activa en el ámbito de la educación escolar o *jobshadowing*.

También se fomenta la cooperación entre centros escolares u otras organizaciones con el fin de mejorar el nivel y la calidad de la enseñanza. Permite crear asociaciones estratégicas internacionales para favorecer temas de interés común que permitan a las instituciones participantes colaborar durante dos o tres años para introducir prácticas innovadoras y nuevas formas de cooperación con profesionales de distintos ámbitos.<https://www.etwinning.net/es/pub/index.htm>

Enlace:

SEPIE: <http://internacionalizacion.sepie.es/index.html>

4.4. Reflexión

Vivimos una época de cambio de paradigma educativo. Esta evolución es necesaria y deseable pero también costosa en tiempo y en esfuerzo para los educadores. Conocer cuáles son las fuentes de apoyo disponibles para los docentes es altamente recomendable, dada la magnitud de la tarea.

La innovación metodológica es ya una realidad en nuestras aulas, así como la conciencia del camino que nos queda por recorrer. Enfoquemos la tarea positivamente y establezcamos una colaboración óptima entre universidades, escuelas e instituciones educativas. Aprovechemos los recursos y el conocimiento disponibles, la educación de nuestros jóvenes está en juego.

4.5. Referencias

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Análisis, Implementación y Evaluación de Programas Bilingües en Galicia y la Universidad de A Coruña

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Resumen

En el presente capítulo se analizan las políticas lingüísticas para la potenciación de la enseñanza bilingüe/plurilingüe en España de acuerdo con los objetivos de la construcción de un proyecto común promovidos por el Consejo de Europa. Se aborda una revisión en todos los niveles educativos, desde la Educación Infantil, Primaria, Secundaria y Educación Superior, dado que en todos ellos en mayor o menor medida se fija como objetivo el desarrollo de la competencia plurilingüe.

A continuación se estudia su concreción en la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia. En lo referente a la educación pre-universitaria, se revisan todos los planes de potenciación de lenguas extranjeras promovidos por la *Consejería de Educación y Ordenación Universitaria de la Junta de Galicia*. En Educación Superior se describe el caso de la *Universidad de A Coruña*, donde las dos autoras imparten docencia en el área de Didáctica de la Lengua Extranjera en la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Se concluye este capítulo con una serie de indicaciones y reflexiones sobre posibles vías de actuación para la mejora de los planes bilingües y plurilingües en esta Comunidad Autónoma.

5.1. Marco Legislativo-Referencial para la Promoción de Lenguas Extranjeras

La adquisición de Lenguas Extranjeras (en adelante LEs) se ha convertido en una prioridad en la educación obligatoria y post-obligatoria. La Unión Europea fija el fomento del plurilingüismo como un objetivo irrenunciable para la construcción de un proyecto comunitario. En este

sentido, las políticas lingüísticas que regulan tanto la Educación Infantil, Primaria y Secundaria como la universitaria en nuestro país están dirigidas a fomentar el desarrollo de una competencia plurilingüe y pluricultural. Estas políticas siguen las pautas establecidas por en el Consejo de Europa en el *Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas* (2001) (en adelante MCERL), que en su apartado 1.3 define el concepto de plurilingüismo en contraposición con el de multilingüismo:

El multilingüismo es el conocimiento de varias lenguas o la coexistencia de distintas lenguas en una sociedad determinada. Se puede lograr simplemente diversificando las lenguas que se ofrecen en un centro escolar o en un sistema educativo concretos, procurando que los alumnos aprendan más de un idioma extranjero, o reduciendo la posición dominante del inglés en la comunicación internacional.

Más allá de esto, el enfoque plurilingüe enfatiza el hecho de que conforme se expande la experiencia lingüística de un individuo en los entornos culturales de una lengua, desde el lenguaje familiar hasta el de la sociedad en general, y después hasta las lenguas de otros pueblos (ya sean aprendidas en la escuela o en la universidad, o por experiencia directa), el individuo no guarda estas lenguas y culturas en compartimentos mentales estrictamente separados, sino que desarrolla una competencia comunicativa a la que contribuyen todos los conocimientos y las experiencias lingüísticas y en la que las lenguas se relacionan entre sí e interactúan. (MCERL, 2001, p. 4).

El enfoque plurilingüe, centrado en el individuo, difiere por lo tanto del concepto de multilingüismo, y tiene además consecuencias metodológicas en la incorporación de las lenguas extranjeras en los centros educativos. Durante los años 80 y 90 en nuestro país, la didáctica de las LEs estaba definida por una orientación multilingüe en el sentido de que las lenguas tanto a nivel no-universitario como universitario, se ofrecían fomentando esa “compartimentación” a la que alude el MCERL, puesto que la lengua extranjera solamente era utilizada durante la clase de inglés, o francés y además siguiendo una metodología bastante tradicional, en la que el profesor era el centro del proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje. Por otra parte, el alumnado no disponía de los recursos existentes hoy en día para poner en práctica los conocimientos adquiridos. No obstante, conviene tener en cuenta el elevado número de alumnos que entonces había en las aulas debido al *boom* de natalidad de los años 60 y 70 para justificar la dificultad de implementación de metodologías comunicativas efectivas.

En nuestra definición terminológica, además de multilingüismo y plurilingüismo, es también necesario aclarar qué se entiende por la educación bilingüe a la que veremos aluden las vigentes leyes educativas. En este sentido, coincidimos con Lorenzo, Trujillo y Vez (2011) en su concepción de enseñanza bilingüe como extensión del plurilingüismo referido en el MCERL:

De la misma forma que el bilingüismo es “*una etiqueta para un fenómeno complejo*” (Cazden y Snow, 1990), también lo es la *educación bilingüe*...En Europa porque la enseñanza bilingüe tiene como fin último el aprendizaje de más de dos lenguas, la extensión de un plurilingüismo social de diversas lenguas *que son de todos*, en oportuna acotación de los textos europeos del política lingüística. (Lorenzo, Trujillo y Vez, 2011, p. 11).

Las dos últimas leyes educativas aprobadas en el nuevo milenio, la *Ley Orgánica de Educación* (en adelante LOE, 2006) y la *Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa* (en adelante LOMCE, 2013) fomentan el desarrollo del plurilingüismo entre el estudiantado, lo que supone un cambio de perspectiva en la incorporación de las LEs en los centros educativos. Los nuevos currículos en el área de las LEs han introducido grandes cambios en relación con el desarrollo de esta competencia plurilingüe definida en el MCERL. Así, en los centros educativos se ha de abandonar el modelo de enseñanza multilingüe en favor de un modelo plurilingüe,

donde el desarrollo de la competencia lingüística no quede únicamente relegado al aula de LE, sino que traspase esos límites y pase a ser también lengua vehicular para la adquisición de diferentes contenidos. Para ello desde instancias educativas se fomenta el establecimiento de programas bilingües o plurilingües, en los que se implementen metodologías adecuadas, como el enfoque de Aprendizaje Integrado de Lengua y Contenido (en adelante AICLE).

En este sentido el Decreto de 3 de Mayo de 2006, que regula la implantación de la LOE, en su “Disposición final séptima bis” establece las bases de la educación plurilingüe: “desde el segundo ciclo de Educación Infantil hasta Bachillerato, previa consulta de las Comunidades Autónomas”. No obstante argumentaremos más adelante que la etapa de Educación Infantil, la única todavía regulada por la LOE y no por la LOMCE, es la gran olvidada en la promoción del plurilingüismo. Además, la LOE en su “Disposición adicional trigésimo séptima, con el fin de atender a las necesidades de programación de enseñanza plurilingüe establece que las comunidades autónomas podrán, “excepcionalmente” y “mientras exista insuficiencia de personal docente con competencias lingüísticas suficientes”, contratar expertos con dominio de lenguas extranjeras, nacionales o extranjeros, como profesorado en programas bilingües o plurilingües.

La LOMCE, que recordemos que no deroga la LOE sino que la modifica; va un paso más allá en la programación de una enseñanza para el desarrollo del plurilingüismo. Así, en el Artículo XII de la Ley Orgánica 9 de Diciembre de 2013, alude a la necesidad de reforzar las LEs en nuestro sistema educativo, vinculándolas a los objetivos de la construcción de un proyecto europeo:

El dominio de una segunda o, incluso, una tercera lengua extranjeras se ha convertido en una prioridad en la educación como consecuencia del proceso de globalización en que vivimos, a la vez que se muestra como una de las principales carencias de nuestro sistema educativo. La Unión Europea fija el fomento del plurilingüismo como un objetivo irrenunciable para la construcción de un proyecto europeo. La Ley apoya decididamente el plurilingüismo, redoblando los esfuerzos para conseguir que los estudiantes se desenvuelvan con fluidez al menos en una primera lengua extranjera, cuyo nivel de comprensión oral y lectora y de expresión oral y escrita resulta decisivo para favorecer la empleabilidad y las ambiciones profesionales, y por ello apuesta decididamente por la incorporación curricular de una segunda lengua extranjera.

La LOMCE hace coincidir con la LOE sus disposiciones “Final séptima bis” y “Adicional trigésimo séptima” referentes al desarrollo de LE, e insiste en que además de los principios establecidos se hará especial incidencia, con vistas a la transformación del sistema educativo a “las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación, en el fomento del plurilingüismo, y la modernización de la Formación Profesional” (LOMCE, 2013). De acuerdo con todo esto, las Comunidades Autónomas son las responsables en última instancia de implementar las políticas y planes necesarios para el desarrollo de programas bilingües o plurilingües.

La norma que regula los planes de potenciación de lenguas en Galicia es el “Decreto 79/2010, de 20 de mayo, para el plurilingüismo en la enseñanza no universitaria de Galicia”. Dicho Decreto no ha estado exento de controversia desde su implantación por la incidencia que tiene sobre las horas de docencia en las lenguas maternas (castellano y gallego) de nuestra Comunidad Autónoma. En ese mismo año se establece la red de centros plurilingües en esta Comunidad Autónoma con 52 centros educativos adscritos con carácter experimental (Orden 30 de junio de 2010). De acuerdo con las pautas establecidas por este Decreto, la *Consejería de Educación y Ordenación de la Junta de Galicia* aprueba la “Orden de 12 de mayo de 2011 por la que se regulan los centros plurilingües en la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia y se establece el procedimiento de incorporación de nuevos centros a la Red de Centros Plurilingües de Galicia”, que, sorprendentemente, no hace referencia a la etapa de Educación Infantil. En la actualidad esta cifra se ha quintuplicado, siendo ya alrededor de 256 las instituciones de Educación Primaria

y Secundaria que han decidido implementar en las políticas lingüísticas de sus centros los planes de potenciación de lenguas extranjeras.

Con respecto a la programación curricular, conviene apuntar que el Decreto 330/2009, de 4 de junio, por el que se establece el currículo de la educación infantil, en materia de LE se limita a recomendar para el segundo ciclo -en concreto para sexto de Educación Infantil- tres períodos semanales de 20 minutos de exposición a una tercera lengua. Teniendo en cuenta la importancia de la adquisición de LE en edades tempranas, no parece ser un periodo suficiente de exposición a la misma. A pesar de tratarse de una recomendación, cada centro educativo establece, en última instancia, el número de horas dedicado a la LE en esta primera etapa. Por otra parte, los Decretos 105/2014 (*de 4 de septiembre, por el que se establece el currículo de la educación primaria*) y 86/2015 (*de 25 de junio, por el que se establece el currículo de la educación secundaria obligatoria y del bachillerato*) en la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia siguen las pautas establecidas por la LOMCE para la implementación de programas bilingües y plurilingües.

En la construcción de ese proyecto europeo al que aludíamos anteriormente, han cumplido una función esencial las modificaciones de los planes de estudios de la educación superior en España para adaptarlos al plan Bolonia. Así, de acuerdo con los requisitos del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior (en adelante EEES), los estudiantes universitarios deben demostrar un cierto nivel de competencia en comunicación lingüística para acceder a los programas de Grado y Máster. No obstante, parece oportuno indicar que todavía no se solicita el cumplimiento de dicho requisito en todas las Universidades, si bien es cierto que deberían incorporarlo. Tal es el caso de la Universidad de A Coruña, donde para los títulos de Grado todavía no se requiere dicha certificación pero sí se exige un nivel B1 en cualquier LE para acceder a los Másteres.

En este sentido, la Orden ECI/3858/2007 *de 27 de diciembre, por la que se establecen los requisitos para la verificación de los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de las profesiones de Profesor de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria y Bachillerato, Formación Profesional y Enseñanzas de Idiomas* establece en el apartado 4.2 como requisito ha de: “acreditarse el dominio de una lengua extranjera equivalente al nivel B1 del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas”. El cumplimiento de dicho requisito para acceder a un programa tan demandado como es el Máster de Educación Secundaria no está exento de dificultades puesto que aunque la gran mayoría de los alumnos que lo solicitan han cursado diez años o más una LE en Educación Primaria y Secundaria, la realidad es que muchos no llegan a alcanzar el B1 o no lo pueden certificar formalmente.

5.2. Implementación y Análisis de Programas Bilingües en la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia

Con respecto a la implementación de los programas bilingües impulsados por nuestra Comunidad Autónoma en relación con el profesorado en activo en los niveles de Educación Infantil, Educación Primaria, Secundaria y Escuelas de Idiomas es importante señalar que la Junta de Galicia ha realizado una importante labor incluyendo cursos de formación permanente para potenciar aquellos aspectos que el profesorado en activo demanda, bien para completar o ampliar su formación en determinados contenidos o metodologías; o bien porque han detectado ciertas carencias que consideran necesarias para sus prácticas docentes en las aulas de aprendizaje de lenguas y solicitan formación complementaria en ese sentido.

El Centro Autonómico de Formación e Innovación (en adelante CAFI) es la unidad encargada del diseño de las acciones relacionadas con la formación permanente del profesorado, depende de la *Consejería de Cultura, Educación y Ordenación Universitaria* y se responsabiliza del diseño, coordinación y gestión de la formación de todo el profesorado gallego que ejerce sus

funciones en los niveles educativos no universitarios. Además presta un servicio de asesoramiento y apoyo al profesorado en su ámbito de actuación, concretamente el Departamento de Lenguas es el que se ocupa de lanzar y potenciar los cursos relacionados con las LEs.

Además del CAFI, centralizado en Santiago de Compostela, existen los Centros de Formación y Recursos (en adelante CFRs). Los CFRs son órganos dependientes del servicio de Formación del Profesorado de la Consejería de Educación y Ordenación Universitaria, que tienen como objetivos la formación permanente del profesorado, el intercambio de experiencias y la reflexión sobre los procesos educativos junto con la dinamización pedagógica de los centros como elementos vertebradores del sistema educativo. En la actualidad existen seis CFRs repartidos estratégicamente por toda la geografía gallega y son los siguientes: CFR A Coruña, CFR Ferrol, CFR Lugo, CFR Orense, CFR Pontevedra y CFR Vigo. Todos ellos disponen de una sección de LE centrada en el tema objeto de análisis. Como indicábamos anteriormente, estos centros desarrollan su actividad de forma coherente de acuerdo con los planes de formación del sistema educativo y con las necesidades de actualización y formación manifestadas por los docentes.

Otras acciones importantes con respecto a la implementación de programas bilingües llevadas a cabo por la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia están incluidas en los programas que pasamos a describir someramente a continuación: el programa PIALE (Programa Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras), que está compuesto por una serie de itinerarios formativos para la mejora de la competencia lingüística y comunicativa en lengua extranjera del profesorado; el programa CUALE, que presenta una serie de cursos para la formación complementaria en lenguas extranjeras del alumnado y la preparación para las pruebas de certificación de los niveles de las enseñanzas especializadas de idiomas; el programa CALC (Cursos de Actualización Lingüística y Comunicativa en Lenguas Extranjeras), que proporciona cursos de actualización lingüística y comunicativa en lenguas extranjeras y preparación para las pruebas de certificación de los niveles de las enseñanzas especializadas de idiomas y está dirigido al profesorado.

Por otra parte, complementando a los anteriores programas, también se han implementado las AXUDASLE, que son actividades de formación en LE para el alumnado centrado en la realización de actividades de formación lingüística durante el verano y están dirigidas al alumnado de distintos niveles de los centros docentes sostenidos con fondos públicos de Galicia para mejorar su competencia en LE; existe también el programa de Auxiliares de Conversación, que es un programa complementario de apoyo y colaboración de profesorado nativo prioritariamente en los Centros Plurilingües, Secciones Bilingües y Escuelas Oficiales de Idiomas para posibilitar la práctica de la conversación, proporcionar un modelo de corrección lingüística y acercar tanto al alumnado como al profesorado la cultura de sus países de origen. Por último, cabe destacar el programa de Inmersión Lingüística de Otoño, a través del cual se organizan actividades de inmersión en LE para el alumnado de 6º de Educación Primaria y de 2º de ESO en el que se juntan dos grupos de dos comunidades autónomas de distintos puntos de España durante una semana durante los meses de octubre y noviembre.

El siguiente nivel de implementación de programas bilingües en la Comunidad Autónoma de Galicia se eleva al estudio de la situación actual de la educación superior universitaria y para ello es necesario un análisis diferenciando tres niveles de implementación: el nivel del alumnado en formación de profesorado en las Facultades de Educación, el nivel del profesorado encargado de la formación de los futuros maestros en dichas facultades y el resto de profesorado universitario interesado en la potenciación y uso de LE en materias con contenidos no lingüísticos.

Antes de proceder al análisis de estos tres niveles conviene indicar que, por cuestiones de formato y espacio limitado del que disponemos en el marco de este capítulo, nos centraremos en el ejemplo concreto de la Universidad de A Coruña (en adelante UDC) que, por cuestiones obvias y, como ya indicamos al comienzo de este capítulo, es el que mejor conocemos.

Por tanto, en primer lugar, es necesario un análisis de la cuestión en cuanto a las necesidades formativas del alumnado en formación. En la UDC no se oferta la especialidad en LE en los grados de Educación Infantil y Primaria en la actualidad porque una de las condiciones impuestas para la aprobación e implantación de los nuevos títulos consistía en no duplicar los ya existentes en el Sistema Universitario de Galicia (en adelante SUG), y la segunda hacía referencia a la imposibilidad de ampliar la contratación de profesorado, hechos que limitaban considerablemente la planificación de dichos planes de estudios.

Al realizar el análisis de la presencia de materias impartidas en LE se observa que el alumnado solamente cursa una materia de seis créditos ECTS: “Didáctica de la Lengua Extranjera”, que se imparte durante dos meses y medio en el tercer curso de las titulaciones de Grado en Educación Infantil y de Primaria respectivamente. Los objetivos principales de dichas materias consisten en formar a los futuros docentes actualizando metodologías y dotándoles de estrategias y recursos para la adquisición de una buena competencia en la enseñanza y aprendizaje de una LE. Además, conviene resaltar que el alumnado deberá estar preparado para trabajar en centros bilingües o plurilingües y, por ello, se incorporan en la guía docente de la materia contenidos relacionados con la metodología AICLE.

Conviene destacar que la poca presencia de la LE en estos Grados contrasta con los doce créditos asignados a la Didáctica de la Lengua y Literatura Española y otros doce a la Didáctica de la Lengua y Literatura Gallega en cada titulación, además de algunas que otras optativas impartidas también en lenguas vehiculares. Es decir, un total de veintiocho créditos dedicados a la didáctica de las lenguas vehiculares frente a solo seis dedicados a la didáctica de las LE. Se observa, por tanto, bastante descompensación en las citadas materias dentro del plan de estudios de los Grados arriba mencionados.

Mención aparte merece la presencia de las LEs en el Máster Universitario en Profesorado de E.S.O. y Bachillerato, Formación Profesional y Enseñanza de Idiomas por la UDC. Para solicitar la admisión en este Máster es obligatorio acreditar un nivel B1 en una LE de acuerdo con la certificación oficial propuesta en el MCRL. Para la obtención del título se requiere la realización de sesenta créditos ECTS teórico-prácticos. De este total, dieciséis ECTS se distribuyen en un Módulo Genérico, veintiséis en un Módulo Específico y dieciocho entre el *Practicum* y el Trabajo de Fin de Máster (TFM). De los siete existentes en la UDC, en el itinerario específico de LE la presencia de la LE adquiere protagonismo alcanzando un total de siete asignaturas impartidas en lengua inglesa además de la defensa del TFM impartido también en LE (Inglés).

Por otra parte, la UDC cuenta con el Centro de Lenguas (CL) que pertenece a la Asociación de Centros de Lenguas en la Enseñanza Superior (ACLES) y que ofrece a través del mismo numerosos cursos de idiomas con el fin de certificar a los alumnos la competencia lingüística requerida. Desde el año 2005 la Universidad de A Coruña crea este CL para converger, al igual que todas las universidades europeas, en un espacio único de educación superior. El CL está dedicado a la enseñanza no curricular de lenguas extranjeras reconociendo de este modo la importancia de proporcionar a la comunidad universitaria en especial, pero también a la comunidad en general, una oportunidad para mejorar sus conocimientos de LE y para aprender otras nuevas, sin las rigideces que impone la enseñanza reglada. Por otra parte, el CL también atiende a la difusión de nuestro patrimonio lingüístico y cultural entre estudiantes y profesores extranjeros.

Con respecto a la formación continua del profesorado de Didáctica de las LEs es necesario apuntar que desde la propia Facultad de Educación se dispone de pocas ayudas específicas para fomentar la implementación de programas bilingües y, sobre todo, se constata una gran carencia de profesorado formado e interesado en LE lo cual impide, a pesar de los esfuerzos de la coordinadora de Relaciones Internacionales, desarrollar propuestas de programas bilingües para el alumnado local, así como para poder ampliar la presencia de alumnado de intercambio en las aulas de aprendizaje. Algunos de los motivos por los que tal vez se produzca esta situación

se deben, en nuestra opinión, a la constante búsqueda de un lugar de preferencia entre las dos lenguas vehiculares (español y gallego) que conviven en nuestra comunidad bilingüe.

En la actualidad, todo aquel profesorado que quiera solicitar una estancia de intercambio docente con estos fines en la comunidad europea debe acudir a la Oficina de Relaciones Internacionales (ORI) y solicitar una ayuda STA dentro del actual programa Erasmus +. La experiencia es, sin lugar a dudas, cien por cien recomendable pero conviene apuntar que la dotación de fondos resulta, por desgracia, insuficiente si se realiza la comparación por ejemplo con los fondos dirigidos a las acciones K1 ofertadas desde la misma entidad europea para centros no universitarios (CPI, IES y CPRs) a través de las cuales, estos centros solicitan estancias de una o dos semanas para cinco o seis profesores dentro de una propuesta justificada y coherente con la finalidad de mejorar la formación continua del profesorado asistente. Estas ayudas incluyen la estancia, el viaje, la manutención y los cursos de formación lo cual no supone ningún gasto adicional para el profesorado y sí muchos beneficios, puesto que en ellas se vertebra una propuesta global de centro que revertirá positivamente en todos los integrantes del proceso educativo, tanto profesorado como alumnado.

Para terminar, no se puede cerrar esta sección sin dedicar unas líneas al profesorado de la UDC interesado en participar en la implantación de programas bilingües en los que se emplea la metodología conocida como *English as a Medium of Instruction* (EMI) para impartir contenidos no lingüísticos en cualquiera de las Facultades que la componen. Para ello, se desarrolla el Plan de Apoyo Lingüístico a la Docencia en Inglés (PALDI) bajo la coordinación del Departamento de Filología Inglesa de la UDC, con el fin de buscar la formación continua del profesorado que forma parte de los programas oficiales de docencia en inglés. Además de otras actividades formativas, este plan ofrece regularmente oportunidades de acreditación lingüística a aquellos docentes interesados en participar en estos programas de la UDC y no disponen de la acreditación exigida.

En definitiva, se podría afirmar que la tendencia en la UDC con respecto a la implantación e implementación de programas bilingües en los últimos años es ascendente y ha mejorado considerablemente. Si bien es cierto que son cada vez más los esfuerzos que se están realizando en esta línea desde el vicerrectorado correspondiente, consideramos que resultan todavía insuficientes si tenemos en cuenta las premisas y objetivos marcados desde la Unión Europea ya hace más de una década con respecto a la construcción de una Europa pluricultural y plurilingüe.

5.3. Conclusiones

Tal y como apuntábamos en el primer apartado, por una parte, las leyes educativas vigentes apuestan decididamente por la potenciación de las LEs en los currículos de Educación Primaria y Secundaria. Creemos, no obstante, que a la etapa no obligatoria de Educación Infantil se le debería prestar todavía más atención, teniendo en cuenta la importancia que tiene la adquisición de LE en edades tempranas.

No cabe duda de que la edad juega un papel importante en la adquisición de LE, de hecho hay numerosos estudios que lo demuestran desde el punto de vista de la lingüística, de la psicología cognoscitiva o de la lingüística aplicada (Lenneberg, 1967; Krashen, 1981). Por ello, como docentes de la materia de Didáctica de la Lengua Extranjera en la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación en la UDC, entendemos que es necesario que nuestro alumnado tenga conocimiento del marco teórico que refuerza los argumentos en favor de la mayor presencia de las LEs desde esas edades tempranas.

Por otra parte, creemos que la normativa que regula la introducción de LE debería prestar más atención no solo en el área de Lengua Extranjera, sino también en otras áreas de esta misma

etapa educativa cuya introducción podría llevarse a cabo a través una LE como lengua vehicular utilizando la metodología AICLE en el desarrollo de sus propuestas, maximizando así el tiempo de exposición al alumnado a la LE.

Se puede afirmar sin dudar que los planes de potenciación de Lenguas Extranjeras tienen cierta repercusión en la oferta de empleo público de nuestra Comunidad Autónoma. Así, parece interesante indicar que en el año 2016 se ofertaron en Educación Primaria 86 plazas para especialista en LE y solamente 40 para generalistas y para este año 2017 *la Consejería de Cultura, Educación y Ordenación Universitaria de Galicia* ya ha vuelto a anunciar oferta de plazas en LE (Inglés y Francés). Otro dato digno de mención dentro de las bases de la convocatoria es la inclusión, dentro del baremo de la fase concurso, de un apartado específico para los títulos oficiales de certificación en LE otorgando un punto entero a acreditaciones de C1 y medio punto a los B2. Todo ello nos ayuda a reforzar el argumento de que desde las Facultades de Ciencias de la Educación, como es nuestro caso, tenemos la obligación de educar al futuro docente para ejercer su práctica profesional en contextos plurilingües.

Dentro del marco y las propuestas del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior se corrobora la potenciación de las LE en los planes de estudios bilingües, en los programas de formación del Personal Docente e Investigador y entre el alumnado. Todo ello se realiza con un doble objetivo: la internacionalización de las universidades españolas y la preparación de nuestro alumnado para facilitar su movilidad en Europa, coincidiendo así, como apuntábamos, con uno de los objetivos principales del MCERL: “facilitar la comunicación y la interacción entre europeos que tienen distintas lenguas maternas con el fin de fomentar la movilidad en Europa”. No obstante, la internacionalización de nuestros programas y la formación del profesorado en LE y en metodologías de instrucción en LE son procesos lentos y a veces complicados. Además, tanto el alumnado como el profesorado de nuestras universidades deben concienciarse de la importancia de desarrollar una competencia comunicativa real en LE para poder desarrollarse profesionalmente en Europa.

Proponemos, para concluir, dos vías de actuación. La primera, y más ambiciosa, supone una propuesta de modificación en el plan de estudios en el que se puedan incluir más materias obligatorias para formar a los maestros de Infantil y Primaria en metodologías AICLE y ofertar, desde nuestra institución, la especialidad de LE en respuesta a las demandas apuntadas en apartados anteriores. La segunda, consiste en incluir en la oferta de materias optativas algunas relacionadas con la DLE y con el aprendizaje AICLE que permitirían profundizar en los contenidos anteriormente citados.

Por otra parte, puesto que el panorama educativo en materia de LE ha cambiado considerablemente en los últimos años, creemos que el plan de estudios debería replantearse y parece absolutamente necesario que los futuros maestros no solamente adquieran formación en cuestiones relacionadas con la Didáctica del Inglés, sino que resulta imprescindible que adquieran conocimientos básicos sobre el desarrollo del plurilingüismo y sus principios metodológicos, en concreto aquellos relacionados con la metodología AICLE. Entendemos, por tanto, que los seis créditos asignados a esta materia y que describíamos en apartados anteriores no son suficientes para abordar todos los contenidos que serían necesarios para lograr esos objetivos. Por tanto, la ampliación de materias relacionadas con la metodología AICLE y la demanda del alumnado de las Facultades de Educación en estas cuestiones son también datos ya discutidos ampliamente a lo largo de este capítulo.

Asimismo, una revisión para la mejora e implementación de estos programas bilingües no solo en la etapa de Infantil, sino también en la de Bachillerato parece absolutamente necesaria. Tal y como indicábamos arriba, instamos a las autoridades competentes para que consideren la posibilidad de revisar desde las delegaciones nacionales los planes europeos de financiación con respecto a las acciones de formación permanente para el profesorado de centros no universitarios

(acciones K1) equiparándolas, al menos, con el profesorado de las Facultades de Educación. Esta cuestión no es en absoluto baladí puesto que, en nuestra opinión, la solución al problema debe atajarse en sus raíces y, por lo tanto, si conseguimos un profesorado bien formado en estas cuestiones será posible la transferencia de conocimientos a los futuros maestros que a su vez formarán a los futuros hombres y mujeres del mañana en un contexto europeo pluricultural y plurilingüe.

Por último, en cuanto al programa de auxiliares de conversación, quisiéramos apuntar que, en nuestra opinión, debería hacerse una selección más exhaustiva de los candidatos puesto que, si bien se indica en la convocatoria que los solicitantes deberán ser expertos, se ha podido constatar que los nativos que llegan a los centros no tienen ningún tipo de formación metodológica, ni están familiarizados con la didáctica de las lenguas y que por el simple hecho de ser nativos ya se considera que están capacitados para la labor docente que han de desempeñar en los centros educativos.

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La Educación Intercultural a través de los Contenidos en AICLE en Educación Primaria

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Resumen

AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras) incluye entre sus ejes principales el desarrollo de la conciencia y del entendimiento intercultural. Ello coincide y se alinea con los objetivos educativos del siglo XXI, que persiguen la inclusión social. El objetivo principal de esta investigación es examinar cómo el profesorado AICLE implementa el eje intercultural de dicho enfoque en su planificación docente, concretamente en los contenidos. Mediante un cuestionario abierto, se han analizado las opiniones de 59 maestros AICLE de Educación Primaria de la provincia de Córdoba durante el curso 2015/2016. Para el análisis de los datos cualitativos se ha utilizado el programa Atlas.ti en sus dos vertientes: análisis textual y conceptual, generando así las redes pertinentes. Por otro lado, para el análisis de datos cuantitativos se utilizó SPSS v. 21. con el fin de obtener información sobre la frecuencia de cada código. Los resultados muestran que los contenidos de las asignaturas de Ciencias Sociales (73,7%), Ciencias Naturales (18,4%) y Educación Artística (7,9%) son los más propensos al desarrollo del eje intercultural. Además, los docentes encuestados indican que incluyen contenidos interculturales en sus asignaturas: lingüísticos (60%), tradiciones populares (36%) y contenidos artísticos (4%).

6.1. Introducción

Hoy en día, los enfoques metodológicos más tradicionales y los modelos de aprendizaje se ven obligados a ser revisados con el objeto de poder dar respuesta a las demandas de una sociedad marcada por fenómenos como la globalización ya que este trae consigo innumerables consecuencias a los que la escuela, en muchas ocasiones, ha de dar respuesta. Orientar el

sistema educativo a las necesidades sociales actuales significa entender el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje como el resultado de la construcción activa del sujeto sobre el objeto en cuestión, por lo que se pretende conseguir un alumnado activo que es cada vez más capaz de desarrollar sus propias suposiciones y concepciones sobre el mundo que le rodea, así como de respetar a los demás y aprender de las diferencias.

En este sentido, los métodos de enseñanza deben proporcionar a los estudiantes las construcciones mentales y de procedimiento apropiadas para que puedan seguir aprendiendo por sí mismos de manera autónoma una vez queden fuera del sistema educativo. Para lograr este objetivo, el profesorado y el estudiantado necesitan explorar y aprender juntos, sin dejar de lado el papel crucial de las familias.

La educación no puede apuntar solo a capacitar a futuros profesionales, sino también a preparar a los ciudadanos para vivir y convivir en sociedad. Esta se caracteriza por ser cada vez más multicultural y multilingüe lo que tiene, sin ninguna duda, un fuerte impacto tanto en la educación debido al hecho de que la escuela es un microcosmos que refleja fielmente la realidad social. Esta diversidad cultural debe tratarse como una fuente de crecimiento potencial en lugar de ser considerada perjudicial en la formación del estudiante, ya que le permitirá enriquecerse desde un punto de vista intercultural.

En consecuencia, es esencial que los docentes actualicen su formación para satisfacer estos requisitos, tan interesantes y necesarios hoy en día.

En este contexto, el enfoque AICLE llega a Europa y, por supuesto, a España con una amplia gama de objetivos que cumplir debido a su gran complejidad, entre otros, pretende dar respuesta a muchas de las necesidades previamente mencionadas:

- AICLE brinda la oportunidad de reforzar las habilidades lingüísticas en una lengua extranjera, que permitirá al alumnado establecer relaciones y comunicarse de manera efectiva con personas de distintas culturas. Además, esto no supone incrementar las horas de esa lengua extranjera en un currículo tan denso como el de la educación española, sino que gracias al uso de ese idioma como instrumento, el alumnado puede disfrutar de un aprendizaje más real y productivo. Además, a medida que los alumnos y las alumnas aprenden el contenido de las áreas no lingüísticas a través de la lengua extranjera, no solo están poniendo en práctica dichas capacidades relacionadas con la lengua, sino que también avanzan en otras materias. En definitiva AICLE ofrece la posibilidad de alcanzar un aprendizaje más real y significativo (Vártuki, 2010; Trujillo Sáez, 2010).
- Este enfoque fomenta las habilidades de pensamiento creativo y crítico que son estrictamente necesarias para construir conocimiento, resolver problemas, ser capaz de aprender a través de la intuición e incluso de transformar la información. Las habilidades cognitivas son un eje principal de este enfoque y permiten al alumnado desarrollar capacidades para entender el contenido explicado en un idioma distinto a su lengua materna (Hanesová, 2014). Esto les permite de manera indirecta avanzar en su proceso madurativo, ya que aprenden a enfrentarse al proceso-aprendizaje de una manera autónoma.
- También facilita la interacción entre los contenidos de las distintas áreas del currículum. Esto coincide con uno de los objetivos principales de la educación para el siglo XXI, que defiende que el aprendizaje no está en los contenidos sino en las interacciones que se producen alrededor de ellos. El aprendizaje en red a través de interacciones debe consistir en agregar, re-mezclar y poner en práctica los conocimientos. Todo ello consigue un aprendizaje más efectivo. En este sentido, el AICLE no solo conecta

contenidos lingüísticos y no lingüísticos, sino que introduce temas transversales para “desarrollar un aprendizaje continuo a lo largo de toda la vida en la sociedad global interconectada” (Mehisto, Marsh y Frigols, 2008, p. 14).

- Finalmente, entre los objetivos principales de AICLE, también encontramos el interés por lograr la adquisición de una conciencia intercultural (Coyle 2009, Méndez García, 2012). AICLE fomenta el conocimiento y la comprensión intercultural, y también desarrolla habilidades comunicativas interculturales. Esto es decisivo para sobrevivir en un mundo cada vez más interconectado y globalizado. Asimismo, tiene un potencial específico para desarrollar la competencia intercultural de los estudiantes (Méndez García, 2013). Todo esto, además, está en consonancia con otro de los ejes educativos que se pretenden reforzar y tiene que ver con el diseño e implantación de políticas públicas a distintos niveles (internacionales, nacionales y regionales) para el desarrollo sostenible en el que se cuente con la inclusión social como uno de los pilares céntricos.

En este capítulo se presenta un estudio enfocado en este último punto mencionado, ya que se analiza cómo el profesorado de Educación Primaria está implementando este fin en la planificación y enseñanza de los contenidos de su asignatura.

6.2. Importancia y Conveniencia de AICLE y su Eje Intercultural en el Siglo XXI

A pesar de la flexibilidad de AICLE –existe más de un modelo– la mayor parte de los estudios de investigación empíricos que se han llevado a cabo hasta el momento se centran en alguno de sus ejes de manera aislada. Entre los cuatro bloques que sustentan dicho enfoque (4Cs: Contenido, Comunicación, Cognición y Cultura), el contenido y el eje comunicativo son los más desarrollados, ya que la mayoría de los académicos han centrado su atención en ellos y se ha comprobado que ambos funcionan de manera eficiente (Navés, 2009). Así, muchos de ellos afirman que el alumnado AICLE mejora sus habilidades comunicativas respecto al alumnado no AICLE y, además, la adquisición del contenido no se ve afectado (Dalton Puffer, 2008).

En consecuencia, una de las cuestiones discutibles de AICLE tiene que ver con el rol del eje intercultural (Cultura). Bruton (2013, p. 591) señala que “in the coverage of content, we cannot ignore knowledge of culture either”, es decir, la cultura no puede dejarse de lado en la adquisición de contenidos. Por otra parte, Marsh, Marjels y Hartiala apuntaban que todos los bloques de AICLE deben estar conectados: “there are five dimensions based on issues relating to culture, environment, language, content and learning ... The dimensions are idealized and should not be viewed as ‘standing alone’, because they are usually heavily interconnected in CLIL practice.” (2001, p. 17). Con estas palabras, se remite sin duda alguna a la necesidad de desarrollar los diferentes ejes de AICLE para que este sea efectivo y eficiente. La cultura da sentido al proceso completo de aprendizaje, por lo que es necesario diseñar e integrar estrategias para incorporar aspectos interculturales en la práctica diaria, aunque esto no sea una tarea fácil.

Carrió Pastor también hace referencia al tratamiento de la diversidad cultural en AICLE y explica que este ofrece la oportunidad de promover la comprensión intercultural, entre otros motivos, porque los alumnos están en contacto con otras culturas de aprendizaje de un contenido no lingüístico a través de una lengua extranjera y desde diversas perspectivas culturales: “language is one manifestation of culture and culture is implied in language” (2009, p. 34). También afirma que toda cultura debe desempeñar un papel importante y ser reconocida por la sociedad, de modo que la gente respete y entienda las diferencias entre costumbres, religiones o tradiciones populares, entre otros. Como vivimos en un mundo global e interconectado, es muy importante considerar diferentes maneras de interpretar la misma realidad, ya que esto enriquece no solo al alumnado, sino también a la sociedad porque se están formando ciudadanos desde una perspectiva más real e integradora. En este sentido, el estudiantado se vuelve más abierto de

mente y es capaz de integrar no solo un segundo idioma, sino también culturas diferentes; su comprensión del mundo es más productiva y holística porque pueden agrupar puntos de vista de personas que pertenecen a un trasfondo cultural diverso. Esto, además, le permite completar su formación siendo un ser humano intercultural cualificado que aprecia la interculturalidad de nuestro contexto: “We have to assume that we are in an intercultural environment constantly and to ignore this reality is to miss a joyful experience. Being aware of the singularity and uniqueness of other cultures enriches us and makes us conscious of the plural interpretations of reality.” (Carrió Pastor, 2009, p. 37).

AICLE está vinculado al desarrollo del conocimiento intercultural debido a la importancia que este concede a la socialización y a las habilidades comunicativas, entendiendo la escuela como un microcosmos social donde se puede comprobar que la convivencia intercultural es posible y no simplemente un lugar donde aprender a leer, a escribir, física o matemáticas. Es más, Portera (2008) señala que es imprescindible crear un ámbito de experiencia común en la escuela, especialmente cuando no existe un contexto cultural compartido. Las habilidades de socialización se desarrollan desde el momento en que los estudiantes se llevan bien con otras personas en el contexto escolar. Estas habilidades también están relacionadas con la competencia social del currículo de Educación Primaria que les permite interactuar en consistencia con el entorno cultural, analizar críticamente diferentes códigos de conducta y entender las diferencias entre grupos étnicos, sociedades y culturas.

Para desarrollar habilidades comunicativas en AICLE, la enseñanza a través de la conversación es la mejor manera de transmitir y explicar una cultura, ya que presunciones, percepciones, valores, creencias y experiencias estarán presentes, por lo que el profesor puede contextualizar su tarea de enseñanza en la base de la experiencia del alumno y la alumna. En consecuencia, no solo obtendremos una enseñanza individualizada, sino que estaremos inmersos en la cultura. Además, este enfoque metodológico ofrece la posibilidad de desarrollar habilidades de comunicación intercultural. En este sentido, Holliday et al. (2010) coinciden en que es ventajoso cuando se tienen en cuenta tres factores principales: la identidad, la «oclusión» y la representación.

En conjunto, tanto las habilidades socializadoras como las comunicativas permiten al alumnado trabajar eficazmente en colaboración con sus compañeros y compañeras de clase, independientemente de sus bases, entorno en el que viven o cultura de origen, por citar algunos, para participar en actividades interculturales promovidas por la escuela, tales como programas de intercambio que les ayudan a construir confianza en sí mismos y una identidad intercultural que los lleve a evitar posibles conflictos relacionados con el racismo y otros prejuicios (Marsh, et al., 2001), en definitiva, para ayudarles a desarrollar su competencia intercultural.

Asimismo, debe quedar claro que el lenguaje, el contenido y la cultura deben enseñarse conjuntamente, ya que cada uno de ellos está presente en la realidad cotidiana del estudiante. Es cierto que las personas transmitimos nuestros sentimientos, pensamientos, etc. a través del lenguaje y esto explica por qué el lenguaje y la cultura están estrechamente interconectados. Aun así, debemos tener muy presente y ser conscientes de que la cultura no solo influye en el aprendizaje de lenguas, sino que también afecta al aprendizaje de contenidos de áreas no lingüísticas, por lo que la combinación adecuada se compone de tres elementos: el contenido, la cultura y el lenguaje (comunicación). Este eje intercultural, que supone una de las innovaciones de AICLE y que da respuesta a ciertas demandas de la sociedad del siglo XXI, necesita una atención específica por parte del profesorado a la hora de realizar la planificación de su asignatura y de llevar a cabo la acción de enseñar.

Por un lado, los profesores de lenguas extranjeras son más conscientes de la necesidad y la importancia de desarrollar este eje intercultural para cumplir uno de los principales propósitos de las instituciones educativas a nivel supranacional, nacional y local, que tiene que ver con la

interculturalidad y la cohesión social. Este colectivo tiene más experiencia en la enseñanza de la cultura porque frecuentemente este asunto está incluido en su plan de estudios debido a la cercanía existente entre la competencia intercultural y la competencia lingüística en un idioma extranjero. Por otro lado, los profesores de asignaturas de contenido no lingüístico rara vez tienen en cuenta el papel de la comunicación en sus clases, por lo que no incluyen necesariamente asuntos de actualidad o rasgos interculturales dentro de la planificación de su docencia diaria. Por consiguiente, el profesorado que trabaja con AICLE necesita una orientación específica para ser capaces de preparar a su alumnado para que hagan la transición de la conciencia cultural a la comprensión intercultural. Además, de acuerdo con Marsh y Wolf, la cultura incluye el origen cultural del alumnado y el profesorado, sus lenguas maternas o distintas construcciones cognitivas: “teacher/student cultural background, and first languages, diverse mind-sets (ways of thinking) which arise from age, first language, lifestyles preferences, gender, socioeconomic background, etc., and subjects specific cultural ways of thinking and learning.” (2007, p. 35).

AICLE no solo pretende la mejoría de la competencia lingüística, sino que además persigue la adquisición de una conciencia intercultural más profunda a través del posicionamiento del “yo” y el “otro”. En consecuencia, las aulas en general, y no solo aquellas en las que se trabaja la lengua extranjera, deben ser lugares culturalmente sensibles para aprender tal y como señala Porto: “culturally sensitive places to learn” (2010, p. 47). El hecho de aprender a través de una lengua extranjera debe servir como los primeros pasos para abrir la mente de los estudiantes a una perspectiva más amplia y rica. “Relativizing cultural perspectives and the ability to shift between them can be seen as a key element in intercultural learning and development of intercultural competence” (Bennett, 1993, p. 32).

Asimismo, el papel de la cultura en AICLE es fundamental si se pretende conseguir un aprendizaje y entendimientos interculturales: “... the role of ‘culture’ in CLIL is fundamental if we are to achieve intercultural learning and understanding. CLIL integrates both content learning and language learning. However, for this integration to be effective it cannot be left to chance by some process of osmosis but should be planned systematically through the development of ‘intercultural learning’.” (Coyle, 2009, p. 105). Esta última cita de Coyle explica claramente por qué llamamos a la *C* de la Cultura, eje intercultural y tiene que ver con la consecución del objetivo de conseguir el aprendizaje intercultural entre el alumnado.

Como ya hemos comentado, AICLE, como enfoque metodológico, incluye en su formación teórica el desarrollo de la interculturalidad. Además, este interés coincide con otros motivos que impulsan la iniciativa de promover la Educación Intercultural (EI) y la integración de sus principios en los planes de estudio (Banks, 2006; Portera, 2008; UNESCO, 2012). La internacionalización de la educación en sus diferentes niveles (principalmente en la Educación Superior), los objetivos educativos para el siglo XXI y las políticas educativas a nivel supranacional son algunos de ellos.

En primer lugar, el hecho de que la internacionalización de la educación sea una corriente muy extendida en el nivel terciario nos hace reflexionar sobre la necesidad de preparar a nuestros estudiantes desde las edades más tempranas para que posteriormente puedan participar con éxito en programas de movilidad, así como trabajar conjuntamente con alumnado de una amplia variedad de nacionalidades. Para ello, no solo necesitan ser entrenados en habilidades lingüísticas y comunicativas, sino que también es crucial que sean interculturalmente competentes.

En segundo lugar, los objetivos educativos para el siglo XXI incluyen la necesidad de educar para el futuro y educar para convivir en sociedades plurales donde la diversidad cultural está en constante crecimiento.

En tercer lugar, al igual que sucede con la educación bilingüe y plurilingüe, hay un número creciente de políticas educativas europeas en el campo de la EI y la cooperación para afrontar el difícil desafío de proporcionar educación de calidad para todos independientemente

de las culturas, creencias, costumbres y religiones de cada individuo. De hecho, desde 2002, cuando el Consejo de Europa lanzó el proyecto denominado *El Nuevo Desafío de la Educación Intercultural*, ya se comenzó a fomentar la conciencia de la necesidad de introducir como elemento de la EI el diálogo como fenómeno cultural (Samers, 2004). Uno de los objetivos principales era proponer la introducción de principios europeos comunes para la gestión de la diversidad en la escuela, considerando la mayor pluralidad social de sus países (Faas et al., 2014).

Peñalva Vélez y Soriano (2016) también destacaron la importancia de la interculturalidad y de la Competencia Intercultural (CI) para desarrollar una identidad europea entre los ciudadanos. En este contexto, entendemos la interculturalidad como el proceso de interacción y comunicación entre las diferentes culturas, siendo la horizontalidad una característica clave debido a que la igualdad y la empatía son necesarias para lograr una inclusión y una coexistencia real y pacífica. Además, estos objetivos ponen especial énfasis en la promoción del multilingüismo para preservar la diversidad lingüística de cada región mientras se fomentan las competencias lingüísticas de los ciudadanos y las ciudadanas para mejorar sus perspectivas de trabajo y el entendimiento entre personas de diferentes culturas.

Este contexto debe ser tenido en cuenta cuando los profesores diseñan y planifican el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje en aspectos como la selección de los contenidos que brindan la oportunidad de trabajar hacia valores interculturales como la empatía, el pensamiento crítico, el respeto y el trabajo cooperativo. Además de estos valores, el contenido no debe dirigirse simplemente a conocer aspectos desde una dimensión teórica, sino que debe servir para ayudar a la intervención directa en la realidad. El contenido (para ayudar a establecer diversas formas de comunicación y expresión) les hace desarrollar el pensamiento crítico y así percibir la compleja realidad social desde diferentes puntos de vista (Sales Ciges, 2012).

Hasta el momento no existen muchos estudios vinculados al eje intercultural de AICLE (Méndez García, 2014; Sudhoff, 2010; Gómez Parra y Pérez Gracia, 2016). Estos indican algunas de las ventajas de utilizar AICLE como un enfoque pedagógico para mejorar la competencia comunicativa intercultural de los estudiantes y las estudiantes (Byram, 1997) y la comprensión intercultural. Algunos de ellos tienen que ver con la utilización en el aula de materiales reales en el idioma de destino; su autenticidad ayuda al alumnado a obtener algunas ideas sobre las diferentes perspectivas extranjeras. En el mismo sentido, las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación (TIC) ofrecen inmensas oportunidades de acceso a este tipo de materiales didácticos para ser utilizados en diversas áreas de contenido no lingüístico (Do Rosário Sousa, 2011). González Rodríguez y Borham Puyal realizaron un estudio en el que utilizaron textos literarios multiculturales para promover la CI en contextos AICLE. Sus resultados les ayudaron a afirmar que “by reading multicultural fictions that portray varied attitudes, feelings and assumptions on a given topic, students will acquire a richer and broader perspective on a theme... this would allow students to become interculturally competent as they explore a topic from foreign viewpoints” (2012, p. 110).

La escasa investigación en este sentido nos hizo centrar nuestra atención en este eje y analizar si los docentes que trabajan con AICLE en Educación Primaria están desarrollando el mismo en la planificación de sus contenidos, así como en la praxis diaria con el objetivo de poder utilizar los resultados para tomar las correspondientes medidas al respecto.

6.3. Metodología

La combinación de investigación cualitativa y cuantitativa es necesaria para buscar posibilidades más diferenciadas de análisis de datos. Bazeley (2010) señaló que dicha integración de métodos ayuda al investigador a alcanzar un objetivo común y, por lo tanto, a conseguir resultados y

hallazgos que nos brindan una perspectiva más holística y lógica. En este sentido, un método de investigación mixto nos permitió acercarnos al conocimiento de la realidad social a través del estudio de discurso de los docentes y analizarlos en profundidad.

La finalidad principal de esta investigación es analizar cómo el profesorado AICLE de Educación Primaria implementa el eje intercultural de dicho enfoque metodológico en la planificación de los contenidos de su asignatura.

El instrumento utilizado para recoger las opiniones de dicho profesorado consiste en un cuestionario de preguntas abiertas. Este fue validado por un sistema de inter-jueces constituido por tres expertos en el ámbito de estudio. Después de sus consideraciones, el cuestionario quedó compuesto por dieciséis preguntas recogidas en ocho dimensiones: conocimiento previo, contexto, objetivos, contenidos, competencias, estrategias, recursos y evaluación. En este capítulo hemos utilizado la dimensión de contenidos que incluía dos preguntas: ¿en qué bloque de contenidos de su asignatura es más propenso el desarrollo del eje intercultural? ¿Qué contenidos interculturales incluye y aborda desde su asignatura?.

La muestra del estudio está compuesta por 59 profesores de un total de 87 que estaban enseñando su asignatura de contenido no lingüístico a través de una lengua extranjera (Inglés) en Educación Primaria en centros privados y concertados de Córdoba durante el curso académico 2015/2016. De la muestra total, el 66,1% eran mujeres y el 33,9% eran hombres, cuya edad promedio era de 35 años. Por otra parte, alrededor de la mitad de ellos (52,5%) tenía una experiencia docente inferior a diez años. La formación de dichos docentes era bastante variada, aunque puede ser agrupada en dos grupos: 22 de ellos tenían formación estrechamente ligada a la lengua inglesa (Filología Inglesa, Traducción) mientras que 37 habían estudiado carreras de educación (Magisterio o Grado de Educación Primaria en cualquiera de sus especialidades o menciones).

Para analizar los datos arrojados del cuestionario se han utilizado dos programas. Por una parte, Atlas.ti, que nos permitió aplicar técnicas de análisis de datos cualitativos; por otra parte, el paquete estadístico SPSS v.21 fue utilizado para los datos cuantitativos (Tabla 6.1).

TABLA 6.1. Técnicas de análisis de datos

	Análisis	Finalidad
Atlas.ti	Análisis de contenido – Textual – Conceptual	Reducir, categorizar, resumir y comparar la información.
SPSS v.21	Análisis descriptivo – Frecuencias	Conocer los códigos más citados entre las respuestas de los docentes para comprender y analizar cómo trabajan el eje intercultural a través de los contenidos en la Educación Primaria

6.4. Resultados

En esta sección se presentan los resultados del estudio atendiendo a la codificación, sistematización y análisis de los datos cualitativos tras haber utilizado Atlas.ti, así como los resultados arrojados de los análisis realizados con SPSS.

6.4.1. Análisis Textual del Contenido

La dimensión correspondiente a contenidos incluye dos preguntas bien diferenciadas, tal y como explicamos en la sección anterior.

Respecto a la primera de ellas (*¿En qué bloque de contenidos de su asignatura es más propenso el desarrollo del eje intercultural?*), los docentes que han participado en nuestro estudio creen que los contenidos relacionados con estudios ambientales (Conocimiento del Medio) y estudios artísticos (Educación Artística) se prestan más a la implementación del eje intercultural de AICLE. Los códigos utilizados por el profesorado nos permite clasificarlos en dos categorías: Plástica y Conocimiento del Medio. Esta última cuenta, además, con dos subcategorías que diferencian entre Ciencias Sociales y Ciencias Naturales (Tabla 6.2).

En cuanto a la segunda pregunta de dicha dimensión (*¿Qué contenidos interculturales incluye y aborda desde su asignatura?*), el profesorado encuestado indica que incluyen contenidos procedimentales en su planificación anual. Estos se clasifican en tres subcategorías que, a su vez, se corresponden con los códigos citados en sus respuestas. Estas son: el mundo en que vivimos (tradiciones populares), lingüístico (lengua) y expresión artística (artísticos) (Tabla 6.3).

TABLA 6.2. Categorías, subcategorías y códigos de la primera pregunta

Categorías	Subcategorías	Códigos	%
Conocimiento del Medio	Ciencias Sociales	CS-Vivir en sociedad	50%
		CS-El mundo en que vivimos	10,5%
		CS-Huellas del tiempo	13,2%
	SUBTOTAL		73,7%
	Ciencias Naturales	CN-Seres vivos	18,4%
SUBTOTAL		18,4%	
Plástica	Educación Artística	A-Expresión artística	7,9%
	SUBTOTAL		7,9%
TOTAL DE LA PRIMERA PREGUNTA			100%

TABLA 6.3. Categorías, subcategorías y códigos de la segunda pregunta

Categorías	Subcategorías	Códigos	%
Contenidos procedimentales	El mundo en el que vivimos	Tradiciones populares	36%
	SUBTOTAL		36%
	Lingüísticos	Lengua	60%
	SUBTOTAL		60%
	Expresión artística	Artísticos	4%
SUBTOTAL		4%	
TOTAL DE LA SEGUNDA PREGUNTA			100%

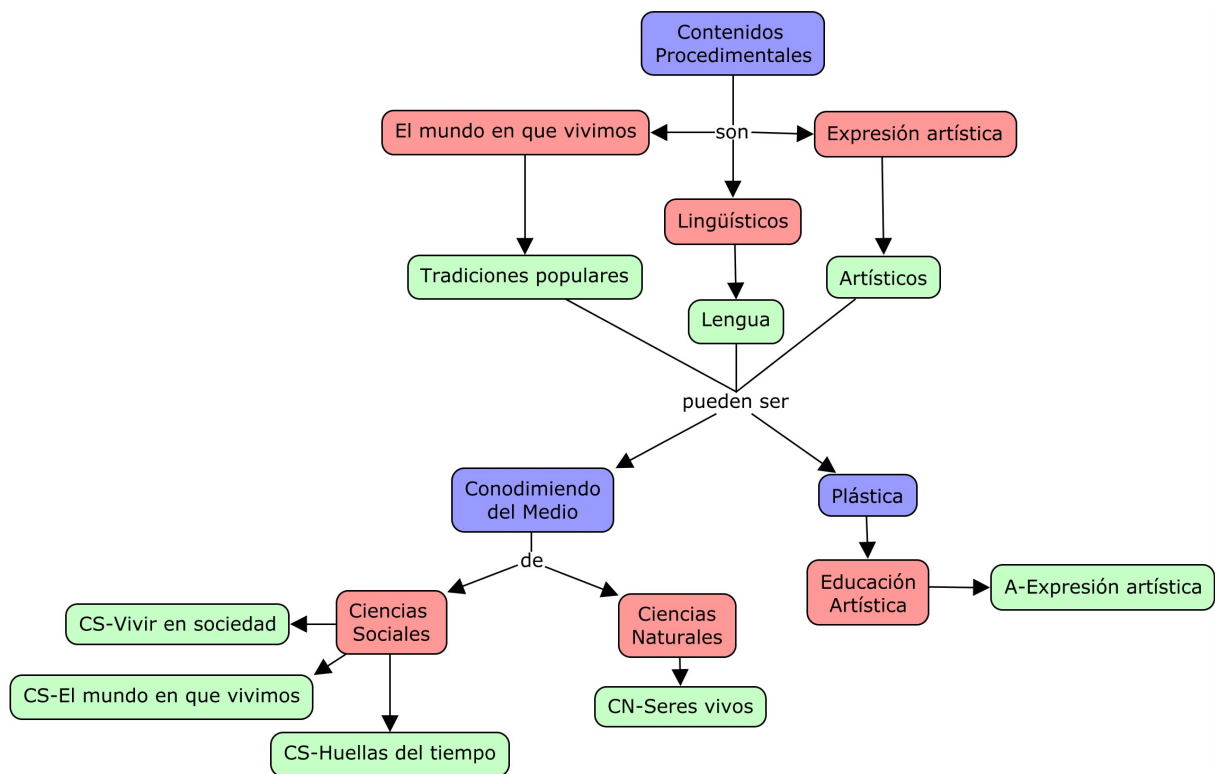
6.4.2. Análisis Conceptual del Contenido

Este análisis consiste en interpretar los elementos creados tras el análisis textual intentando realizar una aproximación al significado de cada uno de ellos, así como de las relaciones establecidas entre ellos (Figura 6.1).

Los docentes señalan que tres de los cuatro bloques de contenidos de la asignatura de Ciencias Sociales son los más propensos para trabajar el eje intercultural de AICLE: *Vivir en Sociedad*, *El Mundo en que Vivimos* y *Huellas del Tiempo*. Un número menor de profesores apunta los contenidos de Ciencias Naturales, aunque solo hace referencia a uno de sus bloques: *Los Seres Vivos*. Finalmente solo tres profesores seleccionan los contenidos de *Expresión Artística* como los más propensos a desarrollar los objetivos que involucra dicho eje.

Además de los contenidos propios de cada una de las asignaturas que el profesorado encuestado imparte utilizando el enfoque AICLE, también señalan otros que abordan en su práctica docente y con los que están convencidos de que forman al alumnado en valores, actitudes y conocimientos propios de la educación intercultural (Figura 6.1). Estos tienen que ver con tradiciones populares fundamentalmente de países anglosajones, con distintos tipos de expresión artística que se puede utilizar para comunicarse con personas de otras culturas y con el mero contenido lingüístico que adquieren al trabajar a diario con una lengua extranjera.

FIGURA 6.1. Red sobre la implementación del eje intercultural de AICLE a través de los contenidos en Educación Primaria



* Nota: morado se corresponde con categorías, rosa con subcategorías, y verde con códigos.

6.5. Conclusiones y Discusión

Respecto a la planificación de los contenidos, los docentes encuestados pudieron identificar qué bloque de contenidos dentro de sus asignaturas es más adecuado para llevar a cabo la implementación del eje intercultural de AICLE. Los profesores de Ciencias Sociales identificaron tres de los cuatro bloques en los que esta asignatura está dividida en el currículo de Educación Primaria de Andalucía. Según su opinión, el bloque más adecuado es *Vivir en sociedad* (19), seguido de *Huellas del tiempo* (5), y *El mundo en el que vivimos* (4). El primer bloque trata la evolución de las sociedades y de la vida en común, respetando y valorando las diferencias entre los posibles grupos que conviven en un mismo contexto en un momento determinado. Esto está en consonancia con la forma en que los maestros entienden la CI, por lo que la mayoría piensa que pueden implementar el eje intercultural de esta manera. El segundo bloque proporciona al alumnado conocimientos sobre el medio ambiente y la intervención humana con el objetivo de que conozcan su realidad cercana y descubran la riqueza de la diversidad geográfica y cultural. Esto coincide con la idea de Portera (2008) sobre EI, cuyo objetivo es enseñar a los estudiantes cómo vivir en paz y proteger el medio ambiente y el patrimonio cultural. El último bloque que menciona el profesorado incluye contenidos relacionados con la historia social y cultural de Andalucía y otras regiones. Los profesores explicaron que este bloque es el más adecuado para implementar el eje intercultural porque hace que los estudiantes comparen las trayectorias de diferentes regiones y valoren el tesoro de la diversidad, para que puedan aprender cómo el mismo hito histórico afecta a diferentes lugares del mundo. Esta idea está en relación con el segundo principio de EI (UNESCO, 2012), que defiende el uso de materiales de enseñanza y aprendizaje específicos para cada contexto (lo que confiere conocimientos sobre historia, fomenta y favorece la IC entre los estudiantes), así como con el tercer principio que puede lograrse si el currículo de una asignatura específica contribuye a aumentar el conocimiento sobre el patrimonio cultural a través de la enseñanza de la historia.

El profesorado de Ciencias Naturales que pudo identificar en qué bloque de su asignatura podían desarrollar el eje intercultural (7 maestros) mencionan uno de los cinco bloques de contenidos: *Seres Vivos*. Proporciona al alumnado conocimientos específicos sobre diferentes estilos de vida. Los docentes pueden implementar adecuadamente el eje intercultural aquí porque es fácil estimular valores como respeto, empatía y tolerancia. El estudiantado, a través de este contenido, aprende cómo viven los diferentes grupos culturales; por lo tanto, no solo pueden compararlas con su propio estilo de vida, sino que deben aprender a respetar y utilizar estas diferencias para enriquecer su propio contexto. Estos contenidos también promueven la capacidad de comprender y compartir las experiencias, rutinas, emociones y sentimientos de otras personas, tal y como destaca Banks (2006) cuando explicó el Enfoque de Acción Social para modificar el currículo de acuerdo a las necesidades de los entornos multiculturales.

Los docentes de Educación Artística enfatizan el bloque de contenidos referente a la expresión artística. Esto queda en línea con Do Rosário Sousa (2011), ya que se refiere a la capacidad de expresar la misma realidad mediante el uso de diferentes estrategias, así como para conocer artistas extranjeros (músicos y pintores).

Por lo tanto, podemos concluir que la asignatura de Ciencias Sociales es la más propensa para implementar el eje intercultural (Gómez Parra y Pérez Gracia, 2016) a través de sus contenidos, ya que sus objetivos están estrechamente relacionados. Sin embargo, también hay códigos culturales ocultos en cada asignatura que necesitan ser trabajados *ex profeso* para dar cuenta de un enfoque realmente integrado de educación bilingüe e intercultural.

6.6. Referencias

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La Educación Intercultural en el Sistema Educativo Español: Educación Primaria

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Resumen

La reflexión por parte del docente y otros profesionales vinculados al panorama educativo es cada día más necesaria. Explotar el potencial de la diversidad cultural que encontramos en las aulas de Educación Primaria se ha convertido en un requisito básico para poder ofrecer una educación de calidad. Motivados por esta exigencia, realizaremos un análisis sobre cuáles han sido las diferentes respuestas que desde la educación se han dado para tratar el tema de la multiculturalidad, apareciendo de esta forma el concepto principal de nuestro trabajo: la Educación Intercultural.

Estudiaremos las distintas estrategias educativas que se han manejado en nuestra sociedad, una sociedad influida enormemente por el fenómeno de la globalización y los flujos migratorios. Además, veremos que la Educación Intercultural es un instrumento que debe ser aprendido y enseñado desde la transversalidad en las escuelas y comprobaremos cómo el conjunto de conocimientos, habilidades y actitudes que dan forma a la Educación Intercultural fomenta un desarrollo de la personalidad humana positivo. Sin profundizar en exceso, también descifraremos cuáles son los objetivos generales de la Educación Intercultural.

Por último, analizaremos la evolución que ha sufrido el marco legislativo educativo en España en relación a la Educación Intercultural y a los aspectos cercanos a este concepto.

7.1. Introducción

En esta sociedad, marcada por la globalización y la presencia de la inmigración en un elevado porcentaje de nuestras escuelas, la Educación Intercultural (EI) se consolida como respuesta a la diversidad cultural. Simultáneamente, se ha llegado a la conclusión de que la Competencia Intercultural debe fomentarse en el alumnado para que su paso por una escuela, cada día más inclusiva, sea realmente un proceso significativo (Aguado, Ballesteros, Malik y Sánchez, 2003).

La tradicional composición homogénea de las aulas españolas ha cambiado con la reciente, y cada vez más común, incorporación de estudiantes procedentes de culturas distintas a la nuestra. Este proceso de adaptación puede ser valorado como una nueva dificultad en el sistema educativo español. El origen de algunos conflictos, derivados de una convivencia negativa entre culturas, se asigna al espacio escolar, al identificarse este como el lugar donde hay que corregir prejuicios y estereotipos negativos ante lo diferente, aunque algunos de estos convencimientos estén directamente arraigados en los círculos familiares y sociales más cercanos al niño (Aguilera, Gómez, Morollón y Vicente, 1996). En este contexto, el de la sociedad multicultural, las diferencias culturales entre las comunidades minoritarias y las mayoritarias que conviven en una misma ciudad suelen considerarse un problema delicado y no una fuente de enriquecimiento mutuo.

La complejidad del proceso recae en que tanto las personas que pertenecen a la cultura de acogida como aquellos inmigrantes que aportan novedades desde su prisma cultural comparten espacio vital, pero no necesariamente características como sus costumbres, creencias o idioma, por citar algunas de ellas. Esta nueva realidad social pluricultural, que se encuentra en continuo proceso de “fabricación”, demanda la renovación de estrategias educativas para afrontar el tremendo desafío desde el punto de vista del respeto a los distintos grupos étnicos y la inclusión sociocultural de estos.

En este capítulo, detallaremos los distintos modelos educativos que se han llevado a cabo para responder a la diversidad cultural desde el campo de la educación. En el siguiente apartado analizaremos cómo la EI desempeña un papel protagonista en cuanto al desarrollo de la personalidad humana. Sucesivamente, comentaremos algunos de los objetivos generales que la EI incorpora en el sistema educativo español, finalizando con los cambios que se han dado en la legislación educativa durante las últimas décadas y que han afectado, directa o indirectamente, a la implementación de la EI en las aulas de Educación Primaria de nuestro país.

7.2. Diversidad Cultural: Réplica desde la Educación

La diversidad cultural ha acompañado a los seres humanos desde el principio de los tiempos. Sin embargo, en los últimos años ha cobrado especial importancia para los medios de comunicación y principales organigramas sociales y políticos, haciendo parecer un concepto contemporáneo que solo pertenece a la historia reciente. No obstante, para Soto (2006) la novedad es la evidencia social y la necesidad de regular las estructuras sociales para una convivencia positiva de distintas culturas.

Las instituciones escolares y su relación con la comunidad del propio barrio juegan un papel muy importante en las relaciones que se dan entre los distintos grupos étnicos que forman parte de la mayoría de sociedades democráticas.

La comprensión de un aspecto como la diversidad cultural, tan dada a interpretaciones variopintas, viene sujeta al dominio de dos términos que son utilizados continuamente: cultura mayoritaria y minoritaria. Manejaremos la definición establecida en una entidad sobradamente justificada como es la UNESCO (1995, p. 37): entendemos cultura minoritaria como aquellos

“grupos marginados o vulnerables que viven a la sombra de poblaciones mayoritarias que tienen una ideología cultural diferente y dominante, la cultura mayoritaria”. En otro documento difundido por la UNESCO (2010) se asigna el término cultura minoritaria a cuatro grupos principalmente:

“1) pueblos autóctonos o indígenas, cuyo linaje se remonta a los habitantes aborígenes del país... 2) minorías territoriales, grupos con una larga tradición cultural... 3) minorías no territoriales o nómadas, grupos sin vínculos especiales relacionados con un territorio... 4) inmigrantes...” (p. 37)

De igual modo, también es importante aclarar las diferencias conceptuales de los términos multicultural, pluricultural e intercultural, ya que es muy común el error de tomarlos como sinónimos. La multiculturalidad es un término descriptivo que se refiere al hecho de que varias culturas cohabiten en un mismo espacio, local o internacional, sin la obligatoriedad de que exista una relación entre ellas (Kymlicka, 1996). No obstante, es difícil diferenciar entre las ideas de multiculturalidad y pluriculturalidad, constituyendo la principal distinción que en un contexto pluricultural los distintos grupos étnicos no están divididos o separados, siendo este un aspecto característico del contexto multicultural (Walsh, 2001).

Por último, encontramos el concepto más novedoso, el de interculturalidad, que entendemos como la interacción directa entre dos o más culturas en un mismo espacio, manteniendo igualdad total entre ellas en cuanto a derechos y obligaciones.

El principal aspecto que debemos tener cuenta para definir un contexto como intercultural o pluricultural reside en la posibilidad de verificar como tal dicho ambiente. Es decir, mientras que un entorno pluricultural es relativamente fácil de identificar (ya que distintos grupos étnicos conviven sin barreras de ningún tipo), el entorno intercultural pleno no existe todavía (o, al menos, es un hecho que no está verificado) sino que es una realidad que se intenta construir mediante acciones inclusivas, concretas y permanentes (Aranda, 2011).

La relación entre la educación y la diversidad cultural es un tema investigado por numerosos autores (Cole, 1954; Juliano, 1993; Pérez y Sarrate, 2013; Vivanco, 2015). De tales trabajos se pueden extraer numerosos enfoques que vinculan estos dos conceptos en el contexto internacional. Sin embargo, ya que nuestra aportación está basada en el análisis del sistema educativo español en relación al término EI, no entraremos en detalles teóricos minuciosos.

A continuación, se describen brevemente los cuatro modelos que han tenido mayor repercusión en el binomio educación-diversidad cultural que, a su vez, nos permitirán comprender, comparar y aprender de las distintas respuestas que se han dado desde el campo educativo a la heterogeneidad cultural latente en la sociedad durante las últimas décadas.

El primero es el de *asimilación*, también conocido como *anglo-conformity* en la investigación de Cole (1954) sobre el impacto de la inmigración en los EE.UU. En este modelo, la cultura minoritaria se adapta, o al menos esa es su intención, a la mayoritaria. Esta cultura acepta al grupo minoritario siempre y cuando esta asuma sus hábitos y principios educativos. La metodología que utilizan las escuelas involucradas en este posicionamiento se basa en los fundamentos inculcados en la cultura mayoritaria, ignorando cualquier aportación cultural que proceda del individuo descendiente de la cultura minoritaria.

El siguiente modelo es el de *diferenciación*. En él se reconocen las aportaciones de la cultura minoritaria sin que este hecho tenga repercusión en el currículum de los niños pertenecientes a la cultura mayoritaria; es decir, no existe integración por parte de la contribución que pudiera darse de una cultura a otra (Cortés y Dietz, 2011). Por primera vez aparece la intención de dar espacio a las culturas minoritarias pero de una manera excluyente, ofreciéndole posibilidades paralelas de escolarización a estos niños. Se reconoce la coexistencia de diferentes

grupos étnicos pero prácticamente sin convivencia entre ellos; cada uno en su barrio, cada uno en su escuela.

El tercer procedimiento estaría marcado por la *integración*. La escuela parte de un trato igualitario para todos los niños, sin que haya damnificados ni favorecidos según su origen cultural (Vallejo, 1998). Todos los alumnos disponen de los mismos recursos materiales y personales en igualdad de condiciones, asistiendo a los mismos centros educativos. El reconocimiento a los derechos culturales y educativos del alumno es total e incluso se incorporan aspectos significativos de los grupos étnicos minoritarios al currículo escolar.

Por último, tendríamos un modelo hipotético que contaría con un auténtico *currículo intercultural*, es decir, un espacio educativo en el que se integraran las aportaciones culturales de las comunidades minoritarias presentes en el aula (y en el contexto más directo). Además, también deberían ser reflejados curricularmente aspectos básicos de culturas que puedan entenderse como lejanas en términos de espacio y tiempo. De acuerdo con esta opción, los procesos de planificación y de actuación educativa asumirían la diversidad cultural como riqueza, procurando que de este beneficio salieran favorecidos todos los integrantes de todos los grupos étnicos (Schmelkes, 2000).

7.3. Educación Intercultural: Desarrollo de la Personalidad Humana

La educación ayuda a la humanización del hombre (Kant, 1983). Por tanto, en pleno siglo XXI, que la EI se haya convertido en un elemento fundamental para el pleno desarrollo de la personalidad humana es un hecho irrefutable. Asimismo, la educación es el mejor instrumento para solventar los problemas que ocasionan la falta de respeto hacia la diversidad, el racismo o la carencia de competencias interculturales que encontramos en un amplio sector de la humanidad (Sáez, 2006).

La EI es un hecho educativo en sí mismo y tiene la misión de proporcionar a los alumnos las capacidades necesarias para desenvolverse como ciudadanos de un mundo cada vez más heterogéneo y global, entendiendo que existe interdependencia con el resto de ciudadanos. Estas cualidades tendrán un papel significativo en la trascendental cuestión del reconocimiento a la diversidad cultural (Odina, Gil-Jaurena y Benito, 2005). Tal y como se expresa en el artículo 26.2 de la Declaración de los Derechos Humanos:

“La educación tendrá por objeto el pleno desarrollo de la personalidad humana y el fortalecimiento del respeto a los derechos humanos y a las libertades fundamentales; favorecerá la comprensión, la tolerancia y la amistad entre todas las naciones y todos los grupos étnicos o religiosos, y promoverá el desarrollo de las actividades de las Naciones Unidas para el mantenimiento de la paz”. (p. 7)

La afirmación anterior insinúa que la EI deberá presentar alternativas para que el desarrollo de la personalidad conlleve el aprecio y respeto por las otras ideologías de vida. De acuerdo con Delors (1996), la educación debe ser una herramienta que permita a todos, sin excepción, desarrollar cada uno de sus talentos y capacidades creativas para que, de esta forma, cada ser humano pueda responsabilizarse de su proyecto personal.

En otro documento que debemos tener en cuenta, la Declaración del Consejo de la Unión Europea sobre la lucha contra el racismo y la xenofobia (1997), se comentan algunas de las actitudes, aún hoy persistentes que deben ser combatidas por toda la sociedad. Vera, Muñoz y Merino (2002) destacan en su investigación algunas conclusiones de dicho documento. Algunas de las más llamativas son: las actitudes xenófobas perjudican la cohesión social; el pluralismo se entiende como un enriquecimiento y signo representativo de Europa; deben eliminarse los

estereotipos y prejuicios; las escuelas deben fomentar valores que favorezcan actitudes tolerantes, pacíficas, solidarias, cooperativas y de respeto a los derechos humanos.

La EI tiene como objetivo potenciar el desarrollo de la identidad personal y cultural de manera individualizada. Cada persona debería disfrutar del derecho de ejercer su cultura dentro del marco del respeto, sin sentirse discriminado ni limitado en su contexto directo (Fozdar y Volet, 2012). Sin embargo, otros autores (Jordán, Ortega y Mínguez, 2002) defienden que la EI no se centra simplemente en la reivindicación de la cultura de cada individuo, ya que esto daría pie a entender el fenómeno de la cultura personal como algo estable, impidiendo, por tanto, la integración de cualquier extraño. Los autores mencionados anteriormente entienden la EI como la búsqueda del encuentro y el contacto entre personas que no comparten la misma cultura, desembocando en un contexto que no contempla barreras que impidan la reciprocidad y el diálogo flexible.

Continuando con este planteamiento, que protege la idea de que la EI favorece el desarrollo personal humano, podemos sostener que es necesario impulsar la interacción entre los distintos grupos étnicos que forman nuestra sociedad, lejos de entender como única válida y verdadera la cultura original de un contexto. Según Escámez (2002), no se puede conocer al otro sin comunicarte con él, sin relacionarte con su entorno. Precisamente, es el prefijo *inter-* de la palabra intercultural el que nos sugiere que la percepción que tenemos de otra persona no depende de las características personales que el uno tenga del otro, sino de las relaciones que cosechemos entre ambos.

Por este motivo, desde el Consejo de Europa se declaró que la EI estaba encaminada a equipar a cada persona con una serie de capacidades y actitudes para que pudieran convivir positivamente en cualquier sociedad intercultural actual. También se afirmaba desde esta organización que la interculturalidad no estaba destinada solo a los inmigrantes o personas de origen diverso, sino que está orientada a toda la población, independientemente de que seamos ciudadanos emigrantes o de acogida. La consecución de este objetivo se antojaría irrealizable sin la potenciación de actitudes interculturales como la empatía, la tolerancia o la mejora del auto-concepto personal.

En definitiva, la EI reconoce individualmente a las personas, pero también a su grupo étnico, sus tradiciones, la historia de su pueblo y sus valores, combatiendo, simultáneamente, los inevitables conflictos y tensiones que se puedan llegar a producir entre distintas culturas. Se trata pues, de formar ciudadanos que respeten la variedad cultural y que, a la vez que enfrentan estereotipos y prejuicios, actúen globalmente teniendo en cuenta los valores, actitudes y sentimientos del resto de habitantes de una sociedad plural (Nikleva, 2012).

7.4. Objetivos Generales de la Educación Intercultural

Los propósitos, contenidos o características de la EI son cuantiosos. Daremos cuenta, sin embargo, de solo algunas nociones que diferentes investigadores de reconocimiento han creído oportuno destacar.

Walsh (2001) definió algunos fines generales que podrían ser aplicados a cualquier contexto intercultural. En todos ellos se puede apreciar, al menos ligeramente, que la EI promueve una relación comunicativa y crítica entre seres humanos y comunidades distintos, a la vez que colabora activamente para que la sociedad mundial sea definitivamente plural y equitativa. En resumen, la EI: fomenta los rasgos culturales de todos los estudiantes; contribuye a la búsqueda de mayor calidad de vida y la equidad para todos; promueve un ámbito educativo en el que todos los estudiantes pueden expresarse bajo su identidad cultural y en el que todos se enriquecen culturalmente; y desarrolla capacidades de comunicación y diálogo equitativo entre todos los miembros de la comunidad educativa y todos los grupos culturales distintos.

Según Díaz-Aguado (2003) los propósitos de la EI son: asegurar el cumplimiento de los derechos humanos, siendo estas barreras inquebrantables en la tolerancia a las diferencias; combatir la exclusión ofreciendo a los alumnos, en igualdad de condiciones, las capacidades para afrontar correctamente la integración social; y mantener el derecho a la propia identidad, asumiendo que todas las culturas son aceptables y válidas.

La investigación de Jordán (2001) clasifica las metas de la EI en cuatro grandes grupos que trataremos de simplificar a continuación. El primer objetivo es *cultivar actitudes interculturales positivas* y englobaría aspectos como: valorar los aspectos positivos de otras culturas, respetar las diversas creencias o religiones, combatir los prejuicios, comprender las distintas visiones que existen sobre el género en otras culturas, valorar e incorporar aspectos positivos de otras culturas. El segundo grupo está relacionado con la *mejora del autoconcepto*, sobre todo si el individuo pertenece a una cultura minoritaria y abarcaría fines como: estimular la participación de todo el alumnado, evitando cualquier gesto de marginación, destacar públicamente los puntos fuertes de cada alumno, incluir en la decoración del aula elementos culturales de todos los niños y alabar en público los progresos educativos de los niños que tengan más dificultades como los alumnos que no comparten el idioma del país de acogida. El tercer conjunto consiste en *potenciar la convivencia* entre todos los alumnos. Esta categoría incluiría aspectos como: fomentar el diálogo y la resolución de conflictos entre los propios alumnos, descubrir las semejanzas que existen entre las distintas culturas, integrar a los alumnos que no procedan de la cultura mayoritaria con el resto de niños mediante actividades y juegos sociales, deportivos y populares. Por último, *garantizar la igualdad de oportunidades académicas*, está relacionado con acciones como: planificar adaptaciones curriculares de calidad para responder a las bajas capacidades de estos alumnos sin bajar el nivel básico, buscar el máximo rendimiento escolar de todos los alumnos prestando especial atención a los niños pertenecientes a culturas minoritarias.

El estudio realizado por Gil, Aguado y Mata (2005) defiende que la EI debe ser abordada y, por tanto, sus objetivos diseñados desde tres elementos claramente diferenciados: contenidos, habilidades y actitudes. En el primer grupo quedarían los *contenidos* entre los que podríamos destacar las características de las diferencias culturales; las causas y consecuencias de los flujos migratorios para las sociedades y para los individuos; y las principales costumbres y creencias de las culturas más presentes en el país y en el contexto local de la escuela. El siguiente espacio sería el de las *habilidades* entre las que se encontrarían aspectos como la superación de los estereotipos asociados a determinados grupos étnicos; la comunicación eficaz en la lengua materna y en la lengua oficial; conocimiento de las características culturales de cada cultura; desarrollo de destrezas sociales positivas para una convivencia pacífica entre distintas culturas; y la evaluación crítica de la propia cultura. Por último, las *actitudes* contemplarían aspectos como: el respeto a la igualdad de derechos y justicia social; la inquietud y curiosidad por otras formas culturales; el reconocimiento de valores como la empatía, la solidaridad y la tolerancia; el desarrollo de una auto-imagen positiva; la aceptación de formas de pensamiento, comportamiento y expresiones culturales distintas de la propia; y la visión positiva de la diversidad cultural a modo de enriquecimiento para la comunidad.

7.5. La Educación Intercultural en las Políticas Educativas

La EI ha adquirido gran relevancia en el ámbito educativo español; sin embargo, encontramos la necesidad de analizar si verdaderamente las leyes educativas implantadas en nuestro país han tenido en cuenta la gran diversidad cultural que encontramos a diario en nuestras escuelas. Para ello, realizaremos un barrido histórico de las políticas educativas de los últimos cuarenta años que nos ayudará a comprender hasta qué punto la EI ha sido sopesada y convenientemente valorada.

Resulta llamativo que algunas iniciativas pedagógicas, con la EI como protagonista, se han llevado a cabo basándose en las características y singularidades de cada Comunidad Autónoma.

Debe resaltarse que España se trata de un país descentralizado en cuanto a las competencias educativas que marcan el rumbo de las distintas comunidades autónomas; es decir, los gobiernos regionales disponen de la posibilidad, y tienen la responsabilidad, de adaptar la política nacional a sus contextos.

Rodríguez, Gallego, Sansó, Navarro, Velicias y Lago (2011) presentan algunas de las contribuciones más significativas de las últimas décadas presentes en documentos oficiales:

- 1980, *Ley Orgánica de libertad religiosa*. Garantiza el derecho a que cada estudiante, independientemente de su origen cultural, reciba educación de sus respectivas religiones.
- 1990, *Ley Orgánica de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo (LOGSE)*. Promueve el reconocimiento positivo de la diversidad en contextos escolares. No obstante, incluye varios objetivos que favorecen la EI. Promover el conocimiento de las culturas propias de los diferentes estudiantes y realzar el plurilingüismo son dos de los que más relación guardan con la EI. Además, en su Prefacio (1990, p. 28927), dice así:

“La educación permite, en fin, avanzar en la lucha contra la discriminación y la desigualdad, sean éstas por razón de nacimiento, raza, sexo, religión u opinión, tengan un origen familiar o social, se arrastren tradicionalmente o aparezcan continuamente con la dinámica de la sociedad”.

En definitiva, de acuerdo con esta ley, la educación es la manera de prevenir y evitar acciones discriminatorias.

- 1992, *Ley Orgánica de cooperación con la comisión islámica de España*. Esta ley se centra en el aspecto religioso e indica que los estudiantes deben disfrutar del derecho de faltar a las clases que coincidan con alguna festividad religiosa, así como poder elegir una dieta alimenticia especial de acuerdo a sus creencias (por ejemplo los estudiantes musulmanes).
- 1995, *Ley Orgánica de la Participación, la Evaluación y el Gobierno de los centros docentes (LOPEG)*: “Las Administraciones educativas prestarán especial apoyo a aquellos centros que escolaricen alumnos con necesidades educativas especiales o estén situados en zonas social o culturalmente desfavorecidas” (artículo 6.1). Garantiza la educación de los niños que viven en contextos sociales y culturales desfavorecidos.
- 2000, *Ley Orgánica de los Derechos y Libertades de los Extranjeros en España y su Integración Social*. Esta ley otorga a los estudiantes inmigrantes el derecho y el deber de tener acceso a la Educación Primaria y Secundaria, así como la oportunidad de disfrutar de la Educación Post-Obligatoria si así lo desearan. Además, la normativa defiende que incluir a los estudiantes extranjeros en el sistema educativo ayuda a su integración dentro y fuera del contexto escolar, a la vez que fomenta que los estudiantes sean conscientes de la necesidad que supone respetar y valorar las diferencias culturales.
- 2002, *Ley Orgánica de la Calidad Educativa (LOCE)*. La principal aportación de esta ley es una defensa acérrima de la igualdad de oportunidades y derechos para todos los estudiantes. Igualdad para todos y todas, en las mismas condiciones, valor de gran relevancia de la EI.
- 2006, *Ley Orgánica de Educación (LOE)*. Impulsa la compensación de las desigualdades que se dan en el ámbito de la educación. Aplicar el principio de igualdad en el

proceso educativo desarrollando acciones compensatorias destinadas a individuos, grupos o áreas en situaciones desfavorables, con el objetivo de prevenir o solventar desigualdades sociales, económicas, culturales o de cualquier otra índole. En el capítulo 1 de este documento aparece por primera vez el término “interculturalidad” en las políticas educativas españolas: “La formación en el respeto y el reconocimiento de la pluralidad lingüística y cultural de España y de la interculturalidad como un elemento enriquecedor de la sociedad” (artículo 2). Por tanto, la LOE establece el respeto hacia la pluralidad lingüística y cultural, contexto en el que la interculturalidad es un factor clave para lograr que las sociedades progresen adecuadamente.

- 2013, *Ley Orgánica de Mejora de la Calidad Educativa (LOMCE)*. Es la ley educativa actual y no incluye explícitamente nada relacionado con la EI. En cambio, sí incluye algunos términos e ideas clave que están incluidos en este enfoque, por lo que vamos a comentarlos para analizar la posibilidad real de implementar un enfoque orientado a la EI en los centros educativos españoles actualmente.

En primer lugar, cuenta con siete competencias clave que deben estar presentes en el currículo de Educación Primaria de cada escuela, siendo la Competencia Lingüística y las Competencias Social y Cívica aquellas que guardan mayor relación con la EI. Este hecho cambia la metodología en la etapa educativa para dar más/mayor cabida al aspecto transversal que tiene el objetivo de relacionar distintas asignaturas a la vez en el currículo. Al igual que su antecesora (LOE), la LOMCE también defiende que la educación en este campo es necesaria para lograr la evolución de las sociedades.

Esta ley también garantiza el derecho de todo estudiante a tener las mismas oportunidades, es decir, no solo beneficia a aquellas personas que pertenecen a grupos minoritarios, sino que también favorece al resto del alumnado para que pueda desarrollar su potencial.

El hecho de proporcionar la igualdad de oportunidades a todo ser humano es uno de los principios fundamentales de la EI, así como conseguir que la educación sea un elemento esencial en nuestras sociedades. De esta manera, se consigue la capacidad de adaptación del sistema educativo a las continuas demandas sociales, como por ejemplo, el desarrollo del dominio de lenguas extranjeras.

Como ejemplo concreto, el texto dice que la transmisión de valores así como la tolerancia y el respeto son decisivos: “transmisión y puesta en práctica de valores que favorezcan la libertad personal, la responsabilidad, la ciudadanía democrática, la solidaridad, la tolerancia, la igualdad, el respeto y la justicia, así como que ayuden a superar cualquier tipo de discriminación” (LOMCE, pág. 19373). Sin duda, estos valores están en concordancia con los principios de EI.

A lo largo de la normativa existen otros ejemplos en los que se trata la inclusión del aprendizaje de los elementos culturales en la práctica diaria, sin embargo, se refieren a los nacionales con el objetivo de lograr la integración de los estudiantes de origen extranjero a nuestro contexto, por lo que el enriquecimiento mutuo no tiene lugar al prescindir del componente cultural minoritario.

Finalmente, la LOMCE señala la importancia de sensibilizar a los estudiantes y a la comunidad escolar sobre temas (salud, migración, etc.) y problemas (contaminación, calentamiento global, racismo, etc.) que afectan simultáneamente a la mayoría de países. Al igual que destaca el protagonismo y las aportaciones de diferentes sociedades, civilizaciones y culturas al desarrollo de la humanidad.

En definitiva, a pesar de que la EI no está explícitamente incluida en las políticas educativas españolas, sí está presente de alguna manera y debe ser tomada en cuenta por los profesores cuando organizan su planificación.

7.6. Discusión y Conclusiones

Tal como hemos comprobado, los objetivos generales de la EI presentan una amplia variedad en el contexto de la ley, la investigación y la praxis escolar. Sin embargo, si nuestra intención fuera resumir todos y cada uno de los objetivos generales que nuestro estudio nos ofrece en una sola meta, a sabiendas de que se perdería información muy valiosa, destacaríamos que la EI no busca el aprendizaje de culturas distintas a la propia, por muy interesantes que puedan llegar a parecerse; su principal intención es aprender de la aproximación entre seres humanos que se da en cada encuentro pluricultural. Como ya hemos comentado en la definición inicial de estos términos, diariamente cohabitamos en un contexto pluricultural, debido al desarrollo imparable del proceso globalizador al que nos enfrentamos en la actualidad. En cambio, aún nos falta un largo trayecto en nuestra búsqueda de la sociedad intercultural que pueda sostener a las nuevas generaciones de estudiantes que han experimentado políticas educativas que tienen en cuenta a la EI.

Los alumnos que puedan ser considerados interculturalmente competentes serán aquellos que hayan logrado aprender que, partiendo de que cada individuo tiene una experiencia vital (es decir, una cultura arraigada a su personalidad), el éxito del ciudadano del mañana será tener la capacidad de valorar, respetar y aprender de las diferencias culturales que, irremediablemente, poseerán sus vecinos más próximos. Tan solo así disfrutaremos de sociedades más diversas, más pacíficas y más ricas desde un punto de vista cultural y humano.

La EI no está presente de forma literal en la legislación educativa española. Es cierto que nuestro barrido histórico refleja que estamos avanzando en el camino correcto y que la educación en nuestro país está orientándose poco a poco hacia la transversalidad, pero aún nos queda un largo recorrido. La educación por competencias rompe finalmente con la escuela tradicional y con el estancamiento que normalmente se le presupone al sistema educativo español. Sin embargo, aunque la EI comparte algunos aspectos básicos con alguna de ellas (tómese como ejemplo las competencias lingüística, social y cívica), aún no dispone del espacio y protagonismo que se merece en el currículo oficial de cada comunidad autónoma.

La carencia de conocimientos, habilidades y actitudes relacionadas con la interculturalidad se encuentra en la base de muchas situaciones complicadas, incluyendo conflictos de tipo bélico o económico, que los ciudadanos se ven obligados a superar en la actualidad.

En definitiva, la igualdad de oportunidades, derechos y obligaciones entre seres humanos llegará de la mano de la EI, ya que esta contiene los mecanismos que contribuyen a promover valores esenciales como la tolerancia, la solidaridad, la justicia y la libertad entre los distintos grupos étnicos y culturales que convivirán en las naciones de un futuro próximo.

7.7. Referencias

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Educación Intercultural y Género

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Resumen

Este capítulo trata de demostrar la influencia que la globalización ha tenido y tiene en la sociedad actual, ya que transforma permanentemente las relaciones entre los seres humanos. Dentro de estos cambios, una de las tendencias que trata de abrirse camino con más fuerza es la de una educación intercultural que, evidentemente, supera con creces la perspectiva multicultural. Este nuevo modelo educativo tiene como estrategia fundamental el diálogo intercultural como recurso para poder entender la riqueza existente en la diversidad. La transversalidad de género cobra especial relevancia en la concepción y la praxis de la educación intercultural, ya que sin esta variable no es posible lograr que la sociedad sea justa y equitativa. La herramienta indispensable para conseguir una ciudadanía futura en la que primen relaciones equitativas entre seres humanos independientemente de su sexo, cultura, etnia o religión es la educación formal o reglada, pero también la educación familiar y social que comenzamos a recibir desde la infancia.

8.1. Feminismo y Globalización

El fenómeno de la globalización es entendido habitualmente como un proceso fundamentalmente económico. Sin embargo, hemos podido comprobar que la globalización ha extendido sus alas de modo que se ha convertido en un medio de trasmisión de ideas, culturas y planteamientos ideológicos que han afectado, en la mayoría de ocasiones negativamente, a las condiciones de vida de las mujeres. Este nuevo mundo globalizado no ha sido capaz de desterrar viejos paradigmas patriarcales que continúan dominando las estructuras sociales de todos los países del mundo.

En este complejo proceso de globalización, o quizá por su causa, se ha producido una crisis sistémica que está desmoronando todos los derechos y valores de referencia, por lo que parece imprescindible analizar cómo impacta la crisis actual en las mujeres y recrudece la múltiple discriminación aún latente. La crisis económica y los recortes adoptados en respuesta están provocando duros efectos sociales, reflejados en las cifras de paro, desahucios y avance de la pobreza que impactan en toda su crudeza en los hogares. Pero no afectan por igual a todos los miembros de la familia; se muestran más duros con las mujeres, que asumen el trabajo derivado del recorte de servicios públicos y, en muchos casos, las dificultades impuestas por menores ingresos.

Aunque pueda pensarse, en principio, que la crisis sistémica que nos sacude afecta a hombres y mujeres por igual, un análisis más profundo demuestra que las mujeres están siendo más afectadas por el azote de la crisis. Y, fundamental y específicamente, este mayor castigo viene propiciado por la vuelta a la asignación de roles de género en un orden patriarcal.

Es evidente la relevancia que adquiere la responsabilidad atribuida a las mujeres en el “cuidado de la vida” o también llamado “trabajo de cuidados”, porque aunque no están remunerados, sí demandan tiempo y esfuerzo. Además, no solo no está considerado socialmente sino que, de hecho, se ‘invisibiliza’ sistemáticamente. El hecho de que en los últimos años anteriores a la crisis, y en el contexto de entender la “ética de los cuidados” la puerta para el bienestar social, se haya considerado fundamental el apoyo a las personas dependientes, las medidas de conciliación en las empresas públicas y privadas, la protección de la maternidad, etc. ha hecho pensar a muchas mujeres que los derechos adquiridos se constituían en inamovibles, y que los derechos conquistados podían beneficiar por igual a mujeres y hombres. Lo cierto, sin embargo, es que son mayoritariamente las mujeres quienes han atendido y atienden estos cuidados de la vida sin los cuales no se podría mantener un estado de subsistencia digno. En el caso del cuidado de personas mayores dependientes, el perfil prototípico de la persona cuidadora en España es una mujer de edad media; y, de hecho, ocho de cada diez personas que están cuidando a un familiar son esposas, hijas y nueras (INE, 2015). Este trabajo, además del esfuerzo físico, demanda capacidad de demostrar cariño y afecto hacia las personas que cuidamos y, además, la mayoría de las veces también requiere la capacidad de adaptar horarios y dedicación a la persona dependiente al resto de la familia.

Las repercusiones de la falta de corresponsabilidad en los “trabajos de cuidados” están propiciando un aumento de contratos a tiempo parcial en el sector de las mujeres. Los resultados de la Encuesta de Población Activa de 2016 (EPA, 2016) señalan que el trabajo a tiempo parcial ha aumentado considerablemente en los últimos años. A finales de 2016 había en España 2,83 millones de empleos a tiempo parcial, récord histórico en España porque supone un porcentaje superior al 15% del total. Pero el hecho más relevante es que si hay algo que caracteriza al empleo parcial es estar ocupado por mujeres. Según la EPA (2016), el 72% de las jornadas reducidas son de mujeres. En total, 2,05 millones de puestos a tiempo parcial son ocupados por mujeres, record histórico en España. Los hombres apenas ocupan 776.000 empleos de este tipo.

Las razones que argumentan hombres y mujeres para aceptar este tipo de jornada son diferentes. Aunque la principal razón es no encontrar un trabajo a tiempo completo, los porcentajes varían significativamente ya que, en el caso de los hombres, dos terceras partes dicen tener un trabajo a tiempo parcial por no encontrar uno de jornada completa, mientras que en el caso de las mujeres la proporción baja casi 10 puntos, hasta el 58% del total. Pero, a partir de aquí, se encuentran pocas similitudes. La segunda razón de los hombres para tener un trabajo a tiempo parcial es la compatibilización con los estudios, mientras que los estudios solo afectan al 4,2% de las mujeres, menos de la mitad que a los hombres. La aceptación o solicitud de un trabajo a tiempo parcial por motivos familiares afecta a un 20% de mujeres y solo a un 3% de hombres. En Europa, la presencia de mujeres también es mayoritaria en el empleo a tiempo parcial. De los 42 millones de puestos con este tipo de jornada, el 75% son desempeñados por mujeres.

Esta circunstancia está implicando una minoración para las mujeres: menor cotización, menor cuantía en la prestación de desempleo, menor pensión de jubilación y, en definitiva, un aumento del riesgo de exclusión social y una tendencia al alza de la feminización de la pobreza tal y como se reflejó ya en la IV Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas Sobre la Mujer (Naciones Unidas, 1995). Se deduce, por lo tanto que, este aumento tan notorio en la parcialidad de los contratos está provocando también una pérdida de empleo para empleadas del hogar y para las cuidadoras externas de personas dependientes que, a su vez, son en su mayoría mujeres.

Según el informe estadístico del Ministerio de Sanidad, Servicios Sociales e Igualdad Mujeres en Cifras (2013), existe una repercusión directa y colateral para las mujeres debido a los recortes que se están produciendo en los pilares básicos. En efecto, dentro de los ámbitos laborales más feminizados, se encuentran la educación y la sanidad. El 63%, del profesorado en el conjunto de la enseñanza no universitaria española son mujeres. Algo similar ocurre en Sanidad ya que, aunque solo sea en los empleos de estrato medio y bajo, en enfermería las mujeres representan un 82% de ocupación y en el sector médico un 42%, porcentajes que van en aumento desde el año 2000. Si a esto se une que Educación y Sanidad están sufriendo recortes salariales importantes, podemos concluir con absoluta certeza que están siendo mayoritariamente las mujeres quienes están afectadas por los menores ingresos para invertir en servicios que faciliten la carga que supone el trabajo del cuidado de la vida que les ha sido asignado como rol de género. Como conclusión, podríamos decir que la crisis afecta a las mujeres en especial, no solo como empleadas, sino también como empleadoras; puesto que los recortes salariales y la merma de servicios característicos del Estado de Bienestar Social repercuten directamente sobre su calidad de vida.

Se evidencia también que, como consecuencia de la crisis, se está produciendo un retroceso considerable con respecto a los años anteriores en cuanto al derecho de la maternidad y en medidas de conciliación familiar. Así, el permiso por el derecho a la maternidad, que es exclusivo de las mujeres, se ha convertido en un dilema para muchas de ellas; tienen que afrontar el miedo a perder el empleo ante la llegada de un descendiente y, además, soportar el desprestigio ante sus colegas en el caso de no ser sustituidas, lo que ahora es muy corriente. En el caso de las medidas de Conciliación Familiar, la cuestión podría ser distinta ya que el derecho a conciliar lo tienen tanto hombres como mujeres. Pero lo cierto es que la gran mayoría de las personas que se acogen a las medidas de conciliación siguen siendo mujeres; con lo que, de nuevo, se añade otro riesgo de ser implicadas en una consideración negativa, pues esta decisión termina también de algún modo repercutiendo sobre sus compañeros y compañeras de trabajo. De hecho, el aumento desmesurado de la contratación parcial de las mujeres está directamente relacionado con la incompatibilidad de horarios laborales y familiares a causa de la conciliación.

Así, y a modo de conclusión, la ética del cuidado se sitúa con exclusividad en el ámbito económico y vuelve a significar el punto central del impacto de la crisis sobre las mujeres ya que, como venimos diciendo, la determinación de roles de género implica una múltiple discriminación para las mujeres; pues no solo afecta a la doble jornada con implicaciones afectivas y de calidad de vida, sino también al ámbito personal, social y laboral.

En definitiva, aunque el impacto de la crisis sea, sin duda, global, no se puede ocultar que tiene un efecto más pernicioso sobre el sector de las mujeres. Pues si el neoliberalismo económico está produciendo un desmantelamiento de los derechos sociales, advocando a un cierto darwinismo como solución individual extrema a estos graves problemas de convivencia, ¿cómo las mujeres, en particular, pueden conjugar este doble rol?; pues ya es manifiesto y hemos tratado de demostrar que, en tiempos de zozobras, son ellas las que están siendo obligadas a volver asumir el rol prototípico patriarcal, si alguna vez llegó a perderse. Se les requiere que sigan siendo las garantes que avalen los cuidados de la vida desde una “ética económica”.

Son, con estos mimbres, con los que la infancia accede a la educación, sea del país de donde sea con lo que desde que nacemos ya traemos definido un sesgo de género que va a

identificarnos y tratar de encasillarnos a lo largo de nuestras vidas. Hay que tener en cuenta que el paradigma humano que aún continúa vigente en el siglo XXI es un varón blanco con un estatus económico medio, sano y heterosexual. Esto significa que toda variable con respecto a este modelo va a representar un motivo de discriminación. Si a estas “variables” le añadimos la categoría “mujer” ignorando que somos que 52% de los seres humanos que habitamos el mundo (Lamus Canavate, 2012) se incorpora otra discriminación añadida por el hecho de no ser varón. Es decir, la mayoría de los seres humanos somos mujeres y sin embargo nos comportamos como si fuésemos minoría, lo cual constriñe nuestros comportamientos e, incluso, nuestras actitudes desde que nacemos.

Hombres y mujeres tendemos a catalogar el mundo que nos rodea y la educación recibida por unos y por otras durante tantos siglos ha hecho los estragos pertinentes. Tendemos a definir el mundo en elementos binarios y opuestos (Cixous) y entre esos binarios y opuestos uno de ellos es la categoría hombre-mujer.

Desde la antigüedad y a pesar de la insistencia del sistema patriarcal en mantener a las mujeres como seres humanos con aptitudes para ser madres y esposas, sin derecho a la educación, ni a la autonomía personal ni, a la independencia económica, las mujeres, unas veces a modo individual y otras de modo colectivo, han debido desafiar a la sociedad para poder demostrar algo que evidente: que son seres humanos y como tales les pertenecen unos derechos que van más allá del sexo, etnia o religión. En esta lucha individual y colectiva, unas veces abanderando el feminismo y, otras veces sin mucha conciencia de ser feminista, se ha moldeado otro modelo a seguir de corte occidental donde han predominado las mujeres blancas, de clase media europeas y norteamericanas, dando lugar a distintas corrientes o modelos feministas. El enorme esfuerzo acometido por estas mujeres no se ha traducido en la consecución de una sociedad más justa para las mujeres. En el camino, en ese camino de construir igualdad, de tratar de deconstruir un modelo social obsoleto e injusto, hemos aportado una mirada propia del paradigma adecuado a la sociedad en que vivíamos la mayoría pero sin analizar en profundidad la realidad de las otras mujeres: las que no son blancas, las no occidentales, las que no son de clase media o media alta. De modo inconsciente se ha construido un modelo de feminismo occidental en el que aquellas mujeres que no se identificaban con dicho paradigma no eran consideradas como feministas.

8.2. Globalización e Intercultura

Entre los efectos positivos de la globalización toma especial relevancia la facilidad de movilidad que hemos adquirido los seres humanos. La facilidad para viajar de un país a otro, la rapidez de comunicación a través de las redes, el aumento del número de personas con conocimiento de una lengua extranjera, especialmente el inglés, incluso denominado ya como ‘lingua franca’ ha favorecido la interacción e interrelación de ciudadanos y ciudadanas de distintos países, culturas, etnias y religiones.

Si bien este hecho ha ocurrido desde siempre, en la actualidad ocurre con más frecuencia, por lo que se hace necesario revisar la literatura vertida sobre cómo abordar las relaciones entre personas de distintas creencias. Durante mucho tiempo se ha hablado de multicultural, de integración y términos similares que vienen a indicar que las relaciones que se establecen entre personas que viven en un país extranjero son desiguales, ya que deben integrarse en las costumbres y cultura del país en el que viven. En definitiva, se establecen unas relaciones de poder entre las personas nativas del país y las extranjeras. Esta desigualdad desaparece en mayor o menor medida dependiendo del estatus social y/o económico de la persona extranjera. Esta visión integradora, que no inclusiva, es lo que puede explicar, en gran parte, que segundas y terceras generaciones descendientes de una etnia en un país extranjero, ya en realidad nativas, se rebelen en contra de su propio país. En realidad, lo que ha ocurrido es que se encuentran en situación de vulnerabilidad y, por lo tanto, se manifiestan con despecho. Afortunadamente, aunque tarde, la sociedad, o al menos cada vez más personas, intentan dar un giro a este modo

de relacionarnos tratando de que personas de distinto sexo, cultura, religión y etnias, puedan convivir en igualdad y con respeto a las distintas creencias. Este cambio solo puede conseguirse desde la inclusión de las personas. No es una cuestión de integrar sino, de incluir.

Sin embargo, este reto no es fácil. Las sociedades son aún muy cerradas y guardan, a veces con excesivo celo, costumbres y usos que incluso van en contra de los derechos humanos pero que se cobijan bajo el falso concepto de cultura. Es obvio que quienes así lo entienden, pretenden convencerse de que la cultura es algo estático e inamovible. Nada más lejos de realidad. La cultura es dinámica y con una capacidad de transformación, que se enriquece con los avances sociales y, entre estos, el más fundamental es, sin duda, la capacidad que tienen los seres humanos de relacionarse entre sí con respeto a la otredad y con la capacidad de ponerse en el lugar de la otra persona. Esta forma de relacionarse en equidad y con respeto por las otras culturas establece una nueva forma de entender el mundo y los acontecimientos que ocurren en él. Si bien estaremos de acuerdo en que esta forma de interactuar sería la correcta y evitaría los desastres humanos a los que diariamente asistimos, también estaremos de acuerdo en la dificultades que hemos de afrontar para que este modelo se implante.

8.3. Género e Intercultura

Cuando hablamos de relaciones desiguales y de poder, las existentes entre hombres y mujeres son el ejemplo por excelencia. En todos los lugares del mundo, existe inequidad entre mujeres y hombres, y esta desigualdad crece cuando se introduce la variable de mujeres extranjeras no occidentales. Cuestiones complicadas que se relacionan con cultura o religión afloran, además, a una superficie plagada de prejuicios por una parte y, por otra parte, a una errónea relación de usos y costumbre con cultura y religión que, en realidad, obedecen al mandato patriarcal concreto de un país y que a menudo no respeta la condición de derechos humanos. Ejemplos de debates y decisiones de países occidentales tomando decisiones sobre el uso del velo, la ubicación de los crucifijos en las aulas y otra serie de cuestiones que se resolverían con mayor facilidad en caso de que las interacciones interculturales se hubiesen desarrollado correctamente.

La solución no es fácil pero debemos pensar que existe y que no puede ser otra que la que una dos ejes: género e intercultural y, que ambos pasen por el tamiz de la educación tanto reglada como no reglada. La educación es la herramienta más eficaz que tenemos para combatir las desigualdades de cualquier tipo. Y cuando creíamos que el avance de la sociedad era imparable, que ya poco quedaba por hacer, que los derechos humanos se respetaban y que gozábamos de buena salud ética y social, nos hemos dado cuenta de la cruda realidad: que a pesar de tener acceso a multitud de informes de todo tipo, a la información que necesitamos de manera inmediata, a las condiciones necesarias para que nuestra mente pueda abrirse a nuevas ideas, al conocimiento de otras culturas y a todo aquello que nos produzca interés y curiosidad la sociedad, parece retroceder a pasos agigantados, ampliándose la brecha entre quienes piensan que debemos aportar solidaridad, respeto a la otredad y nuevos paradigmas que nos permitan una convivencia pacífica propia del siglo en que vivimos, y entre quienes se radicalizan en lo local y en lo previsto en los paradigmas tradicionales. En definitiva, parece oportuno concluir que a pesar de tener a nuestro alcance la oportunidad de informarnos, la formación en cuestiones sociales escasea en los distintos niveles educativos, tanto si hablamos de educación formal, como si nos referimos a la no formal, es decir, a la recibida en el ámbito familiar y social, incluyendo en éste a los medios de comunicación.

8.4. Educación Intercultural y Género

No podemos entender una educación del siglo XXI que no contemple, ignore o sesgue la inclusión de la perspectiva de género. Que ignore que un 52% de la población son mujeres.

Que estas mujeres no son el colectivo o la categoría mujer, sino que existen en su rica diversidad étnica, religiosa, cultural, pero que todas al igual que todos los hombres han sido educadas y educados en un sistema patriarcal impermeable a toda aquella idea que igualara en derechos a los dos sexos. Si, además, se incluye la vertiente intercultural, la cuestión se complica, ya que mantenemos un doble discurso: el políticamente correcto, afirmando que incluimos a todas las personas sin importar su origen o condición, y el interior, que más temprano que tarde transpiramos en nuestros comportamientos estableciendo unas relaciones de poder entre quienes pertenecen al paradigma predominante y quienes no.

Desde la perspectiva de educación formal es obvio que se ha avanzado en el camino de la interculturalidad, pero aun no lo suficiente. Como en otras muchas cuestiones no puramente académicas, la interculturalidad no es solo cuestión de información, sino de formación profunda, de creencias, de tener una actitud positiva para interiorizarlas. No es posible enseñar ni transmitir valores en los que realmente no se creen. Las interacciones interculturales de calidad han de basarse en el respeto bidireccional entre quienes pertenecen a una cultura y a otra.

En el caso de la educación formal, la formación en valores interculturales debe estar dirigida al profesorado, en primer lugar, ya que será este estamento el que deberá primero deconstruir todo el imaginario que hace que, aunque la sociedad se manifieste en su mayoría a favor de la inclusión de personas extranjeras, en la vida diaria los hechos nos demuestran, con frecuencia, todo lo contrario.

En el caso de las niñas y mujeres extranjeras están aún más expuestas por la posición de mayor vulnerabilidad que le otorga el sistema patriarcal fuertemente consolidado. Es cierto que en los centros escolares cada vez con más frecuencia se desarrollan actividades específicas para conseguir un intercambio cultural entre niños y niñas, e incluso familias de distintos países, culturas y religiones y, si bien es verdad que es innegable el avance, debemos esforzarnos aún más por conseguir una educación más inclusiva. Así lo considera el informe de la UE de Diciembre de 2015 (European Commission, 2015) donde se especifican las recomendaciones necesarias para hacer posible el valor de la inclusión como el referente de la educación actual. Hemos de tener en cuenta que en la infancia no se tiene conciencia de las diferencias entre los seres humanos. Somos las personas adultas quienes educamos, formal e informalmente y, como consecuencia, quienes transmitimos los valores y las actitudes, las creencias, los usos y las costumbres tanto en positivo como en negativo. En este aspecto debemos considerar de vital importancia para la consecución de nuestro objetivo el diálogo intercultural. Sin embargo, debemos ser conscientes de la dificultad de usar esta herramienta, ya que, si bien se habla con frecuencia de ello, tal y como apunta el informe de UE (2015), se basa en un concepto cuyo objetivo es la protección de los derechos humanos y de la diversidad cultural.

La mayoría de las veces la dificultad de llevar a cabo este diálogo en cualquier ámbito, incluyendo las aulas, es el choque que se produce entre el concepto de cultura y el de derechos humanos, ya que como decíamos al principio de este capítulo, estos últimos no están garantizados cuando nos basamos en el principio de que la cultura es estática. Lo único que puede salvarnos de la obsoleta creencia que nuestra cultura es la mejor, y que quienes vengan de fuera deben adaptarse a ella, es tener la actitud positiva necesaria para aceptar que la cultura es dinámica y que su diversidad y riqueza es fruto, precisamente, del entendimiento entre distintas culturas.

Este planteamiento desarrollado desde la infancia dará sus frutos, sin duda alguna, en la vida adulta, cuando mujeres y hombres de distintos países y culturas conformen una ciudadanía intercultural. El diálogo intercultural promoverá también la motivación, el interés y la curiosidad necesarias como para incentivar la movilidad de unos países a otros, lo que facilitará, a su vez, la convivencia entre las diferentes culturas.

Si bien como hemos referido antes, el profesorado de todas las etapas educativas ha de estar sólidamente formado en la competencia intercultural de modo que el alumnado pueda

adquirirla y desarrollarla, esta formación debe extenderse al ámbito familiar, ya que la educación formal sin el apoyo de las familias no llegará a ser una formación integral, con lo que se produce, a menudo, un choque de actitudes que provoca confusión y frecuentemente una regresión a los planteamientos culturales estáticos.

Las escuelas de familias deben convertirse en el ámbito natural donde se establezca la importancia del diálogo intercultural y a educarse en ello en familia. La importancia de comprender la diversidad y la riqueza cultural, enseñar el respeto a los derechos humanos, cuáles son y que pertenecen a todos los seres humanos, es una enseñanza fundamental para conseguir una sociedad más justa y equitativa. Es obvio que conseguir este objetivo es muy complicado, ya que vivimos en una sociedad donde el bien máspreciado, el tiempo, es muy escaso. En este tipo de sociedades donde el tiempo nos controla, y no al contrario, es muy complicado conseguir reunirse para formarse, si dicha formación no forma parte de nuestras necesidades profesionales. Solo una minoría de personas pueden permitirse el lujo de formarse por el mero placer e interés de hacerlo.

Pero la construcción de la sociedad del futuro también depende de otros factores que influyen enormemente en la educación, que desconocemos más de lo que creemos y que aún no sabemos las repercusiones futuras, pero podemos predecir que no serán todo lo buenas que debieran. Nos referimos a las redes sociales que invaden las vidas propias y ajenas. Que nos exponen públicamente ante otras personas, que vierten opiniones sin apenas filtros. Desde ellas, asistimos impasibles a los acontecimientos de un mundo donde los valores interculturales no están dentro de sus prioridades. Mostrar debilidad puede significar arriesgarse a sufrir acoso, chantaje emocional o cualquier otra situación donde la fuerza es lo que impera. La educación, hoy día, se extiende mucho más que al centro escolar o incluso la familia, con lo que hay una gran parte de la vida de nuestra futura ciudadanía de la que ignoramos prácticamente todo. A este factor, hay que añadir la enorme importancia que en los últimos años ha adquirido el “yo”, con lo que tendemos a pensarnos como referentes y la otredad, por tanto, nos resulta a menudo incomprensible e incómoda. La adquisición, por tanto, de la competencia intercultural sería un valor añadido y un salto cualitativo formativo en cualquiera de las etapas educativas.

8.5. El Bilingüismo en la Educación Inclusiva

Desde el punto de vista social, es evidente que la educación bilingüe se convierte en una buena opción para el fortalecimiento de habilidades, el aumento de la capacidad cognitiva, y el enriquecimiento personal al conocer otras culturas.

La excelencia de la educación bilingüe optimiza las competencias formativas de hombres y mujeres, en esto hay que tener en cuenta que al estar las mujeres en una situación de mayor vulnerabilidad y tener mayor dificultad para acceder al empleo (techo de cristal, suelo de barro, etc.), dicho enfoque metodológico va a eliminar determinadas brechas en este sentido.

8.6. Conclusiones

Hemos tratado de describir la extrema importancia de la educación tanto formal como informal en el ámbito de las relaciones humanas entre personas de diferentes culturas, etnias, religiones y por supuesto entre las personas de ambos sexos. Para lograr unas relaciones que no se sostengan en base al poder de unas personas sobre otras, unas relaciones equitativas y justas, debemos aprender a reconocer la diversidad y las diferencias como el elemento fundamental y vertebrador de las sociedades actuales y democráticas. Hoy más que nunca debemos esforzarnos por lograr este objetivo en el que se trata del alcanzar la dignidad humana universal, ya que los avances que se estaban produciendo han quedado estancados e, incluso, ignorados y olvidados desde el comienzo de la crisis.

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¿Estamos preparados para enseñar a los Estudiantes Migrantes? Una Propuesta de Integración Educativa en los Estados Unidos

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Resumen

El programa de educación migrante en los Estados Unidos está continuamente cuestionado por el tipo de servicios y apoyo que se ofrece a este sector de estudiantes y a sus familias. Como resultado, los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias sufren la segregación y el aislamiento en las escuelas y las comunidades donde viven. En este capítulo argumentamos la necesidad de alcanzar un entendimiento de apreciación sobre la población migrante y toda la riqueza cultural y lingüística que aporta al tejido social, cultural y lingüístico de los Estados Unidos. Tomando el bilingüismo y la interculturalidad como referentes de la población migrante, abogamos por una propuesta de integración que elimine los patrones de asimilación ejercidos sobre estudiantes y sus familiares. Entendemos que los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias han sido y son una fuente de capital socioeconómico, cultural y lingüístico de la que se nutren los estandartes de diversidad, multiculturalidad y multilingüismo de este país.

9.1. Introducción

En esta segunda década del siglo XXI varios intelectuales y educadores han analizado el concepto de integración dentro del marco educativo. Este análisis se centra en los esfuerzos que tienen que hacer los profesionales de la educación para garantizar que todos los estudiantes tienen las mismas oportunidades y reciben una educación de calidad sin importar cual sea su etnia, raza o estatus económico. Entre este grupo de intelectuales mencionamos como referencia y para dar un contexto a nuestro trabajo las opiniones de dos prominentes y respetados educadores: Noah Chomsky y Pedro Noguera. Su trabajo en el terreno de la equidad en la educación y en la integración de todos los estudiantes ha tenido y tiene el respeto de toda la comunidad educativa.

Así, en una entrevista concedida al periodista Polychronoiu, de la agencia de noticias Truhtout (2016), Noam Chomsky explicaba el peligro de que “alguien pudiese usar el miedo y el odio que ha estado en ebullición en ciertos sectores de la sociedad americana... hacia los grupos más vulnerables¹ [*someone who could exploit the fear and anger that has long been boiling in much of the society... direct...to vulnerable targets*].” Asimismo, en un blog del Huffington Post acerca de la necesidad de reflexionar sobre el concepto del capitalismo inclusivo, Pedro Noguera (2015) alertaba “... si de verdad están (los políticos) preocupados en reducir la desigualdad... se tiene que reconocer que las reformas en educación basadas en una política de mercado están reforzando la inequidad en lugar de aminorarla [... *are concerned about reducing inequality... they must also recognize that market-based reforms in education are reinforcing inequality rather than ameliorating it*].”

Tanto la postura de Chomsky como la de Noguera denotan cierto temor, perceptible en la sociedad norteamericana, a volver a un nuevo ciclo de segregación donde se reanimen aquellos mecanismos de exclusión social y escolar que históricamente han servido para marginar a ciertos grupos de estudiantes. Tal y como apuntan en sus estudios Schlessinger, 1998; Gibson y Ríos Rojas, 2006; y Darling-Hammond, 2010, uno de los grupos de estudiantes que ha estado y sigue estando en el epicentro de esta dinámica de exclusión xenófoba y racista son los denominados estudiantes migrantes. Durante décadas, como explica Kozol (2012), usando discursos de economía proteccionista, y con el fin de mantener cierta unión étnica, racial y lingüística, a los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias se les ha etiquetado como un problema que está erosionando la sociedad de los Estados Unidos. No obstante, como explican Suárez-Orozco y Suárez Orozco (2006), este discurso no puede estar más lejos de la realidad: los estudiantes migrantes “añaden nuevos hilos de contraste cultural, lingüístico y racial al tapiz de la diversidad en Estados Unidos [*add new threads of cultural, linguistic, and racial difference to the American tapestry of diversity*]” (p. 105). No solo eso, Quezada, Rodríguez-Valls y Lindsey (2016) afirman que los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias “poseen una riqueza cultural y lingüística... y si los educadores abarcan esta riqueza en términos de lengua, raza, género y status socioeconómico como un activo, entonces se pueden construir las experiencias educativas de los estudiantes [*have rich cultural and language backgrounds... when as educators [we] embrace students’ cultural backgrounds of language, race, gender and socioeconomic as assets we can then construct their educational experiences*]” (p. 7).

Partiendo de la premisa de que los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias aportan un capital multilingüe y multicultural imprescindible para una educación en la diversidad, en las siguientes secciones vamos a analizar la posibilidad de construir una propuesta que fomente la integración de los estudiantes migrantes en el sistema educativo. Primero explicaremos quiénes son los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias. Después analizaremos la estructura del programa de educación migrante y la necesidad de reivindicarlo como un apoyo indispensable para las familias migrantes. Seguiremos con un análisis de dos conceptos claves dentro de este programa: el bilingüismo y la interculturalidad. A este análisis le seguirá la presentación de un modelo de programa de educación migrante basado en estos dos conceptos claves. Concluiremos con unas recomendaciones para posibles futuros estudios y colaboraciones para programas migrantes en diferentes países.

Una idea que recalamos en todas las secciones de este análisis es el imperativo de informarse antes de opinar, de auto-evaluarse antes de dialogar y, sobre todo, de escuchar antes de hablar. Si estamos interesados en prepararnos mejor para poder enseñar a los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias, parece obvio que primero tengamos que conocer en profundidad quiénes son los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias y cuáles son sus circunstancias y su pasado. Si, tal como apunta Lisa Delpit (2006), no sabemos quiénes son los estudiantes migrantes, “¿cómo podremos acceder a sus mundos [multilingües y multiculturales]...? [*how can we reach*

¹ Traducción: El autor tradujo todos los textos en inglés.

the worlds of others? (p. xxiv)]”, ya que la realidad nos muestra que “muchos de nosotros ni nos damos cuenta de que nuestro mundo solo existe en nuestras cabezas [*Indeed, many of us don't even realize that our own world exists only in our heads* (p. xxiv)].”

9.2. El Programa de Educación Migrante (MEP)

En el año 1966, el Gobierno de los Estados Unidos creó el Programa de Educación Migrante² (MEP) con el fin de ayudar a las familias migrantes que vivían en condiciones infrahumanas y apoyar a los estudiantes migrantes que carecían de niveles básicos de alfabetización y educación. Este programa está financiado por el gobierno federal que dota a cada estado de una cantidad de dinero, dependiendo el número de estudiantes migrantes identificados por las agencias estatales y locales. La agencia estatal que recibe el dinero gestiona los fondos y los programas de educación migrante en colaboración con las agencias locales de educación –oficinas del condado y distritos escolares. Estas agencias locales proponen cada año un presupuesto y un plan de servicios para los estudiantes migrantes que debe ser aprobado por la agencia estatal para así poder recibir los fondos necesarios y desarrollar e implementar programas suplementarios.

Antes de explicar en detalle el funcionamiento, los mecanismos de financiación y los servicios que ofrece el MEP, es importante señalar cuáles son las características que definen a un estudiante migrante, ya que en muchos casos se tiende a confundir el concepto de estudiante migrante con el de estudiante inmigrante. Para poder recibir los servicios que proporciona el MEP, el estudiante migrante tiene que reunir las siguientes características: 1) ser mayor de dos años y menor de veintidós, 2) ser parte del sistema de educación pública y no haber recibido un título o un equivalente a nivel de la escuela preparatoria [*high school*], 3) tener la necesidad de trasladarse por razones laborales de una ciudad a otra por sí mismo o con su padre, madre, esposo, esposa, o la persona que tiene su custodia, siendo todos estos trabajadores migrantes, 4) cambiar de residencia como mínimo una vez cada treinta y seis meses, 5) que este cambio de residencia conduzca a la obtención de un trabajo dentro de los parámetros del programa de educación migrante, y 6) que los parámetros del programa de educación migrante considerados se centren en la búsqueda de un trabajo temporal, ya sea en la agricultura, relacionado con la pesca, fábricas de enlatados o en mataderos de reses.

Mas allá de estas características estipuladas por la ley, y que definen el financiamiento e implementación del programa, existen unos rasgos que definen a los estudiantes migrantes en términos de sus experiencias y su riqueza cultural y lingüística. El primero de estos rasgos es su origen inmigrante antes de convertirse en estudiantes y familias migrantes. La totalidad de las familias migrantes son familias inmigrantes que abandonan sus países de origen para venir a los Estados Unidos. Desde países como México, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Laos o Tailandia entre otros, las familias inmigrantes deciden, debido a diferentes situaciones –ej. precariedad económica, acoso político, discriminación–, cruzar la frontera con Estados Unidos. Tras su llegada a los Estados Unidos, estas familias inmigrantes se convierten en migrantes (se mueven en busca de trabajo) y de este modo pueden acceder a los servicios que ofrece el MEP.

Esta metamorfosis que transforma a las familias inmigrantes en familias migrantes no borra ni elimina sus lenguas y culturas. Los estudiantes migrantes en los Estados Unidos, a la vez que aprenden inglés, siguen hablando lenguas como el mixteco, zapoteco, triqui, hmong y español. Estas lenguas son parte de culturas, usos y tradiciones milenarias en estados como Oaxaca, Puebla, Guerrero y Veracruz en México o en regiones de Myanmar, Laos y Tailandia.

² Programa de Educación Migrante- los fondos del programa apoyan la educación de calidad para niños migrantes y asegura que estos no sean penalizados de ninguna manera por las disparidades entre los diferentes planes de estudio de cada estado, los requisitos de graduación o el contenido curricular y los estándares académicos de los estados donde residen y trabajan los estudiantes migrantes. <http://www.k12.wa.us/MigrantBilingual/Services.aspx>

Teniendo en cuenta estos rasgos, parece obvio inferir que los mayores retos que tienen los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias son: poder tener la estabilidad necesaria para integrarse en las comunidades a donde llegan, sentirse que pertenecen a estas comunidades y garantizar el éxito académico de los estudiantes (Lu y Zhou, 2013; Rodríguez-Valls y Torres, 2014). Es por ello que el MEP funciona como un mecanismo de apoyo en la educación y en temas de salud.

En el plano educativo, el MEP ofrece clases de refuerzo para paliar los cambios de contenido curricular que los estudiantes migrantes afrontan al trasladarse a una nueva ciudad o un nuevo estado. Los distritos escolares diseñan proyectos para suplementar la educación que reciben los estudiantes durante la jornada escolar. De acuerdo con el Código de Educación en la sección 54444.3(a), estos proyectos deben construirse a partir de un análisis de las necesidades de los estudiantes migrantes y deben suplementar la educación que estos reciben por el hecho de estar en un escuela pública en los Estados Unidos. Los programas del MEP deben ser un suplemento que enriquezca la educación de los estudiantes migrantes, aminore los retos que estos afrontan en las escuelas y reduzca la desigualdad de oportunidades que existe entre los estudiantes migrantes y otros grupos de estudiantes (Bejarano y Valverde, 2012; Rodríguez-Valls y Kofford, 2017).

En el tema de la salud, el MEP proporciona servicios médicos relacionados con visión, higiene dental y nutrición. Estos servicios son primordiales para paliar las condiciones a las que se enfrentan las familias migrantes cuando están trabajando en el campo y fábricas expuestas a sustancias tóxicas y condiciones de trabajo en muchos casos nocivas para la salud. Tal y como explican Gibson e Hidalgo (2009) y Vocke y Pfeiffer (2009) en su análisis de los servicios que suministran los programas migrantes, la asistencia en estas tres áreas es clave para poder garantizar que los estudiantes migrantes acudan al aula con condiciones de salud similares a las de sus compañeros de clase. Esta equidad en prestaciones sanitarias es un paso para acortar la brecha de rendimiento académico existente entre los estudiantes migrantes y sus compañeros de escuela (Dustmann, Fratini y Lanzara, 2012).

Aún garantizando estas condiciones, una cuestión vital para asegurar la efectividad del MEP es la preparación que los educadores y todo el personal que trabaja con los estudiantes migrantes debe recibir antes y durante su trabajo en el MEP (Mathur, 2011). Esta preparación incluye dos aspectos esenciales, el bilingüismo y la interculturalidad, sin los cuales la integración de los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias se convierte en un proceso de asimilación y pérdida de su identidad cultural y lingüística (Roer-Strier, Strier, Este, Shimoni y Clark, 2005). No solo esto, es importante recordar, como subraya Rodríguez-Izquierdo (2015) en su estudio de las poblaciones inmigrantes y migrantes, que “con frecuencia, se tiende a identificar a todo el colectivo de alumnado inmigrante [migrante] con un único grupo, por lo general con mayor escasez de recursos económicos” (p. 3).

En el siguiente apartado analizaremos la importancia de conocer, reconocer, valorar e incluir la variedad lingüística y cultural que los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias aportan a las escuelas y comunidades a las que pertenecen y a las cuales dotan de un capital cultural imprescindible a la hora de definir la diversidad en los Estados Unidos (Žižek, 2013).

9.3. El Bilingüismo y la Diversidad Cultural: Axiomas del Programa de Educación Migrante

Tal y como esbozamos en los párrafos anteriores, las familias migrantes gozan de un capital cultural y lingüístico que debería revigorizar el contenido curricular que se imparte en las escuelas. Amanti, Moll y González (2005) definen este capital como los *fondos de conocimiento* que las familias migrantes poseen y utilizan como herramienta de conexión y apoyo entre sus vecinos y familiares. Desafortunadamente, tal y como explica Rodríguez-Izquierdo (2015), existe

una propensión a encasillar a la población [in]migrante como individuos con bajos niveles de educación y conocimiento. La mayoría de estos estereotipos limita la definición de educación y conocimiento a ámbitos académicos, olvidándose de todas las destrezas y habilidades que poseen las familias migrantes tales como “habilidades vinculadas a la agricultura, la cría de animales... la construcción, la música, la religión, la medicina, la reparación de vehículos o la economía” (Esteban-Guitart y Saubich, 2013, p. 198).

A estas habilidades se le agregan dos axiomas que engrandecen el patrimonio de conocimiento de las familias migrantes: su bilingüismo y la diversidad cultural entre los diferentes grupos dentro de la población migrante. Las familias migrantes son bilingües por naturaleza: al proceso de aprender inglés una vez llegan a los Estados Unidos e iniciar su diáspora a través de diferentes estados, se le añade las lenguas originarias de los países y regiones de procedencia. Así, por ejemplo, un gran número de familias inmigrantes mejicanas que llegan a los Estados Unidos hablan lenguas que son parte del conglomerado lingüístico mesoamericano y otomanes del mixteco. Entre estas lenguas se encuentran el trique y el zapoteco. A estas lenguas se les añade en muchos casos el conocimiento que tienen del español, lo que posibilita que sus hijos sean trilingües. Como propone Llorian González (2011), este contexto plurilingüe propicia “la adopción de los llamados ‘enfoques plurales de lenguas y culturas’, es decir, los planteamientos didácticos que ponen en práctica actividades de enseñanza-aprendizaje que implican a la vez **varias** (= más de una) variedades lingüísticas y culturales” (p. 31).

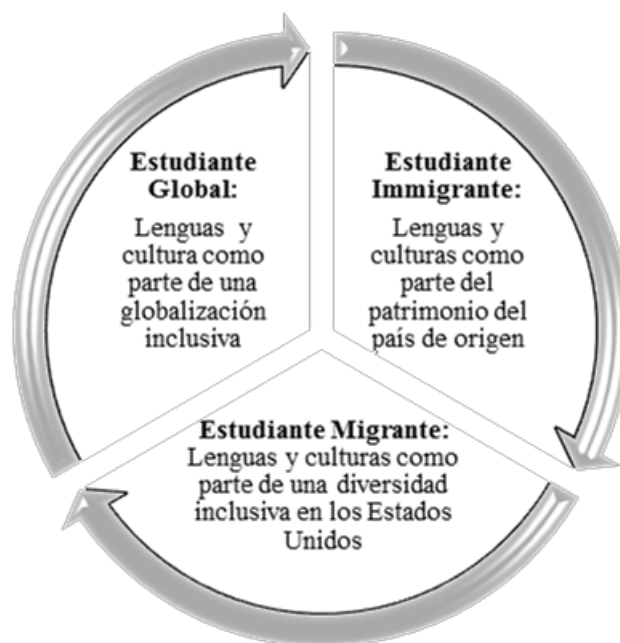
A esta pluralidad lingüística se le añade la diversidad cultural de los diferentes grupos de familias migrantes. Las tradiciones y sus usos culturales son un tesoro que portan con ellos cuando cruzan la frontera con los Estados Unidos y que ceden, como un legado, a cada comunidad a la que llegan para trabajar. Por ejemplo, las familias hmong que viven en el valle central de California siguen cultivando con los mismos métodos que utilizaban en Laos y Tailandia. Esta defensa de sus tradiciones se extiende al esfuerzo que las familias hmong realizan para preservar la tradición oral en su cultura, ya que la lengua hmong carece de un código escrito. Thao (2006) describe este esfuerzo: “La población hmong tiene una tradición oral muy fuerte. Aunque los niños vayan a la escuela y aprendan cómo escribir y estudiar la palabra escrita en casa el uso de la cultura oral sigue siendo fuerte [*the [H]mong people have a strong oral culture. Even though their children are going to school to study the printed word, at home oral culture practices still remain strong*] (p. 6).

Las lenguas y las culturas de las familias migrantes son una constante en el ciclo de transformación cultural y lingüística (Figura 22.1) que inician cuando son familias inmigrantes, para más tarde convertirse en familias migrantes con el sueño de que el sistema educativo en el que se integran las reconozca como familias de pleno derecho en una globalización inclusiva. La clave está en la educación intercultural que, tal y como explican Leiva y Escarbajal (2011) cuando citan a Agudo (2003): “nutre e impregna los principios de una educación inclusiva, donde el referente pedagógico por excelencia es la vivencia y convivencia de la diferencia cultural y social como factor de enriquecimiento educativo” (p. 394).

Si los programas de educación migrante incorporan y analizan cómo las lenguas y culturas pueden enriquecer la enseñanza de los estudiantes migrantes, estos se sentirán partícipes de las experiencias educativas. Si, por el contrario, el sistema educativo fuerza a las familias migrantes a asimilarse y así perder su identidad cultural y lingüística, estaremos perdiendo la oportunidad de crear una educación que muestre a los estudiantes migrantes cómo conectar sus lenguas y sus culturas con las nuevas lenguas y culturas que van a aprender. Los programas migrantes que buscan potenciar la interculturalidad y el bilingüismo deben incluir el análisis de paralelismos y simetrías entre lenguas y culturas (Rodríguez-Valls, 2009). Así, Palmer (2007) nos incita a reflexionar acerca del hecho de que los programas educativos que fomentan la inclusión lingüística y cultural requieren maestros que “posean la capacidad para conectar. Y que, además, sean capaces de tejer una red compleja de conexiones entre sus colegas, las materias que

enseñan y los estudiantes, de tal manera que estos alumnos puedan crear y tejer un mundo para sí mismos [*posses a capacity for connectedness. They are able to weave a complex web of connections among themselves, their subjects, and their students so that students can learn to weave a world for themselves*]” (p. 10).

FIGURA 9.1. Ciclo migratorio de transformación cultural y lingüística



En el próximo apartado vamos a presentar un modelo curricular de Lengua y Literatura para un programa de verano con estudiantes migrantes que residen en una región del sur de California. Utilizando el bilingüismo y la interculturalidad como base curricular, el programa pretende crear espacios para que los estudiantes migrantes entiendan quiénes son y de dónde vienen para de este modo prepararlos para ser adalides de una educación global (Castells, 2013).

9.4. Exploradores del Lenguaje: una Puerta a la Globalización Inclusiva

Uno de los retos que enfrentan a los educadores que trabajan con los estudiantes migrantes es encontrar programas que se hayan diseñado específicamente para ellos. La mayoría de los programas que se dirigen a estudiantes migrantes no incluyen tipologías y estrategias específicas para valorar e incorporar lo que los estudiantes migrantes aportan a los procesos de aprendizaje (Rodríguez-Valls y Kofford, 2017). Conscientes de esta falta de recursos, un profesor de una universidad del sur de California, junto a dos de sus estudiantes, diseñó en 2008 un programa interdisciplinar denominado “*Exploradores del Lenguaje [Language Explorers]*”, que combinaba actividades de lengua y literatura con actividades de artes plásticas – ej. fotografía, grafiti, pintura, música y teatro.

Exploradores del lenguaje es un programa de verano en el cual los estudiantes y los maestros exploran juntos el significado y los componentes de la identidad que definen a un estudiante migrante. Para poder trabajar en el programa, los maestros tienen que completar un taller de formación educativa. En este taller, los maestros analizan su conocimiento sobre la población migrante y trabajan juntos para diseñar un ciclo de aprendizaje y enseñanza en el que la cooperación entre los estudiantes prime sobre la mera transmisión de conocimientos. El taller

enfatisa esta premisa, ya que, como explican Barlett y García (2011), Cummins (2013) y Nieto (2013), los estudiantes [in]migrantes han sufrido durante décadas el impacto de programas de educación basados en conceptos de déficit cultural que los define como estudiantes carentes de habilidades y que solo pueden aprender si se despojan de su identidad para así asimilarse a una nueva identidad “americana”. Para poder sobreponerse a estas metodologías que apuntan a las carencias de los estudiantes en lugar de a sus capacidades, *Exploradores de Lenguaje* crea espacios donde los estudiantes y los maestros analizan el porqué de estas metodologías y cómo poder combatirlos desde una perspectiva de respeto y apreciación de lo que otros aportan a los procesos de aprendizaje.

En el primero de una serie de cuatro proyectos, después de haber leído y analizado algunos capítulos del libro de Sandra Cisneros (1991) *La Casa en Mango Street*, poemas de Tupac Shakur (1999) y viñetas de la novela gráfica *American Born Chinese* creada Gene Luen Yang (2008), los estudiantes escriben una oda como respuesta a la pregunta ¿quién soy yo? Los estudiantes tienen la libertad de escribir en español, en inglés o en cualquier otra lengua en la que se sientan cómodos. El objetivo es que el estudiante vea todos los idiomas como herramientas para comunicar sus ideas. El maestro alienta a los estudiantes a utilizar cualquier idioma para así maximizar el potencial del estudiante. Se potencia la expresión y esta se trabaja desde un método de ensayo y error en lugar de la memorización de reglas gramaticales sin contexto. García y Kleyn (2016) ven en esta maximización de las destrezas del lenguaje donde los estudiantes bilingües, en este caso migrantes, intercambian lenguas, como el motor de una inclusión lingüística que enriquece a todos los estudiantes tengan conocimiento o no de la lengua. Partiendo de la premisa de que no se puede corregir lo que todavía no se ha producido, las odas que escriben los estudiantes son la primera actividad en la que los estudiantes narran y dibujan su identidad. Los maestros utilizan estas odas para reforzar y apoyar el desarrollo de destrezas en todos los idiomas a la vez que incitan a los estudiantes para que éstos sigan analizando su identidad plurilingüe y multicultural.

A estas odas les sigue un análisis etnográfico y fotográfico que los estudiantes hacen de su comunidad. Una vez han empezado a definir quiénes son los estudiantes, investigan cómo su comunidad es un reflejo de su identidad en términos de lenguaje y cultura. Durante un fin de semana, los estudiantes fotografían los elementos que constituyen sus idiomas y sus culturas. Guiados por las obras de Sebastião Salgado y Vik Muniz, los estudiantes buscan espacios y escenas que personifiquen los rasgos que esbozaron en su oda. Desde un cartel de publicidad que combina el español y el inglés hasta una foto de su casa, el estudiante retrata objetos, personas, ideas que contextualizan quién es como miembro de su comunidad. En este recorrido el maestro le pide al estudiante que reflexione y cuente qué rol tienen los diferentes idiomas y las culturas de la comunidad, y a la vez le pide que analice cómo se define su comunidad, ya sea integrando y respetando todas las lenguas y culturas o segregando y dando prioridad a cierto idioma o cultura sobre otras. Es importante recalcar el énfasis en el análisis del uso de las lenguas y culturas más allá de definir estas en términos absolutos. *Los Exploradores del Lenguaje* promueve la idea, acuñada por Freire (1999), de leer el mundo y las palabras con ojos críticos y convertir esta lectura en un proceso de liberación.

Después de este análisis fotográfico de sus comunidades, los estudiantes empiezan a crear etiquetas [tags] que definan su identidad cultural. Ya sea con un dibujo o una palabra, el estudiante tiene que crear una imagen con la idea de que esta formará parte del proyecto final, que es un graffiti integrando todas las imágenes, fotos y odas creadas durante las tres primeras semanas. Este proyecto, como todos los anteriores, va acompañado de actividades de lectura, escritura y diálogo sobre los textos mencionados anteriormente, así como del análisis de vídeos, películas y canciones que exploran temas como la segregación cultural o el status de las lenguas. El estudiante migrante que participa del programa *Exploradores del Lenguaje* se convierte en un productor y consumidor crítico de los idiomas que habla y de las culturas que lo envuelven. Utilizando las palabras de Vidiella Pagès (2009), los lenguajes que generan, analizan

y construyen a los estudiantes migrantes que participan en este programa adquieren “un papel predominante no solo en la producción de realidades [idiomas y culturas], mediante actos de auto-denominación [oda], enunciación [poesía], representación [grafiti]..., sino también en la interpretación, en un acontecimiento político... en un acto de habla” (p. 122).

Como acabamos de mencionar, el proyecto final es un actividad de equipo donde los estudiantes juntan y revisan sus obras anteriores. Utilizando papel de embalaje o una pared como el lienzo del proyecto, los estudiantes van ordenando poco a poco el rompecabezas que representan sus odas, fotos y etiquetas [tags]. Dialogando, dibujando y coloreando, los estudiantes y los maestros van viendo cómo las fotos, las odas y etiquetas se complementan unas con otras. No solo esto, el ensamblaje de ideas e imágenes refuerza la idea del nosotros por encima del yo, de la comprensión por encima de la exclusión y de la globalidad como un conglomerado de localismos que ensalza la idea de multitud por encima del aislamiento y la soledad (Hardt y Negri, 2005). La naturaleza de *Exploradores del Lenguaje* permite que los maestros puedan entender, trabajar y aprender del estudiante migrante, epítome este del multilingüismo y la multiculturalidad.

Para concluir, en este capítulo compartimos una serie de recomendaciones sobre la posibilidad de crear programas similares al que acabamos de analizar o de cómo poder reestructurar aquellos que ya se están implementando en la actualidad.

9.5. Recomendaciones

Vivimos tiempos convulsos en los que tenemos que estar preparados para reafirmar las ideas que nos han llevado a conseguir metas tan importantes como una educación de calidad para todos los estudiantes migrantes e inmigrantes. Ahora más que nunca tenemos que cerciorarnos de que estos estudiantes tienen la posibilidad de aprender, vivir y ser miembros de una comunidad en donde todas las lenguas y todas las culturas no solo son respetadas, sino que forman parte del tejido social. Las escuelas deben ser espacios en los que se valore y aprecie a todos los estudiantes, hayan nacido en los Estados Unidos o hayan llegado de otros países.

Para ello, pensamos que es necesario que todas las instituciones educativas que trabajan con estudiantes migrantes se planteen las tres preguntas siguientes antes, durante y tras la implementación de los programas de educación dirigidos a los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias. La primera pregunta, ¿por qué hacemos lo que hacemos?, ayudará a evaluar las razones por las cuales se han estado implementando programas que quizás no se habían diseñado específicamente para los estudiantes migrantes. La segunda pregunta, ¿cómo vamos a desarrollar las destrezas que tenemos?, servirá para identificar las herramientas y el apoyo necesarios para crear o adaptar programas que puedan potenciar la riqueza cultural y lingüística de los estudiantes migrantes y sus familias. La última pregunta, ¿qué actitudes vamos a tener y dónde vamos a empezar?, clarificará la predisposición y los objetivos que se tienen cuando se trabaja con estudiantes migrantes.

Hacerse estas preguntas u otras que cada institución considere pertinentes es el primer paso para asegurar que los programas de educación migrante fomenten la inclusión educativa de todos los estudiantes y sus familias sabiendo que estos son y serán el motor que aviva la riqueza multicultural y multilingüe en cada escuela y en cada salón de clase. Tal y como nos recuerdan Freire y Macedo (1987), si los programas educativos quieren fortalecer a los estudiantes y sus familias, tienen que valorar e incluir los mundos y las lenguas que estos atesoran. De lo contrario, los programas educativos y quienes los implementan van a avivar sentimientos – racismo, xenofobia – que parecían superados pero que, si no se analizan, seguirán persistiendo y alimentando un colonialismo cultural y lingüístico (Apaza Apaza, 2012).

El bilingüismo y la interculturalidad pueden sentar las bases para que generaciones venideras vean el mundo desde una perspectiva global, dignificada por la riqueza del individuo y su comunidad. El reto es estar preparados para ser parte de una globalización inclusiva en la que todas las lenguas y culturas tengan el mismo valor y peso, ya sea en la educación, la comunidad o en los pasillos de los poderes fácticos. La integración es una labor colectiva que no puede ser impuesta ni arbitrada. Tiene que ser razonada, analizada, entendida y creada por todas las voces que forman parte de esta gran tarea que llamamos educar.

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Multilingual Education and Intercultural Dialogue

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This chapter corresponds to the chapter 23 on *Intercultural Dialogue and Multilingual Education* by Michael Byram. Here, it is Michael Byram who asks the questions and Richard Johnstone who offers his responses. Where the word ‘you’ is used, it refers to one or other of the two interlocutors, as appropriate.

Q1 draws on personal experience and raises some issues of languages in society, while from Q2 onwards the focus is more on Bilingual Education, CLIL and intercultural issues.

Q1: ‘You have been doing research on multilingual matters for a number of decades now, so what was it that first attracted you to this area?’

National and local languages

The only language of my primary school education was English. This reflected the 1872 Education Act in Scotland that had strongly encouraged the use of English in education at school, as opposed to the use of Scotland’s two heritage languages (*Scottish Gaelic* which is a Celtic language, and *Scots* which is a Germanic language related to English but also with traces of Scandinavian languages). An aspirational assumption behind the 1872 Act was that talented students from anywhere in Scotland needed to master formal ‘Standard’ English (ideally as spoken on the BBC and written in *The Times* of those days) in order to gain high educational qualifications and eventually fulfil major responsibilities in Scottish and British society, including in distant parts of the (then) British Empire. Our family lived in the Scottish Borders, and the everyday language of the community was ‘Borders Scots’ which is very different from English, and to this

day 'Borders Scots' remains my deepest inner voice. During my time at primary school, I greatly enjoyed studying and using English, and all the time I was becoming aware of what type of English language-use was expected at school as compared with the everyday Borders Scots that many people in the community spoke. It wasn't the case that the two languages were mutually exclusive when used in the community, since there was also routine use of what nowadays is called 'translanguaging' (creating repertoires based on 'pick and mix'), so in fact I was becoming aware of when and how to use so-called formal 'standard' English, when and how to use Scottish English, when and how to use Borders Scots and when and how to use 'translanguaging'.

Risk of Cultural Suppression

At the time, I didn't question the dominance of so-called formal 'standard' English in my school education, but later in my career I came to understand that the 1872 Act had unnecessarily encouraged a form of 'cultural suppression' by consigning Gaelic and Scots to the margins. I came to see that in fact this type of suppression was by no means limited to Scotland. For example in the magnificent French-language novel *'Le Cheval d'Orgueil'* (The Horse of Pride) the main character in his very early years was brought up almost entirely in his first language Breton but was obliged to learn through French on entering primary school. One can debate the pros and cons of that, but what was manifestly unacceptable was the derogatory perception of his first language as evidenced in a prominent sign in French within the school: *'It is forbidden to spit on the floor or to speak Breton'*. Although in principle I can see very good reason for education to be conducted in part at least through a country's national language, it does seem to me that careful thought always needs to be given to the needs and rights of linguistic and cultural minorities, whether these are 'heritage' minorities that have lived in their country for centuries or 'community' minorities that have migrated into the country in more recent times.

I should add that in recent times, particularly since the mid-1980s, successive Scottish governments on a consensual cross-party basis have done much, through substantial government funding and other means, to promote a positive picture of Gaelic language and culture in both education and society. This anticipates a general point that I make in response to Question 2 in the sub-section on *Education as a Major Focus of Government Activity* in which I argue that National and Regional Governments have a crucial and decisive role to play in developing progressive and well-informed languages policies and in ensuring good support for these policies, that enable their citizens to meet the challenges of the modern world.

Monolingualism that isn't

There are in fact many people who speak one language (the dominant national language of their country) but who deep inside have another prior language that they have discarded on the grounds that it is considered to be not needed or unsuitable. This certainly happens in the case of many minority languages. An example of what I mean is given by a distinguished professor of Scottish Gaelic who sought to illustrate how large cultures in a country can sometimes seek to put smaller cultures in the same country firmly in their place: *The big culture will define the little one in relation to itself as part of its programme of self-definition. . . . The larger community will have developed a machinery (expressed as selected historical 'proofs', character sketches or jokes for example) designed to leave the smaller community in no doubt as to how it is supposed to behave* (Gillies, W. 1989 - see Johnstone, 1994, p. 12).

I can think of at least two sorts of case in which something like the above probably occurs.

First, older people who have discarded their minority first language that they spoke when young in order to make 100% use of the national language and become indistinguishable from the

majority community. People of course are entitled to make their choices but at times the choice may be loaded in one direction because of the negative stereotypes of the minority community perpetrated by some though not all of the majority community. However, it is interesting to find that in some cases older people of this sort revert quite spontaneously to their minority first language, the older they become, and there is some reason to believe that this can help with their wellbeing, as they re-discover a dimension of 'self' that had been largely obliterated.

Second, there is clear evidence that some members of minority communities that have migrated into a particular country lose their first language and culture over a period of time. Again, people are free to make their own choices, but it would be regrettable if this choice were influenced by negative stereotypes of the minority community being perpetuated by some members of the majority community. However, my experience of supervising and examining doctoral research persuades me that the 'complementary schools' movement can create a different picture. Schools of this sort tend to be voluntary organisations that meet at weekends for a few hours, to enable children from a particular minority community to receive teaching from members of that community that will help the children not only to develop their community language but also to find a fluid identity that embraces the original family culture and also the new host culture. I find it interesting that originally it was assumed that the classes would be conducted monolingually in the 'community' language but, influenced by the views and behaviours of pupils, an evolutionary process has taken place whereby the community language is still the main language of instruction but nowadays this can be underpinned by some use of the national language of the host country. Linguistic reciprocity of this sort has been helpful to many young people in managing to retain their family's original linguistic and cultural roots while also at the same time developing their own new integrated identity that enables them to feel at home in the country where they now live. Young people who achieve this may have put themselves in the position of having powerful options when they consider where they will wish to study at university and/or seek a good job (and one of these options may be in their family's country of origin).

Q2: 'In what ways has the field developed during this time – are you still attracted by the same things as in the early days, or does the field offer you a different sort of attraction now?'

My main focus is on schools. I mean no disrespect to pre- and post-school education, but policy, research and development in schools are my main area of experience, and I believe that schools represent the biggest challenge for successful bi-multilingual education, since there have been clear failures as well as successes. So, I shall begin by saying something about bi-multilingual education, but this does not exist in isolation, and it is important to set it in context. I seek to do so by going on to mention two other major changes, one in education generally and the other in global society, both of which have a major influence on the culture of teaching in schools.

So let me start with a statement about the field:

Increased interest in and uptake of CLIL and bi- multilingual education: a work in progress, with lots still to do

There are differing interpretations of what the above terms mean, and sometimes to some extent they overlap. I shall begin in fact with so-called 'immersion education'. This may be:

- 'partial immersion' in an additional language (possibly 40-50% in the additional language and 50-60% in the national language) and often for that reason called 'bilingual education', and/or

- ‘total immersion’ (usually involving 90+% in the additional language).

By contrast, the term CLIL tends to be used in two different senses: a) as a generic term covering all teaching through the medium of an additional language; and b) as a form of ‘partial immersion’ but less than the 40-50% mentioned above for partial immersion or bilingual education, and instead amounting usually to something like 20-25% of total curricular time. I prefer sense b), because this allocates CLIL an important and distinctive place in an overall system that embraces the three significantly differing varieties of total immersion, bilingual education and CLIL.

It is misleading to think that there is one universal set of aims for immersion education (and CLIL). On the contrary, the aims tend to reflect social, cultural or political issues within particular countries.

Examples of aims for immersion education, including bilingual education and CLIL, are:

- a) to help children develop proficiency in an important additional language and associated culture(s) within a particular country (e.g. Anglophone children in Canada receiving immersion in French), thereby seeking to promote good intercultural relations;
- b) to help children develop proficiency in a threatened heritage minority language within their country, thereby contributing to the maintenance and revitalisation of the minority language and associated cultures (e.g. Scottish Gaelic in Scotland; Breton in France; Maori in New Zealand; Quechua in Peru);
- c) to help children develop proficiency in an additional language that is widely used across the world and thereby help them develop intercultural, economic, problem-solving and other knowledge and skills relevant to the successful participation of the children and indeed the country as a whole in the modern world of today (e.g. German children experiencing a bilingual German-English education).

I should add that in Spain there is impressive evidence of a range of forms of CLIL, immersion and not only bilingual but also trilingual education, and it seems evident to me that national and regional community policies have played a decisive role in these achievements.

Education as a major focus of government policy

There are of course important variations from one country to another, but in many countries Education in the past two decades or more has tended to move ‘centre-stage’ in governmental policy and has become ‘high-stakes’ in order to ensure that a country’s population is sufficiently well-trained to thrive in the global arena where economic growth, technological sophistication, intercultural communication, collaboration, competition, environmental protection and many other features of life are of high importance. In addition, the performance of entire countries on a myriad of measures (e.g. levels of mathematical achievement at school, extent to which the attainment gap between disadvantaged and other children is reduced, staying-on rates into post-compulsory education, levels of truancy, levels of bullying) may be quantified, ranked and made public. If a country is not doing well on these measures, then big questions may be asked.

This increasing ‘instrumentality’ has big implications for schools and teachers who may have to work within national or regional guidelines relating to curriculum, assessment, examinations, professional practice, institutional self-evaluation, accountability, parental involvement, student welfare, provision for special needs, equity issues and so on – and I haven’t even mentioned desirables such as teachers ‘conducting their own school-based action research’, ‘reading published research reports and policy documents’ or ‘maintaining their own knowledge and skills in the subject(s) that they teach’.

Nonetheless, despite the undoubted challenge that the above poses for teachers, I greatly welcome the higher priority that many governments now give to education and the ambition that it can have a transformative effect on the attitudes and potentialities of young people with regard to their participation in a complex and challenging modern world. Moreover, I don't consider that the above aspects necessarily need to happen in ways that are dysfunctional. Good support from governments and regional authorities, and good institutional and personal management can help to make the culture of teachers' working environment healthy and productive – a positive conclusion I have formed when observing state schools in several different countries within the European Union and Asia.

Some effects of globalisation

Globalisation brings many advantages such as instant communication across the world using an ever-increasing variety of technological means; ability to visit distant places; manifold opportunities for communication and collaboration across borders and continents, whether for educational purposes, or for buying and selling of goods and services, or for leisure, or for keeping in touch with family and friends, and many more. There are enormous opportunities for CLIL and Multilingual/Intercultural Education to flourish in such contexts, from pre-primary education onwards. Sadly, however, globalisation can also be accompanied by highly negative features such as xenophobia, trafficking and many other forms of exploitation, terrorism, wars, population displacement, hacking, deliberate misinformation, indoctrination, neo-colonialism, environmental contamination (with multiple causation, including large amounts of air & road travel), global warming and distortion of universal human rights.

The above negative concomitants of globalisation can put considerable strain on the education of students at all levels, and of course multilingual and intercultural education must have an important role in confronting these challenges. For example, it is one thing for multilingual and intercultural education to generate strategies for helping people from different cultures who are generally people of goodwill and who would like to get on well with each other but who are not quite sure how to achieve this since they come from different cultures. It is a different matter, however, when those concerned have been brought up in cultures that are implicitly or explicitly antagonistic to each other as a result of stereotyping and propaganda that have been fed into their upbringing from childhood onwards. Clearly, there is much still to learn and much do.

Q3: At the Second International Conference on Bilingual Education in Cordoba we were asked to do a joint plenary on intercultural dialogue and multilingual learning, where we considered the potential links and relationships, can you explain how you see this now?

I believe that two promising developments for increasing the links between bi-multilingual education and intercultural dialogue were reflected in what was said at the Cordoba 2016 conference.

CLIL as Methodology and Discourse as well as Content, reflecting the Diverse Cultures of Different Disciplines

I have to confess that I have never really liked the term CLIL, despite the fact that it is widely used, particularly in Europe and Asia. It is well-known that CLIL stands *for Content and Language Integrated Learning*. 'Content' implies that CLIL draws on the content of various subject areas or

interdisciplinary themes. I have no objection to that, but there is more to CLIL than content and I have a concern about the reductionism that the term may imply.

If we take a subject such as ‘Science’ for example, then of course there is a lot of Content to learn but there is also the Methodology and the Discourse of Science – in other words, how Science is investigated and discussed or reported, not only by scientists but also by teachers and students at school. The culture of science, including its content, methodology and discourse, is not the same as for example the culture of history.

The culture of science can be exemplified by extracts from lessons featuring students at primary school and in the initial two years of secondary school (all of them state schools) in Spain learning science through English (Dodson et al, 2010). Pupils showed clear evidence of being able to handle content words such as *nutrients, bicarbonate, electrical energy, mechanical energy, circulatory system, cerebrum, cerebellum, sediment, symmetrical, arachnid, pituitary, hypothalamus, stock-breeding, itinerant agriculture, subsistence agriculture, precipitation, stratosphere, troposphere, alto-cumulus, cumulo-nimbus, geothermal energy, igneous and metamorphic rock* and many more. They had also begun to acquire important aspects of the discourse of science such as the use of hypothetical statements (If then ...) and use of the passive voice, as in the following examples where a teacher asks a question and a student answers: ‘*Can you tell me something about mercury? It’s toxic and must stay sealed.*’ ‘*What is the difference between a mixture and a compound? A mixture can be returned to its earlier state.*’ ‘*Who could tell me something about uranium? Uranium is very toxic ... is used in many production processes. Its symbol is U.*’ Examples of hypothetical statements: ‘*If we pour a liquid from the jar into the beaker, it will take the shape of the new container*’ ‘*If animals don’t adapt they die. If they die young ... they don’t reproduce ... If they don’t reproduce, they don’t pass on their genes*’. It is important therefore not to think of science as primarily content but rather as a mode of thinking and acting – a culture that children learn as one of several disciplinary cultures.

CLIL sans Frontières

Here, I am using the term *CLIL sans Frontières* in two senses: ‘going beyond national boundaries in order to collaborate with learners in other countries’ but also ‘going beyond the boundaries of particular disciplines in order to undertake integrative interdisciplinary tasks’.

In your talk you gave a beautiful example of these two types of ‘crossing’ by describing the ‘*Green Kidz project: Young learners engage in intercultural environmental citizenship in English language classroom in Argentina and Denmark*’. The students are aged 10-12, learning English and connected by internet. The aims of the project cannot be stated in full here, but some examples are: ‘understanding environmental issues and recognizing them in their own surroundings’; ‘engaging in trash sorting and recycling activities’; ‘identifying green crimes in their schools and communities’; ‘survey among family members, friends etc. about their environmental habits’; ‘Argentinian and Danish pupils collaborating online using skype in mixed groups to design advertisements to raise awareness of environmental issues.’

It seems to me that tasks of this sort that use ICT to bring students together from different countries, in order to engage in real-life tasks that are likely to be perceived as highly relevant and that challenge them to collaborate in the exchange of information and all the stages of fulfilling a task (from initial planning all the way through to completion and evaluation) seems likely to advance notions of what CLIL is all about. You also argued that ‘culture’ is not really a separate add-on to the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and it seems to me that projects such as Green Kidz illustrate how intercultural dialogue and bi-multilingual education can blend nicely into each other: two sides of the same coin.

Q4: What are the questions that you think policy deciders will ask about Bilingual Education and CLIL?

I am not a policy-maker, for which I am thankful because making policy is nowadays often a complex and multidimensional task with a significant public profile. However, it has been my pleasure to have had responsibility for a number of policy-related research projects in a range of different countries in Europe and East Asia, and this has brought me into regular contact with those who have some involvement in policy-making in their particular country and also to some extent those who have a similar role at transnational level such as the European Commission. I'm happy to offer my views on the basis of this good but by no means comprehensive experience.

Let us assume a new initiative is being considered in Bilingual Education or CLIL at school. Four over-arching questions occur to me that policy-makers would be likely to ask:

- Why? What are the reasons for this proposed initiative? What is wrong with the situation as it is at present? What benefits will the new initiative bring to students, teachers, schools, communities, and national society (in areas such as business, culture, tourism, international prestige...)? Policy-makers may be particularly interested to know whether the proposals are grounded in reliable evidence or are simply 'a good idea'. In what ways will the new initiative add value to the country's existing curriculum for schools? What links can be made to other subject areas? What aspects of the proposal are new and maybe quite radical – so what will policy-makers themselves need to learn about these aspects before reaching a decision? Is there anything to be learnt from bodies such as the European Commission and the Council of Europe and from good practice that is already in place in other countries?
- What conditions would need to be put in place in order to give the new initiative a good chance of success? For example, will it require additional teachers? Or, further training for existing teachers? Or, additional types of technology? Will work have to be done in order to bring parents onside? (Or is there already a demand from parents for what is being proposed? If so, how realistic and well-informed is the parental demand?). Will initial and continuing teacher education have to be modified or even reformed in order to meet the new demands? Will the new proposal be welcomed by Institutions of Teacher Education, or will they have reservations about it? What roles might be found for them – e.g. conducting relevant research and/or in helping to refine key concepts that are identified within the proposal? Since the initiative is concerned with aspects such as interculturality and bilingualism, what implications does the proposal raise for links with other communities, both nationally and internationally? If particular communities or regions within a country have their own plans for the same topic, how will their plans relate to any national policy? Will there be friendly co-operation or will there be a possibly dysfunctional competition between the national and the regional levels? If so, how can this be managed so that the end result is not dysfunctional?
- Who is the proposed initiative for? Here, I am thinking only of state schools, because private, fee-paying education holds little interest for me. At what stage of primary or secondary school education will it begin? Is it for all pupils, regardless of their general attainments? From the year-group with which it would begin, is it for all schools within a country or a regional authority? If so, it is unlikely that all schools could begin at the one time, so over how many years will the introduction be phased, and what criteria will be used in identifying those schools that will be included in the first cohort?
- What will it cost, both in the short term (e.g. its first three years while the initiative is being developed, piloted and beginning to be generalised across the country) and in the longer term (e.g. when it has begun to mature and is maybe losing some of its

initial gloss and becoming part of the daily routine)? In particular, what financial and other plans are being made to ensure the project's 'sustainability', so that it continues to run well, even after the point at which financial and other support from the national or regional government is coming to an end? I can think of at least three important projects in bilingual education in different countries that came to a premature end, because the money ran out - hence the importance of planning for sustainability when any special funding has come to an end.

If those four question areas seem obvious, I should say (without of course naming names or countries) that in my experience quite a number of projects involving CLIL and Bilingual Education have not really addressed these four areas in sufficient detail, and in my own judgement the overall verdict on the success or otherwise of CLIL and Bilingual Education is *'promising but a work in progress, with much still to do'*.

Q5: What are the research topics/is the research agenda that need to be pursued in Bilingual Education or CLIL?

Following on from the previous question, research has a vital role to play in helping to monitor and evaluate the policies that are implemented. By 'monitoring' I mean some kind of 'formative evaluation' that collects information that can constitute useful feedback to those involved in implementing it, in order to help the initiative become better as it proceeds. By 'evaluation' I mean a more summative judgement on an initiative after it has had time in which to settle down, that will lead to an informed view as to whether the initiative has achieved its aims and as to the key factors that have influenced its success or otherwise. These processes of monitoring and evaluation can be undertaken by a range of different bodies, including inspectors undertaking formal inspection, schools themselves undertaking school-based monitoring and evaluation, consultancy groups that specialise in this area, research institutes and of course university researchers and research groups. In all of this, there is scope for confusion - e.g. is it the quality of the policy that is being evaluated, or is it how effectively the policy is being (or has been) implemented? If it is the quality of the policy that is being evaluated, then it is the policy-makers who are under the microscope, whereas if the focus is on the implementation of the policy, then the focus shifts from the policy-makers and on to school management and teaching.

The most appropriate means of conducting evaluations is a very big topic. If the evaluation is to be policy-related, then I consider it is reasonable for the policy-makers who are funding the initiative to specify what questions they want to see answered through the evaluation, and it is best that the research should be conducted by a team that works independently in order to seek answers to the questions that have been specified. Having been involved in several evaluative research studies of this sort in various countries, I have been impressed by how well the policy-making and funding bodies have respected the independence of the research team, and I have never felt that they in any way sought to influence the independence of the evaluation report.

However, it also seems important that in addition to policy-related research on bilingual education, there should also be research that is funded independently, for example by Research Councils or by transnational research-funding bodies. If so, this means that the researchers are likely to have greater freedom in formulating their own research questions that arise in part at least from the research literature rather than from the considerations of policy-makers. Questions arising from researcher-initiated research might be concerned with issues such as 'different types of bilingualism', 'cognitive and other benefits or disadvantages arising from having become bilingual', 'the nature of multilingual proficiency - e.g. in what ways do the different languages in an individual's multilingual proficiency work with or against each other?', 'the role of first language literacy in developing proficiency in an additional language', 'the kinds of identity that learners begin to construct or acquire in the process of becoming bilingual', 'possible

meanings of the term *culture* in an era of increasing *superdiversity*, ‘culture as static or dynamic concept’, ‘*interculturality* and *intraculturality* – same or different?’. This very small sample of possible topics for researcher-initiated research has the merit of suggesting to me how complex and multidimensional the field is. Although it is less likely than policy-related research to put particular policies under the microscope, it seems to me that the ‘field’ is all the better from being replenished from both sources rather than from one of them on its own.

Q6: You are also of course interested in language teaching in general, how do you see the relationship of bi-multilingual education to the wider field?

I hope to have touched on this in my replies to previous questions, so I hope a brief comment will suffice.

Bi-multilingual education, including CLIL, has enormous potential for enriching students’ education, particularly when the one C of CLIL stands for both Culture and Content integrated with Language & Learning. However, projects in this area should not be embarked upon solely on the grounds that it may be a good idea. They need to be carefully thought through, and careful consideration needs to be given to the conditions that need to be put in place, if a project in this area is to stand a good chance of success.

While teaching subject content is very important, it is important also to take account of the methodology and the discourse that go with particular subject disciplines, since history lessons, science lessons, economics lessons and mathematics lessons, while sharing some common features, also differ from each other. If students can gain some control over the content, the methodology and the discourse of (say) history, then they stand a good chance of being able to enter imaginatively into historical issues and events, and at that point can develop and refine their own ways of entering a historical culture of the imagination and engaging in imaginative historical intercultural dialogue, drawing on the languages at their disposal and the needs of their interlocutors. To me, this seems to suggest that bi-multilingual education, including CLIL, has the potential to promote deep as well as surface learning, with students drawing on all of the languages at their disposal.

While looking deeply into the culture of particular subject disciplines through two or more languages, as above, has rich potential for students at school, this can be complemented in both school and post-school education by integrating interdisciplinary tasks into learners’ experience, as in the Green Kidz project that you discussed in your talk. After all, subject disciplines tend to be a product of curricular thinking. In the world outside education, subjects do not exist to the same extent. Instead there are ‘problems’, ‘issues’, ‘challenges’, ‘crises’, ‘opportunities’, ‘remits’, ‘threats’, ‘misunderstandings’, ‘attractions’, ‘coincidences’, ‘accidents’, ‘temptations’ that have to be confronted by whatever knowledge, skills and capacities are at the individual’s disposal, and there is much to be gained by setting up and properly resourcing situations in which students and others from different countries and institutions can collaborate in order to create their own ways of dealing with these recurrent features of the modern globalised world in which we live.

Q7: What are you currently writing/researching?

I had thought that by the age of 75, I would long ago have written my last word on professional matters, but reality has shown itself to be different. Provided I can find time regularly to watch rugby or cricket on television and also daily to practise playing my classical guitar (including of course some of the most memorable Spanish compositions), then I find I’m happy to continue

writing for professional purposes too. At this stage, it is usually a fairly reflective piece rather than yet another research report.

At present, I have three projects for the future.

First, a chapter on languages policy issues in a Handbook for Teaching English to Young Learners, to be published later this year by Routledge. This is in fact already largely written.

Then there will be an article on CLIL for the research journal *Language Teaching* (Cambridge University Press), to be submitted by March 2018.

My third project will present a personal account of identity-loss in being strongly European and a proud citizen of the European Union while at the same time being a UK national and thereby condemned against my will to lose my European citizenship.

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Key Issues in the Management of Bilingual Education

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Abstract

The exponential growth of bilingual and plurilingual education in public schools in Spain has been seen by many as an opportunity for real development of communicative competence among learners. The adoption of this type of program by schools, however, has not been without controversy, and just one of these challenges lies in the complex world of the management of bilingual teaching and learning. Based on part of a larger study supported by the Ministry of Education and the British Council in Spain, this chapter aims to contribute in some way to this process of reflection on the management of bilingual education. Taking into account recent research as well as expert opinion, the areas discussed include enabling factors, such as those of school leadership and coordination as well as the development of policies of planning, delivery and assessment of learning. In addition to these factors, we also attempt to identify some of the key indicators of success for bilingual programmes and suggest ways in which realistic and meaningful objectives may be established, controlled and revised for continuous improvement. The aim, then, is essentially to provide decision-makers within bilingual and plurilingual schools with a number of initial questions for reflection and as a means to help consolidate strong points and detect areas of improvement.

11.1. Introduction

In Spain, for the better part of two decades, instruction of non-linguistic subjects through the medium of a foreign (L2) has spread throughout the public primary and secondary education systems at a relatively rapid pace. In many instances, these changes have led to improved

levels of communicative competence in L2 among learners and have potentially paved the way for students to participate more fully in academic, professional and social life in international contexts. In addition, the introduction of bilingual education and the subsequent familiarisation by teachers of principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) seem to have brought a welcome revision and modernisation of teaching practices and appear to have further contributed to initial and continued professional development (see Coyle, 2009; Sagasta & Ipiña, 2016). Indeed, the road to bilingual education has entailed diverse levels of growth and opportunity and continues to do so.

Debate and controversy, however, have also been part of this journey towards the adoption of bilingual schooling. Despite efforts from a number of sectors to advance the bilingual agenda in a tentative, evidence-based and pedagogically sound way, the levels of acceptance of bilingual education in Spain both in educational circles and in the press have emulated the pendulum effect, going from an almost blind approval in some quarters to a complete rejection in others (see Pérez-Cañado, 2016). Between these two poles there have been varying degrees of certainty in terms of if and how to proceed with the implementation of bilingual education.

Among the many challenges that have been observed during the last few years in particular we find that of identifying a set of well-founded principles for the management of bilingual schools. The organisation of this type of education system is complex and dynamic and has to contend with a wide array of areas, including issues such as coordination between teachers, communication with students and families, teacher training in language and CLIL methodology, the acquisition of useful resources, the construction of workable policies and control of results, as well as the creation and maintenance of contacts beyond the boundaries of the school. At this particular moment in time, then, it would appear useful to examine some of these key issues and to tentatively examine ways in which bilingual management might be facilitated.

The following sections will offer a number of potential questions for reflection for those in positions of responsibility, which arise as part of a larger study. After a brief discussion of how data was obtained, we detail areas related to the importance of leadership, coordination, communication and partnerships as well as the actions of teachers and the results obtained in the bilingual programs.

This chapter, then, does not constitute a set of key-cut remedies for bilingual school management, nor as a working tool; it does, however, identify a number of issues in terms of major enabling factors and areas of results which may be of interest to decision-makers.

11.2. Process of Identification of Issues

As discussed, the questions for reflection in this chapter were obtained from a larger ongoing study into factors of effectiveness in bilingual schools. In order to obtain information from experts, open source survey software (Limesurvey) was employed. This survey was answered by 30 experts and included questions related to effective practices in bilingual education and included the general areas of leadership, strategies, human and material resources, processes and results.

These initial results were processed by a three-member research team at the University of Granada and examined in conjunction with findings from other relevant research. With processing complete, a series of items were identified and validated by a larger, 12-person team, including representatives from the British Council and the Ministry of Education.

Taking into account expert opinion as well as recent research, then, the areas discussed here include those of leadership and coordination as well as the development of policies of

planning, delivery and assessment of learning. In addition to these factors, which are seen as potentially enabling, we also propose key indicators of success for bilingual programmes and suggest ways in which realistic and meaningful objectives may be established, controlled and revised for continuous improvement. The following sections, then, deal with the major issues and contain questions which may serve for reflection and self-assessment. The questions themselves do not represent an exhaustive list; instead they constitute a starting point that may facilitate further analysis and discussion.

11.3. Leadership and Informed Commitment

The first major area which has been identified in terms of success for bilingual programmes is that of leadership. This leadership is examined predominantly in relation to knowledge of the workings, benefits and limitations of CLIL and bilingual education and, indeed, to the levels of commitment that exist towards the program and its implementation.

Within a bilingual school, leadership is made up primarily of the officially designated management team and the bilingual coordinator; there are other levels of less formally recognised leadership, particularly in terms of those language and non-language teachers who are directly involved in the program. All of these stakeholders have a major part to play in terms of being well-informed about the potential benefits and challenges of bilingual education as well as the reasons as to how and why the bilingual program is to be implemented; this would ideally lead to a shared vision for CLIL (see Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 49).

Leaders are also responsible for the creation of a plurilingual ‘culture’ (discussed in the following section), which is intended to inform and motivate students and to encourage their active participation in the many diverse activities which form part of the program.

Informed commitment may be observed in several ways, ranging from organisation of training events to participation in intra and inter-school projects. While commitment is an area for all school leaders, greater levels of responsibility would appear to be in the hands of the school management and the bilingual coordinators. Questions aimed at bringing about reflection on this informed commitment could include those included in Table 11.1.

In examining organisational aspects of bilingual education in the United States, Brisk (2006) highlights the fact that many schools following similar programs can have very different outcomes depending on a large number of variables, not least of which is that of leadership. Leadership, it can be argued, is the driving force behind many of the measures that may be implemented in a bilingual program. From the provision of organisational support to teacher empowerment and recognition of effort, leadership is universally seen as a fundamental aspect of all education systems. Yet leadership and determination for a program to work do not appear to be enough; these qualities need to be accompanied by a clear understanding of student and teacher needs and of what may or may not be indicative of a program’s success.

TABLE 11.1. Leadership and informed commitment

<i>Agents/Areas</i>	<i>Questions for reflection</i>
Management team and coordinator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is school management adequately informed about the general nature and legislative considerations surrounding bilingual education? • Does the leadership show commitment to the program (e.g. facilitating coordinated actions, training, etc.)? • Is the management regularly involved in activities related to the program inside and outside the school? • Are actions taken to control the quality of the planning, implementation and results of bilingual program? • Is support provided for the improvement of the program? • Is public recognition provided for those involved in the program? • Are there effective channels of communication to inform the school community about important elements pertaining to the program? • Does the coordinator have adequate levels of L2 communicative competence and knowledge of CLIL principles? • Does the coordinator participate and encourage participation in projects inside and outside the school? • Does the coordinator regularly meet language and non-language teachers to exchange information and provide support?
Other leaders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do other leaders (e.g. teachers in the program) show their commitment to the program (e.g. through participation in collaborative projects, training events, etc.)?

11.4. Culture, Communication and Partnerships

Not to be confused with the 4 C's (Contents, Communication, Cognition and Culture) mentioned by Coyle, Marsh and Hood (2010), this section is more closely related to the atmosphere of bilingual culture which exists within the school and the links which the program has with the wider community. The existence of a positive bi/plurilingual environment could act as an indicator of the informed commitment by school leaders and can manifest itself in several ways.

An initial manifestation of this commitment towards bilingual education may be seen inside the school itself, for example, in terms of participation in bilingual projects, the existence of posters around the school and in classrooms as part of class tasks, or participation in related activities outside the school. Similarly, systematically recorded levels of acceptance among students, teachers and parents might also provide an insight into the extent to which the program is seen in a favourable light.

An important part of the creation of a positive culture has to do with communication between all of the above mentioned parties. The provision of information in terms of 'what - where - when - how - why' would appear to be a fundamental aspect of any organisation, but this is perhaps even more important in programs which, by dint of their innovative nature, are challenged to stand up to additional public scrutiny. This culture, then, has much to do with the concept of communication since it provides shared information that potentially contributes to the sense of agency of all stakeholders involved. At the same time, this shared information can be of particular value to management and teaching teams who require data in order to be able to consolidate identified strong areas and adjust those areas which require improvement.

Essentially, effective communication has the potential to create a sense of collaborative partnership between the different members of the school community. This sense of partnership, however, also continues beyond the learners, teachers and parents. Indeed, it can be argued that a major contributing factor to a bilingual culture or atmosphere arises from the partnerships that

exist with other educational bodies. One of the most important types of bilingual partnership is that which takes place between the home school and schools from other countries. Often, this type of partnership can take place with international projects, such as eTwinning, although individual school agreements may also take place. Additionally, schools may participate either with other institutions where the L2 is the target language (i.e. Spain-UK for students of English and students of Spanish) or where the L2 is the common language between non-target language countries (e.g. Spain-Germany with English as a *lingua franca*). Emails, joint projects, video conferencing and school trips are just some of the forms which might be employed in this type of initiative. Other forms of partnership also seem to have a range of potential benefits for bilingual schools; for instance, some of the mutually beneficial projects could involve the schools' engagement with universities or teacher training centres. Further collaboration could also take place within the framework of European projects, such as Erasmus +. A number of potential questions for reflection in terms of culture, communication and partnerships are presented in Table 11.2.

TABLE 11.2. Culture, communication and partnerships

<i>Areas</i>	<i>Questions for reflection</i>
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there a tangible atmosphere in the school that contributes to a plurilingual culture (e.g. school webpage, posters, projects, etc.)? • Are there interdepartmental projects and/or integrated units of work associated with the bilingual program? • Are all sectors of the school community involved in the program?
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there effective channels of communication between the diverse members of the school community (students, parents, teachers, management, etc.)? • Is there a climate of collaboration between teachers in the program? • Are possible misrepresentations of bilingual education addressed at school and local community levels?
Partnerships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there frequent contact with outside organisations (Teacher-training centres, Higher Education Institutions, etc.) to encourage and support the bilingual education program? • Does the school participate in international projects (e.g. eTwinning)? • Do students and teachers participate in exchange programs and visits to target culture countries?

The concept of partnership is arguably the lynchpin in the development of successful bilingual programs. Ruiz de Zarobe and Coyle (2015) point to the need for development of partnerships between students and teachers, particularly content teachers. Similarly, Creese's (2006) study points to the importance of creating working partnerships between content and language teachers. These levels of partnership are seen as being useful for everyday in-school functioning.

Partnerships outside of the school, however, including those with other schools and institutions would also appear to be important contributors to the culture and quality of bilingual programs. In the case of contact with other schools, out of the many advantages for learners we could discuss the motivational dimension alongside the creation of opportunities to engage in meaningful forms of linguistic and cultural input, output and interaction. For teachers too, contact with other schools represents not only an opportunity to communicate professionally in the target language, but can also lead to a widening of pedagogical and methodological perspectives as well. Similarly, contact with other teacher training institutions and Higher Education bodies can also help teachers to remain up-to-date and engaged in the process.

11.5. Teachers and Assistant Teachers

In addition to the school management and bilingual coordination, an essential part of the bilingual program lies with the teachers who are charged with planning, delivering and assessing the language and non-language subjects. Often, these teachers may be aided by language assistants and occasionally with other support teachers. This subsection will provide a number of questions in relation to this teaching staff, the employment of conversation assistants and the use of material resources inside and outside of class.

Again, it would seem necessary to make a distinction between language and non-language teachers, although there are areas in common between the two. Issues such as language proficiency, on the one hand, and the use of problem-solving, task-based and autonomous learning on the other, are perhaps among the most important concerns that are shared by both groups. Additionally, levels of participation in school projects and initiatives related to the bilingual program may also constitute common ground for teachers.

Familiarity with the main tenets of CLIL would appear to be most important for content teachers, since they are the teachers who are expected to directly draw from these principles. It would also seem useful, however, for language teachers to have some level of knowledge of these practices. Knowledge of CLIL practices can potentially put language teachers in a better position to work collaboratively with non-language teachers and, in addition, can prepare them for possible future roles as bilingual coordinators.

On another level, many bilingual schools are provided with native language assistants. These assistants do not generally have any formal teaching qualifications and they may be unfamiliar with some of the areas taught in content sessions, particularly in more advanced science classes and technical subjects. Despite their lack of teaching experience, however, language assistants can provide high quality linguistic and cultural input, they provide students with additional encouragement to communicate and they generally tend to bring a long high levels of enthusiasm to the class. Management of these assistants would be important in terms of ensuring that they are able to contribute in a positive way to the effective language learning in general as well as subject-specific content-learning.

A number of questions for reflection related to these areas are provided in Table 11.3.

One key area mentioned above is that of the teacher's linguistic competence. As far as this element is concerned, it is important for pupils to have accurate models of the language as well as support and feedback to ensure that language is correctly produced. At the same time, issues such as provision of input, opportunities to reflect, production of content, differentiation and assessment are all basic elements within all teaching areas; but these areas become compounded when we add the dimension of learning in a foreign language.

Dobson, Murillo & Johnstone (2010) indicate that there is variability both in teachers' language levels and in their approaches to teaching and learning processes. Opportunities are available for content and language teachers alike to participate in language and/or specialist methodology courses in Spain and abroad. Willingness to partake in such initiatives, however, depends very much on the individual teachers involved and, perhaps to a certain extent, to the style of leadership and existing bilingual culture within the school.

Here we have touched upon some of the basic concerns of language level and what teachers know. The following section will examine a number of more specific issues in relation to what they do.

TABLE 11.3. Teaching and auxiliary teaching staff

<i>Areas</i>	<i>Questions for reflection</i>
Language teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are L2 teachers fully proficient in the target language? • Are L2 teachers familiar with CLIL practices? • Do L2 teachers participate in school activities organised for bilingual students? • Do L2 teachers participate in international projects (e.g. eTwinning)? • Do L2 teachers promote autonomous learning? • Do L2 teachers follow established teaching guidelines? • Are appropriate resources employed in the L2 class (including ICTs)?
Non-language teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are non-language teachers sufficiently proficient in the target language to conduct classes in L2? • Do non-language teachers have specific training in CLIL for their subject areas? • Do non-language teachers participate in school activities organised for bilingual students? • Do non-language teachers participate in international projects (e.g. eTwinning)? • Do non-language teachers promote autonomous learning? • Do non-language teachers follow established teaching guidelines? • Are appropriate resources employed in the bilingual class (including ICTs)?
Language assistants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do the language assistants contribute in a positive way to the development of the program?

11.6. Planning Delivery and Assessment of Learning

In relation to the commitment and capacities of individual teachers involved in the bilingual program, the treatment of planning, delivery and assessment of learning would appear to merit special attention. The combination of these three stages will arguably have important effects on student performance throughout their school life and beyond. As discussed in Brophy's (1986) review, teachers have an important impact on student achievement in many ways; indeed, effective goal-setting, active involvement of students, clear provision of instruction, enthusiastic teaching, creation of an encouraging environment and effective questioning are just some of the factors which may contribute positively to learners' motivation and ensuing results.

Teachers who plan, deliver and assess learning experiences in bilingual groups may adopt a number of strategies which are often shared between several subject areas. Ultimately, however, there will be differences between individual content-related subjects and, of course, between content subjects and language subjects. English as a foreign language, for example, will obviously be more focused on communicative competence, while other subjects are more concerned with subject-specific content and competences.

A number of initial questions for reflection in this area are presented in Table 11.4.

As can be observed, a number of these areas are related to issues treated in previous sections. Planning, for example, will be closely associated with leadership and coordination, methodological procedures will depend to a large degree on previous and ongoing professional training and the use of English in class might be affected to a certain extent by the bi/plurilingual culture that exists within the school as a whole. Many of these general areas, then, are interrelated and can potentially lead to mutual benefits or constraints.

To a large extent, many of these areas are treated in national and regional curricular guidelines and in other instructions and support materials provided by the educational administration. These are important issues, however, that are mainly in the hands of individual

teachers. In this sense, this type of question might perhaps serve teachers working collegially to identify possible strengths and challenges and, as responsible parties with greater levels of insight into their own classes, to tackle problems directly and more effectively (see Harris, 2001).

TABLE 11.4 Planning, delivery and assessment of learning

<i>Areas</i>	<i>Questions for reflection</i>
General	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there effective coordination between language and non-language teachers in terms of planning and program evaluation? • Are planning documents regularly updated? • Do the language and non-language teachers know what each other have planned in terms of bilingual teaching? • Are objectives based on attainment and/or competences? • Are cultural elements treated effectively? • Are higher order thinking skills encouraged and developed? • Are tasks and project work a regular feature of the learning process? • Is the FL normally employed as a language of instruction? • Do learners actively participate in written activities in FL (reading and writing) • Do learners actively participate in spoken activities in FL (listening and speaking)
Non-language (NL) teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In NL subjects, is there a balanced treatment between contents and FL development? • Do the NL subjects follow official instructions and current methodological guidelines
Language teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is there a balanced treatment of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing)? • Language elements (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) are connected with work on the four skills.

11.7. Focusing on Results of Bilingual Programs

A major indicator of the quality of a program lies in the results which are obtained. The two most basic questions in terms of results are likely to revolve around a) communicative competence in English, and b) attainment of objectives in content areas. Other non-academic results may also be important, and this can range from areas which are relatively easy to measure, such as student satisfaction, to more long-term indicators which might be more elusive, such as levels of employability.

Results play an important part in the quality of a bilingual program for a number of reasons. Firstly, given the fact that CLIL and bilingual education are relatively recent introductions in mainstream education for many and perhaps even a completely new experience for others, there is a need to ensure that what is being done actually works. Overall program evaluation essentially involves identifying the strong points of the project and building on them; it also entails detecting and tackling the areas of improvement to ensure that potential benefits are maximised and shortcomings limited.

Among possible indicators of results for the language class, the most obvious areas are those related to attainments in the different language skills. These skills include both oral competence (listening, speaking and oral interaction), written competence (reading, writing and written interaction), linguistic aspects, including grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, and cultural competence. Initially, these levels of attainment must satisfy the legal requirements

established in official national and regional legislation. In many instances, however, the results for language learning may go beyond the core curricular requirements and incorporate external indicators, such as the percentage of students who pass official examinations which relate to levels of the Common European Framework.

As far as content-based subjects are concerned, there is a need to ensure that the use of the L2 is not detrimental to student attainment of legally established curricular objectives. At the same time, it would appear useful to see the degree to which students are able to understand and produce relevant oral and written texts in relation to the content subject.

In addition to these academic results, several more general non-academic results could prove useful to those in decision-making positions within the bilingual school. These areas could include the levels of satisfaction with the program detected among students, teachers and parents, the levels of acceptance of the program by other members of staff, and how it impacts the wider community.

A number of possible indicators for academic and non-academic results are presented in Table 11.5.

TABLE 11.5 Planning, delivery and assessment of learning

<i>Areas</i>	<i>Questions for reflection</i>
Results in foreign language subjects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do students systematically attain legal objectives across the board in terms of communicative competence in the foreign language? • Do students meet requirements in terms of listening? • Do students meet requirements in terms of speaking and oral interaction? • Do students meet requirements in terms of reading? • Do students meet requirements in terms of writing and written interaction? • Do students meet requirements in terms of vocabulary? • Do students meet requirements in terms of grammar and pronunciation? • Do students meet requirements in terms of cultural contents? • Does a high number of students obtain external language certificates based on the Common European Framework levels.
Results in non-language subjects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do students meet the requirements in the understanding, processing and production of contents? • Do students master the established key competences for lifelong learning? • Are there any negative consequences of using the L2 in the teaching and learning of the content subjects? • Do students understand all necessary aspects of the class in the L2 in terms of input provided orally and in writing? • Are students able to produce texts appropriately in the L2 orally and in writing?
Non-academic results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do the different stakeholders involved (students, teachers and parents) show high levels of satisfaction with the program? • Does the program enjoy a good standing in the eyes of the rest of the school? • Does the program enjoy a good standing outside the school (e.g. in local press, etc.)

Quality management is by no means a new concept in education or, indeed, in language learning. In her discussion on systems, processes and instruments for quality in language education, Muresan (2007, p. 38) argues for the 'meaningful implementation of methods and instruments for monitoring the quality of all processes'. Similarly, Hughes (2004) proposes that quality should begin with creating an environment which motivates to participate in continuous improvement processes that allow stakeholders to a) collaboratively identify strong points and areas of improvement, b) design improvement actions and put them into practice, c) check the effects of actions, and d) reflect on future improvements. Results, then, form an important part of the process not only in terms of determining the effectiveness of planning and delivery of learning but also as a starting point for the detection of new areas of improvement.

11.8. Conclusion

Several schools in Spain have undergone a long and arduous process of initiating and gradually improving the implementation of bilingual and, in some cases, plurilingual programs; other schools are just beginning their journey. In both cases, different members of the school community are likely to see bilingual programs with varying degrees of enthusiasm or apathy, to see them as a vehicle for progress or one that will constrain learning. Ignoring the challenges and potential pitfalls in bilingual education would appear to be just as bad as ignoring the potential benefits. What appears to be important, however, is the need for decision-making which is evidence-based.

Each learning context is different, but it is possible to identify several areas which can potentially bring higher levels of success. At this point, our ongoing study offers a series of initial questions for reflection based on issues identified by a series of experts. The list of questions is a tentative one and by no means exhaustive. Instead, the issues mentioned here represent a starting point for dialogue and discussion and eventually for creative thinking and action.

The detection of strong points and areas of improvement requires a number of fundamental ingredients. Firstly, there is a need for commitment, primarily by school leadership, but also from subject teachers, students and families. This commitment arises perhaps in part from the availability of precise and objective information from both inside and outside the school in terms of school-based program evaluation and external evidence provided by wider works of research.

A further issue linked to this commitment is the creation of a bilingual or plurilingual culture within the school. This culture has the potential to motivate students and to help them see the value of the project. Culture is created by all those directly involved in the bilingual program, but is also helped with collaboration with other schools, with schools abroad and with external professional entities.

Here, individual teachers working in collaboration and with the ability to take initiatives play a fundamental role. Effective bilingual teaching not only depends on levels of linguistic competence, pedagogical ability, methodological expertise and legislative compliance. The ability to communicate and coordinate, to participate in projects, to identify strengths and areas of improvements and act upon information that has been gathered are also essential traits in the endeavours to give a program the best possible chance of success.

Among all of these areas, however, it is ultimately the results which point to a program's effectiveness. Results, both academic and non-academic can underscore areas which have been successful and which can serve as a basis upon which to build; they can also indicate failings and shortcomings and help those directly involved to identify solutions.

To a large degree, all of these processes bring us back to the first key area, which is that of informed leadership and commitment. In this chapter we have attempted to provide those in charge of specific bilingual learning contexts with a series of general areas and more specific questions. These questions may serve as a starting point for reflection and could lead to the identification of a series of more precise and contextualised questions that could lead to solutions that are not only evidence-based, but also tailor-made to fit the individual school.

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CLIL Teacher Education: Where do we Stand and Where do we Need to Go?

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Abstract

This chapter presents the outcomes of a large-scale program evaluation into the main training needs which CLIL teachers currently have in monolingual contexts. To this end, it has applied three sets of questionnaires and carried out semi-structured interviews with 2,633 teachers, students, and parents in three monolingual communities in Spain in order to carry out an in-depth analysis of where we stand on the teacher training front. After framing the topic against the backdrop of prior investigations and substantiating the need for a study of this nature, the chapter expounds on its research design and outlines its main findings. A detailed needs analysis of where we currently stand in terms of CLIL teacher training needs is provided and within- and across-cohort comparisons are carried out in terms of a series of intervening variables. The overarching conclusion is that considerable strides have been taken in the development of certain CLIL teacher competencies (e.g. scientific knowledge or collaborative competence), but malfunction continues to plague bilingual programs in terms of linguistic, methodological, and reflective and developmental competencies. The chief pedagogical implications accruing from these findings are pinpointed and ways forward for the future CLIL teacher training agenda are signposted.

12.1. Introduction

The approach to bilingual education which has engendered the most widespread and vibrant discussion in the past two decades is undoubtedly the European one: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). According to Hüttner and Smit (2014, p. 160), it “has enjoyed massive

uptake in continental Europe over the last twenty years in very diverse educational settings” and become “a major trend since the concept was coined in the 1990s”, in Fernández-Sanjurjo, Fernández-Costales, and Arias Blanco’s (2017, p. 1) words. It is now also being increasingly embraced in Latin American and Asian countries (Banegas, 2012; Liberali, 2013; Lara Herrera, 2015) as a potential lever for change and success in language learning.

Its grassroots implementation has entailed considerable financial allocation and has involved a thorough overhaul of all curricular and organizational levels of language teaching: from competencies, to methodology and materials, to student and teacher roles, to evaluation and assessment. In Pavón and Rubio’s (2010, p. 48) terms, it has brought about a real “methodological revolution”. However, of all these aspects which have been impacted by CLIL, it is perhaps the teacher who has most forcefully felt the effects of this profound didactic renewal. Indeed, CLIL demands a re-visioning of teacher roles and the development of a complex mesh of competencies for which practitioners are not always prepared. The consensus is that the rapid spread of CLIL has outpaced teacher education provision (Pérez Cañado, 2015). However, since the sustainability and future development of CLIL are considered to hinge largely on teacher training (Coyle, 2011), increased efforts have been made over the course of the past decade to pin down the exact competencies which bilingual educators should possess, to determine to what extent they are being developed, and to signpost ways forward for the CLIL teacher training agenda.

It is to these three overarching endeavors that the present chapter seeks to contribute. It will begin by glossing the chief competence proposals which have been set forth for the CLIL teacher, carrying out a personal reading and synthesis of the chief competencies which can be gleaned from them. It will subsequently canvass the research which has been conducted over the course of the past decade on where we stand vis-à-vis the acquisition of these all-important competencies. The bulk of the chapter will be devoted to presenting the outcomes of a recent investigation (cf. Acknowledgements) into this issue which has used data, methodological, investigator, and location triangulation to identify the main training needs which CLIL teachers have in monolingual communities in order to successfully step up to the bilingual challenge. The chapter will draw to an end by signposting possible solutions to address the chief challenges diagnosed.

12.2. The Theoretical Backdrop

12.2.1. The CLIL Teacher Profile

Given the increased demand which CLIL places on the teacher, there have been numerous attempts to unravel the parameters involved in the CLIL teacher profile. Three main international proposals stand out in this sense: those put forward by Hansen-Pauly et al. (2009); Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, and Frigols (2010); and Bertaux, Coonan, Frigols, and Mehisto (2010). At a national level, conspicuous strides to extricate core CLIL teacher competencies have been taken particularly over the course of the past half a decade by Lorenzo, Trujillo, and Vez (2011), Pavón and Ellison (2013), Madrid Manrique and Madrid Fernández (2014), and Pérez Cañado (2015). A key finding which can be gleaned from all these proposals is that the CLIL teacher profile, far from being monolithic, comprises a myriad of competencies which need to be honed and developed.

An initial pivotal one is *linguistic competence*, which also encompasses intercultural aspects and centers on both BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills), the everyday, here-and-now language commonly used for social interaction in the classroom, and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), the more abstract, specialized language used for academic purposes (Cummins, 1999). This dovetails with *pedagogical competence*, whereby teachers need

to be familiarized with the host of student-centered methodologies, more diversified learning environments and resources (where ICTs acquire a particularly sharp relief), and a more transparent, holistic, and formative type of evaluation. Concomitantly, practitioners must have *scientific knowledge*, which impinges not only on mastery of the contents they teach, but also on the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL, with which they need to be well-versed. This knowledge should be compounded with *organizational competence*, as the vast gamut of groupings and learning modalities which now burgeon within CLIL need to be successfully deployed by teachers, together with classroom management and control strategies. *Interpersonal* and *collaborative competencies* are two further areas which are integral to the CLIL teacher profile and which entail the capacity to create an adequate classroom atmosphere where students receive personalized attention and feel safe and unthreatened to participate and take risks, as well as the capacity to liaise with colleagues to a greater extent, stepping up collaboration and teamwork with them. All these competencies are fully commensurate with the final one -*reflective and developmental competence*- which points to the need for lifelong learning and for teachers to be constantly up-to-speed with the latest information and research on CLIL developments. In the face of the notable amount of CLIL teacher parameters outlined above, it becomes conspicuous that “CLIL is no easy undertaking for the teachers involved” (Pavón & Ellison, 2013, p. 69).

12.2.2. Prior Research

Are all these competencies being developed in the diverse scenarios where CLIL is being practically implemented? If we take a look at the existing research in an attempt to address this question, we ascertain that there has been a steadily growing body of research tapping into teacher training needs for CLIL. The studies conducted span the last decade and have also experienced an evolution in themselves, from modest, local case studies with no triangulation and numerically and geographically reduced samples (e.g., Fernández Fernández et al., 2005; Infante Benvenuto, & Lastrucci, 2009), to more ambitious endeavors which canvass European perspectives and comprise hundreds of respondents and different types of triangulation (e.g., Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b). An interesting evolution also transpires for each of the key competencies under scrutiny.

To begin with, vis-à-vis *linguistic and intercultural competence*, a noteworthy development can be traced. Initial studies (Fernández Fernández et al., 2005; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009) revealed that foreign language (FL) proficiency was a notable lacuna for CLIL teachers. It did not reach a B2 level in some cases in Lorenzo et al.'s (2009) study, was a conspicuous hurdle for 84% of the teachers polled in Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo's (2008) study, and was a sine qua non which needed to be urgently addressed before providing other types of training, according to Rubio Mostacero (2009). Teachers also clamored for more linguistic training in Fernández Fernández et al.'s (2009) investigation. However, after several further years of CLIL implementation, the need for linguistic training now appears to take a backseat. More recently, teachers seem to harbor a much more optimistic and self-complacent outlook on their linguistic level (Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016; Lancaster, 2016; Pérez-Cañado, 2016a, 2016b), which thus seems to have reached adequate levels for them to be able to teach confidently.

Similar findings have been obtained for *pedagogical* and *organizational competence*. Problems rooted in student-centered methodologies, materials adaptation and creation, and evaluation were well-documented in the initial studies conducted. Mehisto and Asser (2007) perceived lack of information on CLIL methodology in their program evaluation in Estonia, and a similar lack of rules or advice for bilingual classes, together with poor access to materials, was ascertained by Czura, Papaja, and Urbaniak (2009) in Poland. Substantial hurdles in terms of materials creation are also reported by Infante, Benvenuto, and Lastrucci (2009) in Italy and Alonso, Grisaleña, and Campo (2008) and Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) in Spain. In the

latter country, Lorenzo et al. (2009) and Cabezas Cabello (2010) also pinpoint a rift between theory and practice vis-à-vis CLIL methodology, as only “lip service”, as opposed to actual implementation of student-centered options, is worryingly highlighted (Cabezas Cabello, 2010, p. 90). More recent investigations, however (Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016; Lancaster, 2016; Pérez-Cañado, 2016a, 2016b), report the move towards less traditional and more active methodologies, more originally designed materials, a greater use of technological resources, and enhanced attempts at curricular integration. Evaluation also appears to be increasingly diversified in techniques and instruments, according to the stakeholders polled. Nonetheless, important niches still need to be addressed on this front, particularly pertaining to materials design and adaptation; catering to diversity and mixed ability groups; the use of the English Language Portfolio (ELP), project-based learning (PBL), and the Lexical Approach; the full incorporation of computer-mediated communication techniques; and the inclusion of the oral component in exams.

A less positive picture transpires for *scientific knowledge*, as comparatively less progress has been made on this score. Rubio Mostacero’s early study (2009) evinced the lack of familiarity of CLIL teachers with the theory of language and learning underlying this approach and with the key traits, models, and variants of these types of programs. However, more recent investigations continue to reveal that teacher training on this front is still found to be wanting. Indeed, Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador (2016) have underscored that subject content knowledge is the least valued of all the teaching competencies canvassed in their study in order to become an active member of a bilingual program. And, according to Pérez Cañado’s (2016a, 2016b) results, it is the area in which the lowest level and highest training needs have been detected. Indeed, the practitioners in her studies still have a conspicuous lack of familiarity with CLIL models, variants, and parameters, although they do seem to be well acquainted with their national/regional bilingual policy framework.

Similar deficiencies can be detected for *reflective and developmental competence*. If insufficient information to be up-to-speed with the latest goings-on in the CLIL arena was documented by Mehisto and Asser (2007), it continues to run through the latest investigations. Fernández and Halbach (2011) call for enhanced opportunities for training abroad. And Lancaster (2016) and Pérez Cañado (2016a, 2016b) have found that teachers still have lacunae on the effects and functioning of CLIL in evidence-based research and have majoritarily never obtained study licenses for further research or participated in specific MA degrees in CLIL or in methodological upgrade courses abroad. They also lack familiarity with publications on CLIL and the principles of quantitative and qualitative research. Existing barriers for ongoing professional development should thus be lifted and heightened care should be taken to “acquaint in-service teachers with the basics of evidence-based research both to carry out action research in their classrooms and to interpret the findings of other investigations in specialized publications, on which they equally need to be briefed” (Pérez Cañado, 2016a, p. 14).

More mixed results are obtained for *interpersonal and collaborative competence*. Lack of coordination, the need to increase collaboration with colleagues, and attention to diversity come across as three of the greatest hurdles with which CLIL programs are faced from the very first investigations conducted on the topic (Fernández Fernández et al., 2005; Mehisto & Asser, 2007; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Infante et al., 2009; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010). It appears that coordination and collaboration in the elaboration of the integrated curriculum design have been stepped up in more recent studies (Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b), but problems with mixed ability groups, special needs students, and latecomers to the program still constitute a major challenge (Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016).

Thus, this overview of prior research into CLIL teacher training allows us to derive several overarching conclusions. To begin with, it has enabled us to ascertain that awareness of the

importance of teacher training for CLIL has been growing steadily over the course of the past decade, as increasing attention has been accorded to this research strand in the specialized literature. Secondly, it has allowed us to observe that these studies in themselves have undergone a very positive evolution: from local, reduced case studies with no triangulation, they have gradually given rise to numerically and geographically representative investigations with tightly controlled validity and reliability procedures. Finally, a third take-away is that the initial mise-en-scène of teacher training for CLIL differs substantially from the more current picture: while considerable strides have been taken in some areas like *linguistic and intercultural competence* or *pedagogical* and *organizational competence*, less conspicuous progress has been documented for others such as *scientific knowledge* and *reflective and organizational competence*, and mixed results have been obtained for yet others, including *interpersonal* and *collaborative competence*.

Thus, given the considerable changes which have been documented over time on the topic under scrutiny, the replication in more updated circumstances of research which supersedes some of the lacunae presented by the studies summarized above is fully warranted. A large-scale program evaluation, framed within a broader governmentally-funded research project, is here proposed. It focuses explicitly on CLIL teacher training, incorporates four different types of triangulation, bases instrument design and validation on the latest CLIL research, factors in and controls for identification variables, and works with the most numerically representative sample of similar studies hereto conducted with the ultimate aim of providing empirically sound data to continue pushing CLIL implementation forward.

12.3. The Study

12.3.1. Objectives

The broad objective of this investigation is to conduct a large-scale multifaceted CLIL evaluation project into the main training needs which teachers (and, within them, language teachers, subject teachers, and teaching assistants), students, and parents currently have in order to successfully implement bilingual education programs in three of the autonomous communities in Spain which have the most firmly entrenched monolingual tradition: Andalusia, Extremadura, and the Canary Islands. Three key metaconcerns drive the study and serve as cornerstones for this project. They are presented and broken down into component corollaries below:

Metaconcern 1 (Needs analysis)

1. To determine teacher perceptions of the main training needs required for successful CLIL teaching.
2. To determine student perceptions of the main training needs required for successful CLIL teaching.
3. To determine parent perceptions of the main training needs required for successful CLIL teaching.

Metaconcern 2 (Across-cohort comparison)

4. To determine if there are statistically significant differences vis-à-vis CLIL teacher training in the perceptions of the three cohorts: teachers, students, and parents.

Metaconcern 3 (Within-cohort comparison)

5. To determine if there are statistically significant differences vis-à-vis CLIL teacher training within the cohort of teachers in terms of age, gender, type of teacher, administrative situation, type of school, level and teaching experience.
6. To determine if there are statistically significant differences vis-à-vis CLIL teacher training within the cohort of students in terms of age, gender, grade, type of school, and experience in a bilingual program.

7. To determine if there are statistically significant differences vis-à-vis CLIL teacher training within the cohort of parents in terms of age, gender, type of school, and level of studies.

12.3.2. Research Design

The present investigation is an instance of primary research, and within it, of survey research, as it includes interviews and questionnaires (Brown, 2001). There are three key characteristics which this author ascribes to survey research: it is data-based, employs interviews and questionnaires, and is mid-way between qualitative and statistical research, as it can make use of both these techniques. Within it, what Denzin (1970) terms *multiple triangulation* has been employed, specifically of the following four types:

- *Data triangulation*, as multiple sources of information have been consulted to mediate biases interjected by people with different roles in the language teaching context: students, parents, and teachers (and within the latter, non-linguistic area teachers, English language teachers, and teaching assistants).
- *Methodological triangulation*, since multiple data-gathering procedures have been drawn on: questionnaires and interviews.
- *Investigator triangulation*, due to the fact that different researchers have analyzed the open-response items on the questionnaire and interviews, written up their conclusions and collated their findings.
- *Location triangulation*, given that language learning data has been collected from multiple data-gathering sites: primary and secondary schools.

12.3.3. Sample

The project has worked with an ample cohort of students, teachers, and parents in the three autonomous communities in question. The study has had a significant return rate, as the surveys and interviews have been conducted with a total of 2,633 informants. The most representative cohort has been that of students (with 1,763 participants), followed by parents (563 in all) and teachers (307) (cf. Figure 12.1). In terms of gender, women (54.5%) slightly outnumber their male counterparts (45.5%) (cf. Figure 12.2).

FIGURE 12.1. Breakdown of the overall sample in terms of cohort

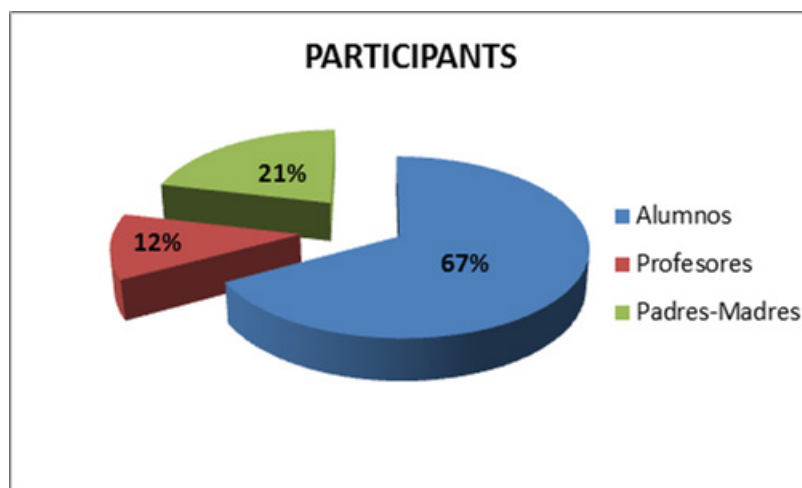
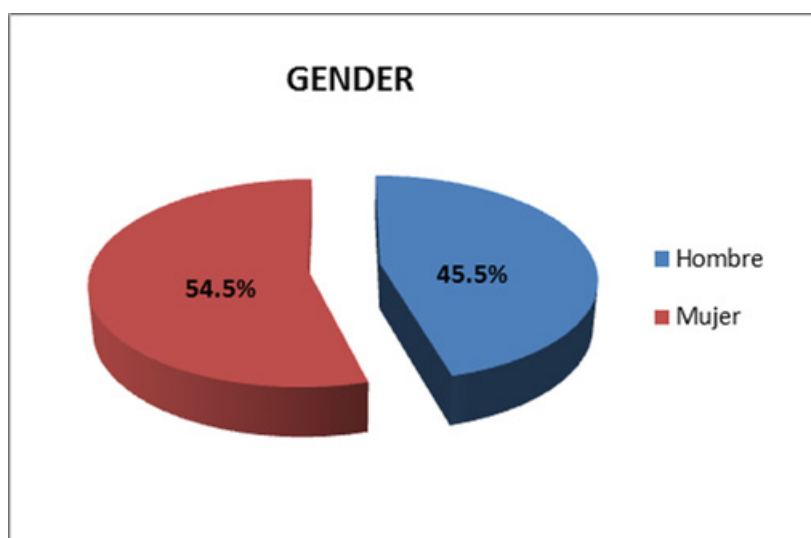


FIGURE 12.2. Breakdown of the overall sample in terms of gender



The bulk of the students are finishing Compulsory Secondary Education (4th grade of CSE - ages 15-16) (60.9%), as opposed to 39.1%, who are at the end of primary level (6th grade of primary education - ages 11-12). The majority study in public bilingual schools (88.9%), versus 11.1%, who attend private bilingual ones. Finally, a greater number of students (64%) attend urban schools, while a more reduced percentage (36%) is enrolled in rural ones.

In turn, roughly equal percentages of teachers are 40 or younger (48.3%) or older than 40 (51.7%). Most of the respondents within this cohort are content teachers (49.8%), followed closely by English as a Foreign Language teachers (41.9%). Language assistants only amount to a 4.3%. The majority of the practitioners polled have either one to ten years of teaching experience (38.4%) or have been teaching from 11 to 20 years (32.8%). 20% have between 21 and 30 years of teaching experience, 3.3% have been teaching for less than a year, and 5.6% have more than 30 years of experience.

Finally, the breakdown of the parent cohort evinces that roughly equivalent percentages are younger (51%) and older (49%) than 45. Similar percentages have either a BA (37.5%) or high school diplomas (33.4%). Vocational training ranks next (18.9%) and lower percentages have either no studies (7.6%) or PhDs (2.5%).

12.3.4. Variables

A series of *identification (subject) variables* have been contemplated, related to the individual characteristics of the three different stakeholders who have been polled through the questionnaire and interview.

The identification variables for each cohort are specified below:

Teachers

- Type of school
- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Type of teacher

- Administrative situation
- Level of English
- Subjects taught
- Overall teaching experience
- Teaching experience in a bilingual school

Students

- Type of school
- Grade
- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Years in a bilingual program
- Subjects learned in English
- Amount of exposure to English within the bilingual program

Parents

- Type of school
- Grade of child
- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Level of studies

12.3.5. Instruments

The study has employed questionnaires (self-administered and group-administered), which Brown (2001) subsumes within *survey tools*, to carry out the targeted program evaluation. Three sets of questionnaires (one for each of the cohorts) have been designed and validated in both Spanish and English. They include, in line with Patton's (1987) question types, *demographic or background questions* to elicit biographical information from the respondents (which correspond to the identification variables) and *opinion or value questions* to probe the outlook student and teacher perceptions regarding CLIL program development. The latter questions are exemplified in the form of 61 items within the teacher questionnaire, 50 items encased in that of the teachers, and 40 items comprised within the parent survey. The three different questionnaires deal with practically the same information; in spite of a slight diversity, most of the items have been matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts.

A double-fold pilot procedure has been adopted in the editing and validation of the questionnaires, which has entailed, firstly, the expert ratings approach and, subsequently, a pilot phase with a representative sample of respondents (263 informants with exactly the same traits as the target respondents). Their responses allowed us to continue refining the questionnaires in terms of ambiguities, confusion, or redundancies and enabled the calculation of Cronbach's alpha for each of the surveys in order to guarantee their reliability or internal consistency. The latter was ascertained by means of the extremely high coefficients obtained for the three questionnaires: 0.940 for the student one, 0.931 for the teacher equivalent, and 0.895 for the parent survey (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2016c for a detailed rendering of the design and validation of the questionnaires and for access to the final versions for each of the three cohorts³).

In turn, interviews are the second tool which has been employed for qualitative information gathering. Semi-structured interview protocols have been used, where clear-cut questions have

³ Available at <http://revistas.cardenalcisneros.es/index.php/PULSO/article/view/217/187>.

been established beforehand, but always with a view to allowing further elaboration on each of the areas of concern. The questions comprised in the interviews correspond to ten main thematic blocks parallel to those included in the questionnaires for the comparability of both instruments. All of them have been face-to-face focus group interviews with all the teachers and each class of students in each school. Roughly 60 minutes have been allocated to the teacher interviews and the student ones have stretched over approximately 30 minutes per CLIL class. Two researchers have recorded the main ideas which have come to the fore in an extended protocol and digital recordings have been made with prior authorization on the part of the interviewees. Prior to conducting the interviews, the researchers who have acted as interviewers have been trained in order to develop common basic guidelines and offer clear directions to the respondents.

12.3.6. Data Analysis: Statistical Methodology

The data obtained on the questionnaires has been analyzed statistically, using the SPSS program in its 21.0 version. Descriptive statistics have been used to report on the results obtained for metaconcern 2 (objectives 1–3). Both central tendency (mean, median and mode) and dispersion measures (range, low-high, standard deviation) have been calculated. In turn, for metaconcerns 2 and 3 (objectives 4–7), the ANOVA, t test and Mann–Whitney *U* test have been employed to determine the existence of statistically significant differences between groups and within groups, in terms of the moderating and identification variables considered. For the analysis of the interview protocols, Grounded Theory analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) has been employed to code the data and draw meaning from it. Data coding, memoing, and conclusion drawing for the responses on the semi-structured interview have been used in order to categorize, synthesize, and identify emerging patterns in the open-response data.

12.4. Results and Discussion

In order to address the three metaconcerns and seven objectives, specific blocks of items have been selected from the overall questionnaire: in the case of teachers, blocks 5 and 6 (items 38–56); for students, block 5 (items 34–36 and 40–43); and, finally, for parents, block 5 (items 26–28). In turn, the sections of the interview protocols which have allowed greater insight into the aspect under scrutiny have been those related 6) Coordination and organization, 8) Teacher training and mobility, and 10) Overall appraisal of the bilingual program.

12.4.1. Needs Analysis

In line with the first metaconcern (objectives 1–3), our study has allowed us to paint a comprehensive picture of teacher, student, and parent perspectives à propos the main training needs required for successful CLIL teaching within our monolingual context. The outcomes obtained for the teacher cohort are extremely interesting, as they substantiate previous findings, but also depart drastically from others. This is the case, for instance, of *linguistic and intercultural competence*. The teachers polled seem to harbor a very optimistic outlook of their oral, written, and intercultural competence (items 46–48), a finding in harmony with those of Fernández and Halbach (2011), Lancaster (2016), or Pérez Cañado (2016a, 2016b). However, within-group comparisons (cf. metaconcern 3) and the interviews have allowed us to qualify this outcome. The former have revealed that non-linguistic area teachers are still very much in need of further linguistic training (something which accords with the outcomes of Pérez Cañado, 2016a) and the latter have evinced that language teachers with a B2+ level also clamor for enhanced training on this front. They consider less linguistic training is being offered –especially at a C1 and C2 level– and this is having disadvantaging effects on their language level: “*Vamos a peor*”, as one teacher claims. This is very much in line with the outcomes for item 52, which have evinced a decrease

in language training at Official Language Schools. The teachers polled consider linguistic and methodological training are “*las dos ruedas del carro*”: they need to be dealt with in equal proportion, as one cannot be larger than the other “*porque no se puede hacer andar el carro con una rueda más grande que otra*”. The specific linguistic aspect on which they particularly need increased attention is BICS, fluency, and the language for daily communication and interaction in the classroom (Ruiz Gómez, 2015). Thus, contrary to previous investigations where this aspect seemed to be covered, our study has revealed that we cannot let our guard down vis-à-vis taken-for-granted issues in CLIL teacher training.

Our findings also depart from those of prior investigations in *scientific knowledge*. Indeed, it appears that headway has been made in teachers’ familiarization with the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and the knowledge of the official bilingual plan and documents (items 49 and 50), a positive finding which indicates that this competence has been addressed in recent years (as opposed to the situation documented by Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b).

Similar progress can be ascertained for *collaborative competence*: coordination (items 44 and 45) is now more positively gauged than in previous studies (Fernández Fernández et al., 2005; Mehisto & Asser, 2007; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Infante et al., 2009; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010). Teachers document the heightened use of PBL, which increases coordination and helps attune the programs to specific student needs; of integrated didactic units; and of blogs through which to liaise and give visibility to their outputs. However, the difficulty with which all this is carried out is also underscored, as there is insufficient time (just one hour a week) to meet up and coordinate these aspects. Extra hours outside the official schedule need to be resorted to in order to adequately plan ongoing collaborative projects, which negatively impinges on the teachers’ workload and motivation.

A final noteworthy finding is the rift which currently exists between the training teachers consider they have received and the actual teacher training they engage in. While, in general, teachers believe they have sufficient training (albeit less so in the case of non-linguistic area teachers, something in keeping with the outcomes found in metaconcern 3) (items 38-40), extremely low means have been detected for their actual participation in training initiatives (items 51, 53, 54, 55, and 56). It appears that teachers are not participating in specific training on CLIL, in exchange programs, in linguistic and methodological courses abroad, or in study licenses. This *ongoing professional development* is still a major niche to be filled, something fully in keeping with prior studies (Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b), from which it seems no progress has thus far been made on this front. This is clearly corroborated by the more open comments on the interviews, where teachers explicitly acknowledge ongoing professional development as a weakness and clamor for more training abroad, post-for-post exchanges, and participation in Erasmus+ programs, all of which they consider tremendously enriching. It is interesting to observe, however, that, despite these potential hurdles, their motivation continues to be intact. Difficulties are circumvented “*a base de esfuerzo personal y motivación*”, which appear to be the greatest driving forces bolstering a success-prone implementation of the CLIL enterprise. As Fernández and Halbach (2011, p. 262) have put it, “success (...) ultimately relies on teachers’ commitment and motivation, rather than on the support of educational authorities (...)” (cf. Figure 12.3).

Drawing now on the students’ results, this second cohort has an overwhelmingly positive view of their language teachers’, content teachers’, and teaching assistants’ preparation (items 34-36) and linguistic and intercultural competence (items 41-43). They especially value their language teachers, followed by the non-linguistic area ones. The only aspect on which they harbor a more negative view is the collaboration of teaching assistants with their colleagues within the bilingual class (item 40). This is fully corroborated by the open responses on the interviews. The students do not always perceive coordination among their teachers or consider they devote sufficient time to PBL (cf. Figure 12.4).

FIGURE 12.3. Teacher perceptions of training needs

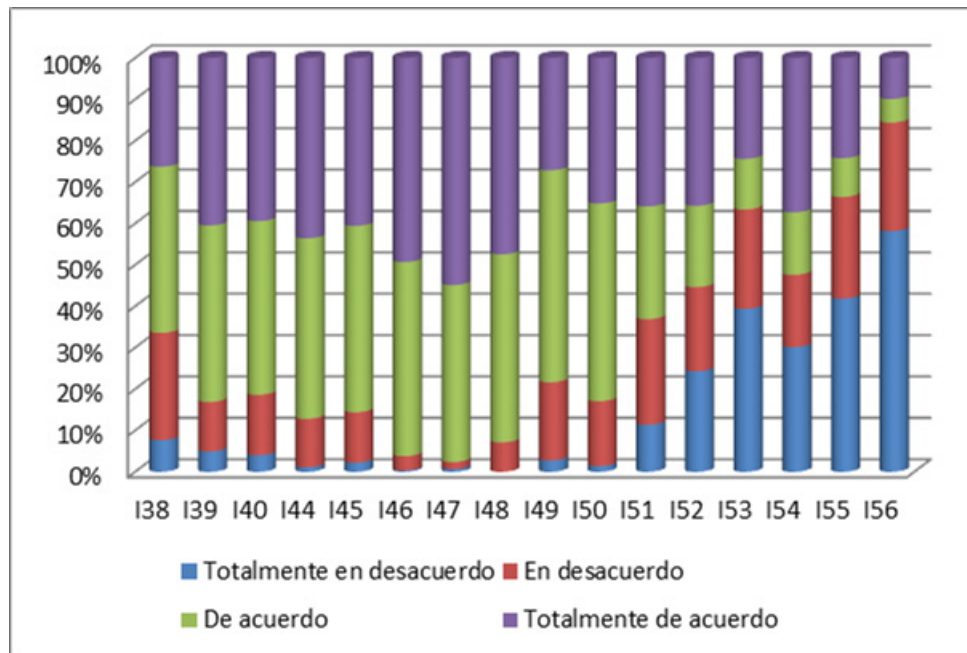
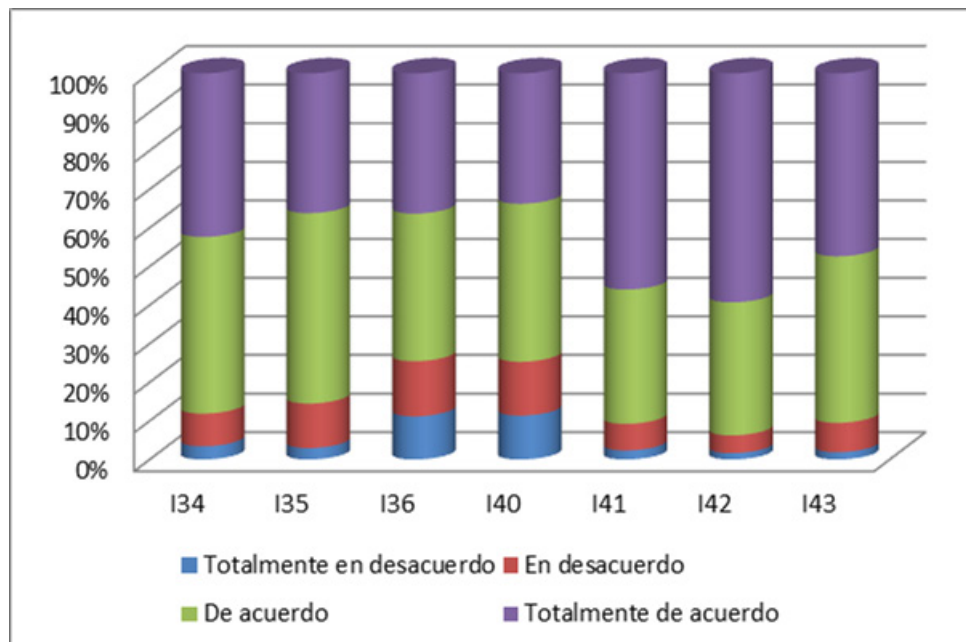
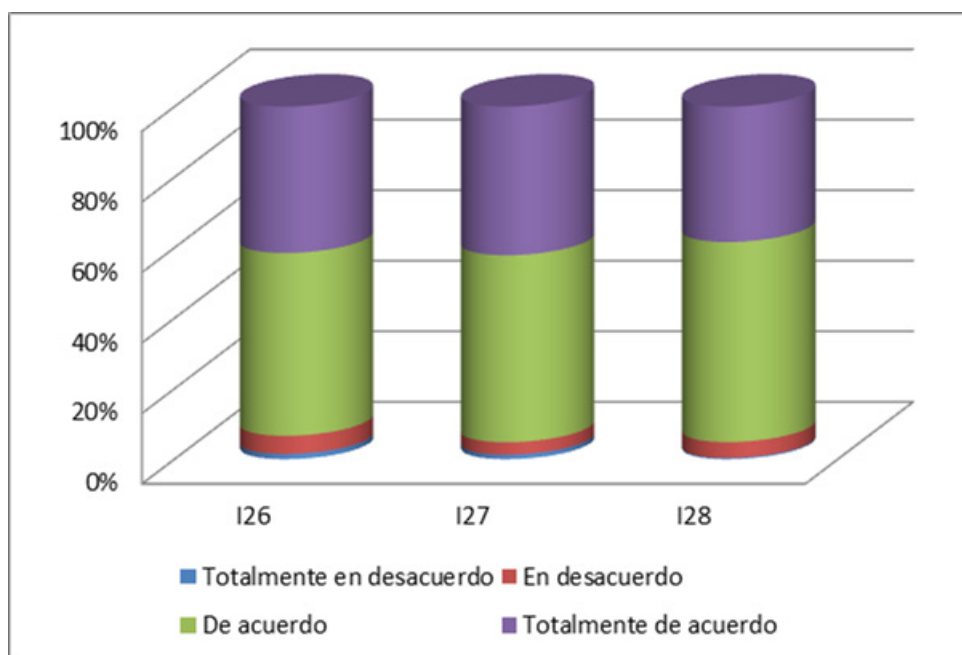


FIGURE 12.4. Student perceptions of training needs



Finally, parents' outlook on teacher training is extremely positive. They appear to have total faith in the oral, written, and intercultural competence of their children's teachers (items 26-28). This finding is very much in line with the acceptance and prestige of bilingual programs among the key stakeholders involved, which authors like Coyle (2011) have documented (cf. Figure 12.5).

FIGURE 12.5. Parent perceptions of training needs



12.4.2. Across-Cohort Comparison

These differences across cohorts are empirically substantiated by the ANOVA and the t test, in line with the second metaconcern (objective 4). Indeed, as had been informally ascertained in the descriptive analysis, teachers harbor the most self-complacent view of their own linguistic (oral and written) capacity: although the other two cohorts also value it positively, theirs is the most optimistic outlook of all (items 46 and 47). In line with the foregoing, it is the students who consider their language teachers need more training (item 38), more significantly so than the language teachers themselves. Also in harmony with the descriptive analysis, the perspective on coordination is significantly more negative from the outlook of students than from that of teachers (item 45). Thus, this second metaconcern has allowed us to confirm statistically the tendencies ascertained in the prior descriptive analysis.

12.4.3. Within-Cohort Comparison

If statistically significant differences are considered within each cohort in terms of the identification variables (metaconcern 3 – objectives 5-7), equally interesting findings emerge. It is curious to note that within-cohort differences surface on very clear-cut variables within each group of stakeholders. The number of statistically significant differences also diminishes from the teacher to the student to the parent cohort. In the latter, in fact, no statistically significant differences can be found, thereby evincing that parents, regardless of the diverse identification variables considered, harbor an optimistic outlook on the teachers' preparation across the board.

The teacher cohort, however, presents great variability, something which is not surprising considering that different types of practitioners have been subsumed within this group (language teachers, content teachers, and teaching assistants). Differences can be detected, to begin with, in terms of *gender*, where the female respondents invariably hold the most positive outlook on their linguistic and intercultural competence and on their participation in ongoing professional development initiatives. As regards *type of teacher*, non-linguistic area teachers are the ones who

again invariably evince the greatest training needs on linguistic and intercultural aspects. To address this need, it is not surprising that they are the ones who have participated to a greater extent in linguistic training in Official Language Schools. However, they are also the subgroup who has participated less in other types of training and who thus clamors for more ongoing professional development in CLIL. This clearly points to the need of providing increased training on all these fronts for non-linguistic areas teachers, who are not as familiarized with the theory and methodology underlying CLIL, as has also been evinced by other studies (Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b). Setting up Master's courses specifically geared at this type of CLIL teacher would be a possible solution to counter these deficiencies, something which is currently being done by Andalusian universities (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2015). *Language level* also yields interesting within-cohort differences. Very logically, those teachers with higher language levels (C1 and C2) have greater confidence in their oral and written skills and those with lower levels (B1) seek out more intense participation in language courses. Another interesting finding which emerges is that only when teachers have reached a certain linguistic level (C1) do they start participating in methodological upgrade courses abroad. Language thus comes across as a basic need to teach through CLIL, and only when it is covered, others may emerge, something completely in line with Rubio Mostacero's (2009) findings. Finally, vis-à-vis *teaching experience*, it appears that the younger teachers (with one year or less of teaching experience) have more confidence in their linguistic skills, while the more experienced ones (with 30 years or more of teaching experience) are the ones who have benefitted to a greater extent from the diverse types of training offered. Thus, measures should be taken to orchestrate a fair balance in the way in which these training actions are assigned to ensure that all age brackets can access them adequately.

In the case of students, it is two variables -*grade and experience in a CLIL program*- which produce the greatest number of statistically significant differences. The pattern is unequivocal: in terms of grade, 6th grade students have a more optimistic view of their teachers' preparation, level, and coordination than their 4th grade of CSE counterparts, and as regards *experience in a CLIL program*, the longer students have been involved in CLIL streams, the more optimistic their outlook is as regards their teachers' potential. Thus, it appears that time and experience (as Hughes, 2010 also underscores) are crucial for the full extent of bilingual schemes to be appreciated.

12.5. Conclusion

The present study has allowed us to paint an updated and comprehensive picture of where we currently stand vis-à-vis the chief training needs of CLIL teachers in monolingual settings. The perspectives of the key players in CLIL programs (teachers, students, and parents) have been canvassed using methodological triangulation (questionnaires and interviews) and location triangulation (primary and secondary school settings in three monolingual communities in Spain). Our findings reveal that considerable strides have been taken in this arena, but that much troubleshooting is still required in CLIL teacher training scenarios. The outcomes also have far-reaching pedagogical implications for future decisions regarding training initiatives.

Our findings have first of all allowed us to document a pendulum effect in *linguistic and intercultural competence*: from being relegated to a secondary position in prior teacher training, now the pendulum has swung to the other extreme and positioned linguistic competence as a top priority, together with *methodological competence*, especially for non-linguistic area teachers and language teachers who have a B2+ level. Increasing the offer of C1 and C2 courses, especially focused on Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, together with that of methodological upgrade courses, should thus become a preferential area of attention.

Another interesting outcome is that considerable progress has been made in the development of *scientific knowledge* and *collaborative competence*, which teachers now seem

to master and incorporate to a greater extent. Difficulties, however, continue to surface, rooted in insufficient time for weekly meetings, which educational authorities would do well to step up within teachers' official schedules.

Less headway appears to have been made on *reflective and developmental competence*, as ongoing professional development is undoubtedly still one of the main niches to be addressed within CLIL teacher training, especially vis-à-vis linguistic and methodological courses abroad, exchange programs, and study licenses. Gatekeepers thus need to ensure that this type of training is available especially for non-linguistic area teachers (who evince the greatest training deficits), is attuned to specific needs (teachers with a higher language level are the ones who seek to engage in methodological training to a greater extent), and is assigned equally across age brackets (especially to teachers with fewer years of experience, who are not as likely to benefit from these initiatives as their more experienced counterparts, according to our findings).

Thus, future pedagogical decisions should be governed by empirical evidence such as that stemming from this study and future replications of it. These findings should be leveraged to design graduate and undergraduate degrees, set up specific courses, and determine the way they are assigned to the diverse types of teachers. It is only by placing research at the service of pedagogy through “evidence-based practice” (Coyle, 2011) that we will guarantee teachers can confidently and successfully step up to the bilingual challenge and thereby truly reap the benefits which CLIL has to offer.

12.6. Acknowledgements

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The Impact of International Speaking and Listening Assessments on Primary School Bilingual Learning: Insights from Survey Research

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Abstract

256 primary school teachers from the bilingual Spanish-English teaching project Autonomous Region of Madrid, Spain, were recruited to complete an online survey regarding what impact the use of external international speaking and listening assessments has had on their students and their learning, and how they as teachers use speaking and listening exam materials as a learning tool in the classroom. By utilising best practice in the design and execution of the survey, and by analysing the data using descriptive and inferential statistics, it was found that a large majority of teachers believe that the use of the external oral exams has improved learning outcomes, particularly with regard to their students' confidence and skills in spoken communication. Correlating areas of improvement in the students' English skills were identified. The teachers also reported that they used the exam materials for a wide range of purposes. A factor analysis of the teachers' responses revealed that there were five purposes, only two of them related directly to exam training, the other three related to other areas of English teaching, skills development, monitoring and evaluation. These five purposes are presented here as an activity and support planning framework for the bilingual classroom. The impact data and activity and support planning framework should be of interest to teachers, education professionals and publishers, and to those responsible for teacher support and education policy decisions.

13.1. Introduction

13.1.1. Context

This research was conceived and conducted with the aim of drawing to the surface evidence regarding how international speaking and listening assessments are used in and impact on the bilingual learning context. Since the early 2000's state-initiated bilingual projects have been introduced in different autonomous communities in Spain, including Andalucía, Murcia, Canarias and Cantabria. In this research, the focus is on the bilingual project of the Comunidad de Madrid, the local government organisation for the autonomous municipality of Madrid, Spain. The bilingual project in Madrid was one of the first of its kind in Spain, set up to improve the English language ability of primary age learners in Madrid, using content and language integrated learning (CLIL)/English as the medium of instruction (EMI) methodologies as the vehicle for the improvement. One of the early targets for the project was for students aged seven and eight to achieve a level of A2.1 on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in their oral communication skills.

13.1.2. Introduction of External Assessments

From 2004, the Comunidad de Madrid chose to introduce an external assessment to the bilingual project. It was felt that external language assessments could provide an objective and independent measure of student progress and serve to audit the students' overall English oral communication skills. The exams would take place towards the end of each school year (around May), thereby providing an oral communication target for teachers and students to aim for that complemented the overall aims of the bilingual project. In order to introduce a measurable target using a respected and objective system of evaluation, the Comunidad went into partnership with Trinity College London. Trinity administered the Graded Examination in Spoken English (GESE) with lower learners taking GESE Grade 2 (A1 on the CEFR) and stronger learners taking GESE Grade 3 (A2.1 on the CEFR). Details of these exams and GESE Examination Specifications can be found on the Trinity College London (2017) website.

For the academic year 2006-2007, the external speaking and listening assessment of learners in the bilingual project was expanded. The first learners to have taken an external assessment in English oral communication skills were now two years older, and the Comunidad felt that a further measurement of progress was required, with a target of the learners achieving A2.2 or, ideally, B1 on the CEFR. Again, working in partnership with Trinity College London, the Comunidad introduced assessments at higher levels in GESE, with nine and ten year olds now taking either GESE Grade 4 (A2.2 on the CEFR) or GESE Grade 5 (B1 on the CEFR). A further expansion of the project was introduced in 2008 with students in the final years of primary being set the goal of achieving A2 or B1 in all four skills. For this, the Comunidad worked with Cambridge ESOL, introducing their Key English Test (KET) and Preliminary English Test (PET) for students aged eleven and twelve. Although the Cambridge assessments are four-skills assessments, they nevertheless include the assessment of speaking and listening skills and are therefore included in this research. Details of Cambridge language assessments can be found on the Cambridge ESOL (2017) website.

By 2016, the bilingual project in the Comunidad de Madrid had grown to include 391 public and 71 subsidised private bilingual teaching centres, with more than 33,000 students being enrolled in external English assessments for the 4th and 6th years of primary.

13.2. Research Aims

This research concerns itself with two lines of investigation. The first looks to explore any positive impacts that can result from integrating examination preparation into the bilingual school curriculum and using exam-like exercises and materials in the classroom. One might suggest that a view onto possible impacts can come from the certified achievement of language levels in the form of exam results. However, results are but one view of learning outcomes. They do not reveal any details of the learning process or washback - the impact of an exam on teaching and learning in the classroom. As an alternative to focusing on exam results, one could also ask the learners about their experience of the exams. However, there are both ethical and practical constraints inherent in such an approach: students in this study would be primary age pupils with a lack of awareness of the learning process and an inability to articulate their learning experience. The focus therefore shifts to the teachers to provide their reports of any positive impacts these assessments and exam materials may have on teaching and learning. This brings us to research questions (RQ)1 and 2:

RQ1: What positive impacts on learners can result from integrating examination preparation into the curriculum and using exam-like exercises in the classroom?

The second line of investigation in the present research concerns how the teachers use exam materials in the bilingual primary classroom. One might logically expect the answer to such an enquiry to be something along the lines of, 'I use exam materials to prepare for exams'. But is this really the case? Is that simply an assumption without evidence? Do teachers use the exam materials for more than just exams? This brings us to RQ2:

RQ2. In the most recent year of teaching, in what ways did teachers use the international speaking and listening exam materials in the classroom?

This question was general and did not seek to specifically name activity types as it was felt that the range of materials available in books, video and other formats was so broad that to specify which materials had been used risked creating a false negative with teachers reporting that because their type of activity was not listed, they would report no use of exam materials at all.

13.3. Method

13.3.1. Considerations in Survey Design

The research was conducted using survey techniques. All too often, considerations in good survey design are omitted from the method sections of social research papers. Perhaps the proliferation of professional-looking, easy-to-access online survey tools leads researchers to presume that there are few theoretical considerations in achieving reliable social survey results. It is no coincidence, however, that where survey techniques are present but there is little evidence in the method section of an understanding of survey design theory or best practice, there is often a poorly-designed and executed survey close by. The construction of valid and reliable survey questionnaires and the collection of accurate and reliable data requires an understanding of good survey design practice, possible sources of measurement error, and of how a respondent's answer may differ from the conceptual 'true value' (Olsen and Parkhurst 2013). The present survey was constructed utilising best practice in survey design, in full awareness of the common pitfalls that may arise. Here I provide a brief summary of some of the considerations that have informed the construction of the questionnaire used in this research.

i) Concept/construct specification: 'The research objectives of many survey studies are ill-defined' (Schwartz, 1997). Only when one has identified the underlying construct or concepts

that the survey is attempting to access and measure, should one consider the creation of survey items, by translating concepts from a construct specification into questions. These must then be piloted to ensure satisfactory levels of validity and reliability. The present survey started life as a concept specification and the survey items were created from this blueprint.

ii) Respondent behaviour: respondents are a major source of measurement error. It is commonly assumed by researchers unfamiliar with survey theory that if a respondent provides an answer, their response is honest or accurate. But the reality is that respondents are humans, and as humans, we are vulnerable to cognitive biases. Our responses can be mediated by psychological factors such as topic sensitivity and personal vulnerability. Motivated misreporting –providing socially desirable, face-supporting or self-protecting responses– is an ever-present threat to eliciting reliable survey data as we look for clues regarding researcher-desired responses and acquiesce to what we believe is desired of us.

iii) Respondent cognitive burden: our performance is compromised by heavy cognitive load, high demand on working memory and lengthy, taxing questionnaires. Respondent fatigue or faulty recall are a common consequence of a heavy cognitive burden, and if the respondents do not drop out completely, they may look to get through a questionnaire by ‘satisficing’ (Krosnick and Alwin, 1987) – using an answering strategy that is less demanding of mental effort. This leads individuals to be less than thorough and select the first items that are ‘good enough’.

The researcher in this study gave no indication of any desired outcomes, and avoided probing for sensitive information. The survey was sensitive to the danger of respondent burn-out and was designed not to require a large amount of cognitive processing or effort to retrieve judgements from memory.

iv) Question wording and sequencing: question wording and sequencing are sources of measurement error. Good survey practice tells us that questions should be clear and unambiguous, using terms that all respondents will interpret the same way. Each item should contain only one single question and there should be no double-barrelled questions. Negative questions should generally be avoided to prevent misunderstanding of the question by the respondent and misunderstanding of the respondent’s answer by the researcher. The sequencing of items can influence how respondents behave, and the layout and even spacing of scales can significantly affect the responses given. The present research was sensitive to all of these issues.

v) Accessing attitudes and opinions: Researchers must be aware that the public do not conduct their lives with a set of fixed, stable and readily available attitudes and we do not hold an opinion on everything. However, by the age of two or three, we have lost the ability not to answer and will always provide replies, whether we hold an opinion or not. As a general rule, the greater the abstraction, irrelevance or unfamiliarity to the respondent, the greater the chances of respondents simply inventing opinions on the spot, yielding unreliable survey data. The problem here is that researchers commonly mistake spontaneously created researcher-pleasing responses for real-world, strongly held views, and come to inaccurate and unreliable conclusions regarding the meaning of their data. The present research was designed around constructs that are real, relevant and available to the audience of teachers using concepts that they could readily express in their own words if required.

vi) Ethics: at all points, the teachers were assured of their anonymity, that any data they provided would be handled securely and that they could leave the research at any time with no consequence to themselves. They were told who was conducting the survey, where the data would be stored and given a contact email address. The whole questionnaire was designed in accordance with the guidelines for good practice set out by the British Association for Applied Linguistics (2017).

13.3.2. Participants

The bilingual project in the Comunidad de Madrid has grown significantly since its inception, with hundreds of teachers being involved in the delivery of the Madrid primary school syllabus using both English and Spanish as the medium of instruction. In total, 256 of these teachers responded to the various questions in the research and Table 1 gives a breakdown of which exams they reported that they have taught. In administering the survey, the questionnaire did not mention the exams by name, as it was anticipated that to do so could entail teachers responding to knowledge of or loyalty to/dislike of an exam brand rather than the focus on the learning outcomes and methods.

Unsurprisingly, given the history of external assessments in the bilingual project, the distribution shows that more teachers have experience of teaching Trinity's GESE exams than the Cambridge KET/PET exams, with 88% of all respondents having taught GESE, and 51% having taught only GESE, never KET/PET. 49% of teachers have some experience of teaching the Cambridge KET/PET exams and 12% of teachers have only experience of preparing for Cambridge exams. 37% of teachers responded that they have experience of preparing both Trinity and Cambridge exams.

TABLE 13.1. Which exams teachers who participated in the research have taught 2011-2016

	I taught only GESE	I taught both KET/PET and GESE	I taught only PET/KET
256 teachers responded that they have taught in the bilingual programme from 2011-2016	132 (51%)	94 (37%)	30 (12%)

13.3.3. Structure of the Survey

Both research questions in the survey used their own measurement scale. For RQ1, the teachers were given a list of nine categories representing possible areas of impact. These impact areas were chosen to reflect some of the common improvements that we know from anecdotal evidence teachers report. The teachers were able to indicate their responses using three categories:

➤ no positive effect / some improvement / a big improvement

As RQ1 gave answers that were potential representations of the single underlying concept - the impact of the language exam on the students' communication and study skills. The nine impact variables were also checked for reliability, to ensure that each variable had the same meaning for each respondent, and to confirm that the question items and scores are internally consistent. The reliability of the items in this section was checked using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. It is generally accepted that a value greater than $\alpha = .8$ is appropriate for cognitive surveys. The result of the Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .928$, and there was no increase in reliability if any individual item were deleted. This shows us that this section of the questionnaire was reliable and addressing one underlying construct.

For RQ2, the teachers were provided with a list of sixteen possible uses of exam materials in their classes and asked to indicate if, in the year they had most recently taught on the bilingual programme, they had or had not used the exam materials in these ways. The most recent year was chosen to reduce cognitive and memory demand. They were provided with a binary choice of response:

➤ I did this in my class / I didn't do this in my class

As these sixteen categories were not seen as dimensions of the same concept, it was not appropriate to run a reliability analysis in the form of Cronbach's alpha. However, as we will see in the Results section, an alternative analysis was run to investigate the meaning of the reported behaviours.

13.3.4. Administering the Survey

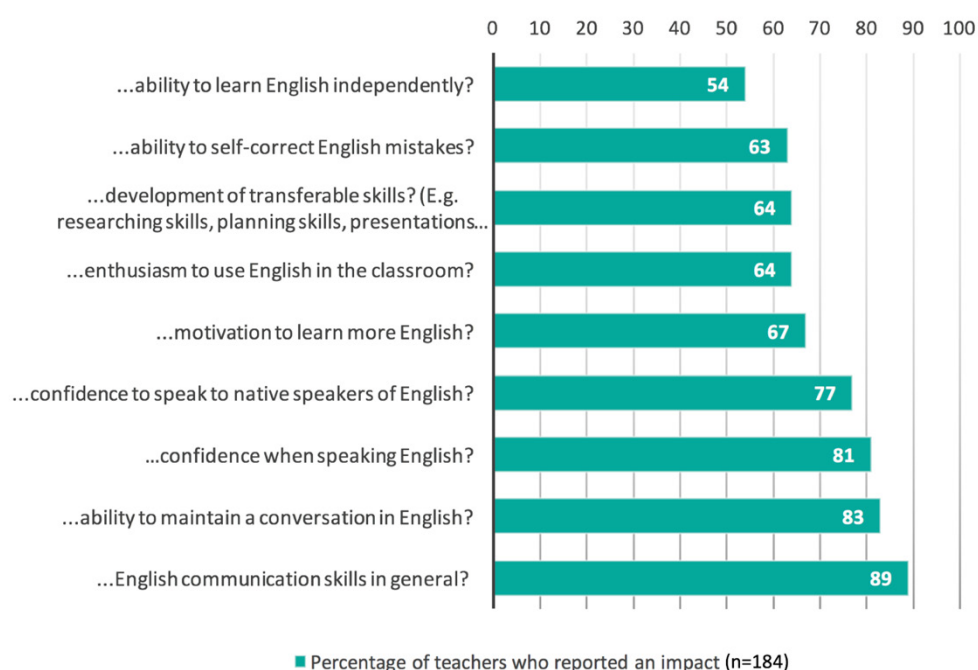
The survey took the form of an online questionnaire and was administered to the teachers locally in Spain using an online survey tool. The email with the survey invite and link was sent to each school in the Comunidad bilingual project and the survey could be filled in by one or many teachers from each school that received the invitation to the survey. It was sent out to schools in October 2016 and the survey remained open for three weeks.

13.4. Results

13.4.1. RQ1: Impact of Preparing for the External Speaking and Listening Assessment

For RQ1, the teachers were provided with nine areas of learning and development to consider on which preparing for an international speaking and listening exam may have had an impact. The teachers' responses indicated an emphatic belief that the exam preparation had had an impact, as seen in Figure 13.1.

FIGURE 13.1. Teachers' reports of the impact of preparing for an international speaking and listening exam

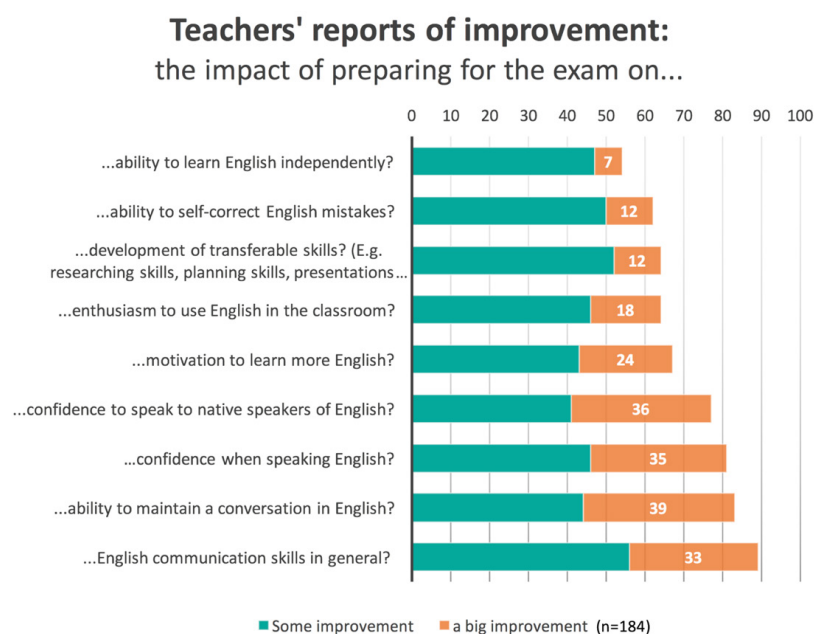


Whilst teachers reported a strong belief that the exam preparation has had an impact on the given areas of learning and development, that reported impact was not uniform across all variables. Only 54% of teachers reported an improvement in the students' ability to learn English independently, whilst 89% of teachers reported that the exam preparation has had an impact on their learners' English communication skills in general. At the lower end of the scale, it comes as no great surprise that exam preparation has not resulted in improvements for all students in the areas of independent learning, self-correction and transferable skills, given that they are primary school learners as young as seven and eight. Yet while this is the smallest reported impact, it should not be dismissed: 54% of teachers reporting that they have observed at least some improvement in an area ordinarily associated with older learners is an impact worthy of note. Likewise, two thirds of teachers reporting improvements in their students' abilities to self-correct, their development of transferable skills, and an increase in their enthusiasm and motivation to learn more English and use it in the classroom, all as a result of the preparation for an external speaking and listening exam, is a substantial finding.

Further up the scale, over three quarters of teachers report improvements in their students' confidence when speaking and when speaking to native speakers. These reports depict an impact on learning that contrasts enormously with the historical, text book-focused, didactic teaching approach in Spain, a system that traditionally relied heavily on written grammar practice at the expense of developing oral communicative competence, and a system that the bilingual project was devised to move away from. Just how far things have moved on is perhaps most vividly illustrated by over 80% of teachers reporting an increase in the students' abilities to maintain a conversation in English and nearly 90% reporting an improvement in their students' communication skills in general as a result of preparing for the international speaking and listening exams.

The results above give us a very clear view of the teachers' belief that exam preparation has had an impact on the students, but there is more to the story: also built into the survey was the option to report the scale of the impact, by providing teachers with three choices: 'no improvement', 'some improvement' and 'a big improvement'. The figures for 'a big improvement' are contained in Figure 13.2.

FIGURE 13.2. Teachers' reports of impact: 'some improvement' and 'big improvement'



In the areas associated more with learner independence, reports of big improvements are not as frequent. This is no great surprise, given that these students are still of primary school age. However, we see in Figure 13.2 that a quarter of teachers report having seen ‘a big improvement’ in their students’ motivation to learn more English, and as many as 35% of teachers chose to emphasise that they have seen ‘a big improvement’ in their students’ learning and communication skills as a direct result of preparing for the international speaking and listening exams: *confidence to speak to native speakers*, *confidence when speaking English*, *ability to maintain a conversation in English* and *English communication skills in general*, are all reported to have seen a big improvement, with almost 40% of teachers reporting a big improvement in their students’ ability to maintain a conversation in English. These reported improvements are apart from any other improvements that may have resulted from following the Spanish curriculum or improvements in the quality of the teaching, which are ongoing, year-round sources of learning and improvement. These data indicate a strong impact of exam preparation on learning and development and present a remarkable example of positive washback from the oral focus of the external exam onto the classroom.

A second area of focus in the analysis of these data was the possible identification of correlations between the variables: did certain variables behave in the same way, according to the teachers? A two-tailed Spearman’s correlation was run to assess the relationship between the nine question variables and the 184 teacher responses. The result of the Cronbach’s alpha had previously confirmed that this section is most likely measuring one underlying construct. It is unsurprising, therefore, that all nine items correlated with each other. There were nineteen moderate correlations ($r_s = .48$ to $.59$, $p = .01$), and seventeen strong correlations ($r_s = .60$ to $.72$, $p = .01$). All correlations were positive. Of particular interest was the identification of three groups within which each variable strongly correlated with all others.

- improved ability to maintain a conversation in English
- improvement in English communication skills in general
- greater confidence to speak to a native speaker of English
- increased confidence when speaking English

- increased motivation to learn more English
- enthusiasm to use English in the classroom
- increased confidence when speaking English

- increased motivation to learn more English
- increased ability to learn English independently
- increased ability to self-correct English mistakes

When handling correlation data, we must remember that no causation is implied by the results. What the correlation data tell us is that certain reported impacts of the exams on the students co-occur in patterns – when one is high, another will likely be high; if one is low, another will likely be low, etc. Observing these correlations gives us an insight into the strong links between certain variables and helps us to predict the impact of groups of variables in given circumstances. Moreover, identifying groups of variables that behave in a similar way has the potential to inform the focus of future academic support materials for teachers and the measurement of improvements in areas of learning and development.

13.4.2. RQ2: Teachers’ Use of Exam-Like Materials in the Classroom

Unlike RQ1, which asked the teachers to describe their view of the students, RQ2 focused on teachers’ self-reports of their own professional activities: their use of exam materials in their

classes. The data analysis first considered what percentage of teachers did or did not do any of these activities. These activities were then tabulated in order of most common to least common as shown in Table 13.2. 185 teachers completed this section, and Table 13.2 tells us what percentage of the teachers reported doing a particular activity.

TABLE 13.2. Percentage use of exam materials for different purposes in class

Purpose	%
to familiarise my students with the exam format	93
to provide my students with a model of how to do the exam	92
to reduce student anxiety about what is going to happen in the exam	90
in the class, as part of my exam preparation classroom activities	87
as a reference to help plan my exam preparation classes	83
as a tool to encourage more communication in the classroom	77
to help my students practise understanding of a native speaker	75
in the class, as part of my general English classroom activities	73
as a reference to help plan my general English classes	69
to help monitor students' progress.	66
to show my students examples of successful spoken communication in general	65
as a tool for improving my students' grammatical accuracy	64
as a tool to encourage dynamic and spontaneous communication	63
to develop learner autonomy	54
to help evaluate my students	50
to accelerate classroom learning	42

Almost every teacher that responded indicated that they use the exam materials for exam familiarisation, to provide a model of how to do the exam, to reduce anxiety about what is going to happen in the exam, as part of the exam preparation activities and as a reference to help plan exam preparation classes. It is perhaps no surprise to see that the most common uses of exam materials were exam-related: the teachers have an external international speaking and listening exam to prepare their students for as part of the bilingual programme and it would rather mystifying if teachers chose to ignore the exam materials. However, the use of exam materials is not confined to exam preparation alone. To explore this further, a factor analysis was conducted.

A factor analysis identifies and examines clusters of large correlation coefficients between subsets of questions. It can show us that the questions in a survey do not necessarily each investigate an individual dimension. It may be that there are in fact fewer underlying dimensions than questions; some of the questions may be related, measuring different aspects of a smaller number of underlying dimensions. These underlying dimensions are known in statistical terms as factors. By reducing the large number of questions into smaller sets of factors, a factor analysis explains the largest amount of variance using the smallest number of explanatory concepts.

The procedure for performing the factor analysis was as follows: the ideal number of cases for a factor analysis is over 300, and in this section of the survey, we have only 185 responses. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was therefore performed to ensure the sample was adequate. The value of the KMO should be greater than 0.5 for the sample to be adequate, and in the case of our data, the value was 0.8 and sufficient to proceed to the next stage. An examination of correlations was performed next to ensure that no question variables correlated very strongly, which would be an indicator that two questions were measuring identical

concepts. There were no strong correlations, indicating that each question was measuring a different variable. Next, an exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis was conducted. This produces a scree plot with Eigenvalues, which tell us how many factors the number of question variables can be reduced to. The result of this test tells us that although there were 16 questions that all appeared to be different, the 16 questions load onto just five factors. That is, the 16 questions are measuring different aspects of five underlying concepts, behaviours or activities. The results were rotated using Varimax and Kaiser normalisation to produce a rotated component matrix grouping the question variables into the five related sub-groups identified as existing in the scree plot. At this point, the informed human judgement of the researcher is required to identify a common link that unites all of the features in each factor or sub-group. Below are given the results of the factor analysis, with each question variable grouped into its respective factor, and a name provided to identify each factor based on the theme that links the questions contained within it.

FACTOR 1: Using exam materials for exam familiarisation and modelling

- To familiarise my students with the exam format (93%)
- To provide my students with a model of how to do the exam (92%)
- To reduce student anxiety about what is going to happen in the exam (90%)

FACTOR 2: Using exam materials for exam preparation and planning

- In the class, as part of my exam preparation classroom activities (87%)
- As a reference to help plan my exam preparation classes (83%)

FACTOR 3: Using exam materials for general English classes and class planning

- In the class, as part of my general English classroom activities (73%)
- As a reference to help plan my general English classes (69%)

FACTOR 4: Using exam materials for improving real-life independent communication

- As a tool to encourage more communication in the classroom (77%)
- To help my students practise understanding of a native speaker (75%)
- As a tool for improving my students' grammatical accuracy (64%)
- As a tool to encourage dynamic and spontaneous communication (63%)
- To show my students examples of successful spoken communication in general (65%)
- To develop learner autonomy (54%)
- To accelerate classroom learning (42%)

FACTOR 5: Using exam materials to monitor and measure progress

- To help monitor students' progress (66%)
- To help evaluate my students (50%)

The five factors that emerged from the factor analysis show us something perhaps never seen before. They provide insight into how teachers are really working; how, according to their own reported practices, they use exam materials in the classroom, and how they conceptualise the use of exam materials in the bilingual learning context. We see in Factor 1 and in Factor 2, that teachers are using the exam materials for exam-related activities, but for different aspects of exam preparation. Where Factor 2 shows what we might expect teachers to be doing with exam materials – explicit exam preparation and planning, Factor 1, the largest factor, shows us that there is more to exam preparation than explicit exam practice. Almost all teachers also use exam materials for exam familiarisation and modelling, demonstrating to the learners what the exam looks like and how it works.

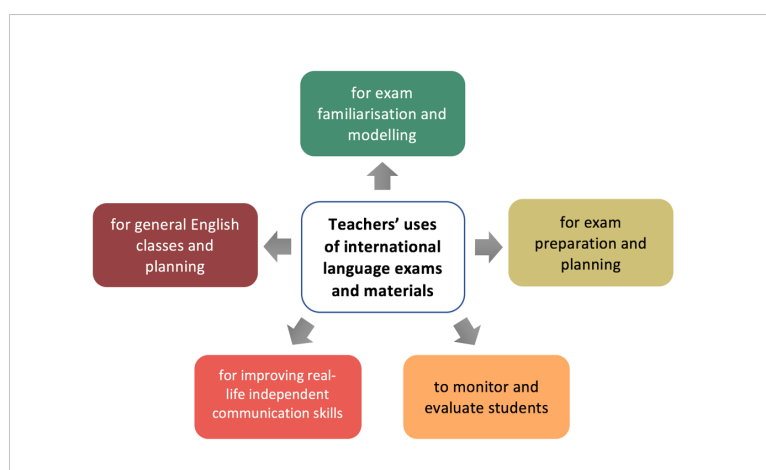
It is when we examine the remaining three factors that we see a pattern of usage that might not have been predicted. Factor 3 identifies a relationship between the exam content

and the content of the general English lessons, with around 70% of teachers using the exam materials as part of their general English classes and for class planning. Here we see clearly that the utility of the exam materials extends beyond the exam preparation itself. It appears that the international speaking and listening exam content and aims have synthesised with the general English teaching aims of the teachers and the Spanish bilingual primary curriculum overall, and it is no longer clear where exam teaching and general English teaching begin and end. This implication is perhaps more sharply defined by Factor 4, in which we see the largest number of non-exam directed activities, showing unequivocally that the exam materials are used for more than exam preparation. No less than seven different activities load onto the factor summarised as ‘developing real-life independent communication skills’, with three-quarters of the teachers reporting that they use the exam materials to encourage more communication in the classroom and develop understanding of a native speaker. This suggests that the specific speaking and listening focus of the international assessments is very much complementing the oral focus of the bilingual classroom. The reader may also be surprised to see that the great majority of teachers reported using the oral exam materials for improving students’ grammatical accuracy. Unlike the traditional approach to teaching grammar, the teachers appear to be providing their students with models of interaction and interactional competence, illustrating how the grammar and functions the students learn as part of their linguistic focus are operationalised in real life interactions.

The final factor identified by the factor analysis, Factor 5, is that of using the exam materials to monitor and evaluate the students, with the majority of teachers using the exam materials presumably to guide and audit general teaching and learning. The research was not designed with any expectation that numbers on this scale would be high, due to teachers having at their disposal the main Spanish curriculum, past exam papers and general coursebooks that they use year-round. Moreover, teachers are not trained examiners and are not in possession of the examiner guidance or marking criteria. Yet still, despite the availability of other tools, the teachers use the exam materials for monitoring and evaluating their students.

Pulling the research evidence together regarding teachers’ use of international speaking and listening exam materials, there is no doubt that there may be other activities that may load onto the five dimensions and future research will add greater detail to the factors. It is not certain, however, that there are any more than the five factors reported here – again, this will be a matter for future research. At this stage, I propose a framework for designing and planning class activities and providing teacher support for the bilingual classroom using speaking and listening exam materials:

FIGURE 13.3. Activity and support planning framework for the bilingual classroom



13.5. Closing Remarks

The data collected in this research indicate that the use of external international speaking and listening assessments has had a major impact on the Comunidad de Madrid primary school bilingual project. First, the teachers reported that the use of the external oral exams has resulted in a range of improvements to their students' English, particularly in the areas of communication skills and speaking confidence. Naturally, these data will be of interest to those working in Autonomous Region of Madrid itself; but the percentage scores and the results of the correlation analysis in RQ1 should provide teachers, parents and education policy makers further afield with greater predictive power regarding possible outcomes of employing these external oral exams, and these data may assist in the evaluation of whether the pedagogical benefits external oral assessments may provide are reconcilable with the financial costs involved in providing them.

A second insight resulting from this research comes from RQ2: teachers reported having integrated the exam materials into their classes for both exam and non-exam related activities, blurring the line between exam preparation and general English teaching in the bilingual classroom. The percentage usage data and the factor analysis offer us a unique view of what is happening in the classroom, reported by those at the chalkface. The factorial model demonstrates how teachers conceptualise these exam materials and put them into use for a range of learning purposes, providing us with an evidence-based understanding of real-life classroom practice. The activity and support planning framework for the bilingual classroom can be utilised in future to re-evaluate how support and learning materials can be packaged in ways that match teachers' own practice. This should be of interest not only to teachers, but also to those who plan curricula, provide teacher support, to publishers, education planners and politicians.

The methodology used in this research demonstrates that if used diligently, with reference to theory and best practice, survey research can be highly effective at gaining access to respondents' opinions, practice and conceptualisations. Similarly, the use of statistical treatments such as correlation and factor analysis can provide highly illustrative data, beyond the simple picture painted by percentage scores. In addition, concurrent to the quantitative data collection in the present research, qualitative data was also collected from the teachers regarding each research question (not reported here) which assisted the Comunidad de Madrid in contextualising the quantitative data.

To conclude, whilst it is acknowledged that the population sample in this research is limited to teachers of the Madrid primary bilingual programme, it is anticipated that in many primary and secondary compulsory education contexts in Spain and elsewhere in the world, there are likely to be parallels in terms of how teachers conceptualise and use exam materials in their classrooms. If this is the case, there is likely to be a benefit to others involved in planning bilingual projects in choosing to replicate this survey approach, complemented by a qualitative strand involving classroom observation and face-to-face interviews with selected staff, augmenting the methodology as required with locally-relevant adaptations. In doing so, we can provide a bottom-up understanding of what really happens when we introduce speaking and listening assessments to the bilingual classroom.

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Project Work in CLIL Classrooms: Old Wine in New Bottles

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Abstract

A new arrival in CLIL classes but a classical approach in other fields of education, project work is back again. Its use is soaring in bilingual schools as it seems to satisfy the demands of the new curriculum for content subjects.

More than a hundred years old, its origin dates back to the work of American philosopher John Dewey and pedagogue William Kilpatrick in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. It has been implemented in Spanish schools in three distant periods from each other: it turned to be an innovation in the 1930s Spanish school system, the LOGSE educational reform rescued it for foreign language classes and, at present, it is gaining acceptance among CLIL practitioners.

This chapter revises some of the most recent research, mostly on motivation, and classroom experiences already described in specialized literature, with a particular focus on what is taking place in Spanish schools. The final paragraphs of this paper try to reflect on the reasons why project work has returned successfully to stay in bilingual classes. These reflections might foster new lines of research.

14.1. Introduction

Project work in CLIL classrooms is *old wine in new bottles*; it moves as a pendulum that goes back and forth and it is currently taking the role of a spearhead in CLIL methodology. Even though this new role does not imply a lack of practicality or utility, a reflection on this revival is advisable and this will be the aim of this chapter.

In the last few decades, its influence has reached Spain in two different waves: in the 1990s, tasks and projects became the pivotal element for the reform of our national EFL curriculum; whereas, in the 2010s, CLIL methodology seems to be incomplete without its use.

In the early nineties, with the passing of LOGSE in 1990 and its subsequent implementation, a considerable shift in terms of curriculum design was observed (Roldán Tapia, 2012); tasks were presented as the new component to articulate curricula and task-based learning was promoted by education authorities. Project work, or so-called long-term tasks at that time, became the key stone in terms of classroom methodology. This wave of project-based learning was, somehow, a kind of topic-based rather than content-based approach, delivered by foreign language teachers with a focus on language learning.

Since early this twenty-first century a second wave of content-based teaching is noticeable and all foreign language policies in Spain are geared towards its implementation in a CLIL format (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2010; Cano, 2013; Lorenzo Galés & Piquer Vives, 2013; Arroyo Pérez, 2015; Consejería de Educación, 2016, among others). In Coyle's (2010) words "Spain is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research. The richness of its cultural and linguistic diversity has led to a wide variety of CLIL policies and practices" (p. viii).

This second wave, which, in contrast to the former, comes in the shape of CLIL, is delivered by content teachers rather than foreign language teachers. English is no longer just the goal of learning, since it has acquired the role of medium of instruction. Tasks and projects are carried out in a second language and they are designed to fulfil a twofold goal: on the one hand, to close the existing gap between the classroom and the real world and, on the other hand, to approach the content of CLIL subjects from a more constructivist, cooperative and hands-on perspective.

14.2. Implementation

At the time when the term CLIL was being coined in the early 1990s and its trajectory was put on track (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Marsh, 2013) across Europe, our school system was getting immersed in the largest reform ever taken, by the name of LOGSE, after the law that started it up. Fifteen years later, in the mid-2000s, when the wave of the reform was gone, most school authorities in our country set their multilingual or plurilingual policies in motion and started to launch their bilingual school programs. In the meantime, project work had been going back and forth.

As it is presented in literature, project work may encompass all methodological components that a CLIL class requires (Dale, van der Es & Tanner, 2011):

- (a) because of its design, it can provoke a greater impact on students' involvement than a sequence of isolated activities in a textbook, underpinning motivation (Deller & Price, 2007) among the learners;
- (b) because of its process, students may learn a lot more than in a traditional classroom due to the ongoing manipulation and recycling of information (Haines, 1989) that leads to the final output. Students' thinking skills and cognitive strategies benefit from it (Deller & Price, 2007) owing to the sequence of tasks that need to be done;
- (c) in the same way, students may also take advantage of learning from each other in the sort of collaborative environment (Sierra, 2016) in which projects are implemented. Collaboration and cooperation are requirements for pushing projects ahead;
- (d) due to their output, projects encourage students to use their best potential towards the end-product; some students are good at using languages and others do better in

terms of creativity. This kind of involvement in project work fits to perfection with the philosophy of *no child left behind*, which understands that different contributions originate in a diversity of abilities (Katz & Chard, 1994);

- (e) the whole process and product make evaluation meaningful in the sense that project work is approached from all perspectives: evaluation by the teacher, self-evaluation by learners themselves and co-evaluation by classmates;
- (f) in CLIL terms, project work represents, to the largest extent, the integration of content and language: whereas students are working on a certain content subject (Social Studies, Natural Science, etc), they are using at the same time the target language for the whole process of communication, negotiation and production.

Project work and the PPP (presentation, production, practice) model of curriculum design are the two ends of a continuum. In the project-work end, not a single typology of project is to be found but a whole range of formats that vary according to different criteria (Roldán Tapia, 1997a). Although taxonomies are not clear-cut and different labels may be identified in specialized literature, some of them might be highlighted.

Haines (1989), for instance, talks about (a) information and research projects, in which students are expected to carry out research on a certain content or topic; (b) survey projects, in which learners create surveys, questionnaires or interviews to gather information; (c) production projects, in which all the work is aimed at creating or designing an authentic or semi-authentic product; and (d) performance and organisational projects, in which learners organise some kind of performance for others: a party, a show, etc.

Eyring (2001) prefers to distinguish among (a) collection projects, in which students are expected to collect materials or physical objects, as they would do in a cook book with collected recipes from around the world; (b) informational projects, which resemble type “a” from Haines (1989); (c) orientation projects, in which students’ work would be exemplified in a booklet to assist newly arrived students, and (d) social welfare projects, which “are designed to serve the needs of audience other than the students themselves” (p. 338), for example a story-telling performance end-product.

Regarding the type of input that is handled through the process, most authors (Harris, 1993; Ribé, 1989; Ribé & Vidal, 1993; Vidal, 1994a, 1994b) set the difference in terms of the degree of control that is exercised by the teacher and how it affects the input provided: that is, they distinguish between guided and free projects. Free projects are different from guided projects in the sense that they are subject to plenty of negotiation and interaction, that the amount and type of tasks escape the teachers control, and that their output may also end up with such a variety of formats.

14.3. A diachronic revision of project work. The Spanish case

Hands-on learning, experiential education and problem-solving learning were the key ideas in John Dewey’s (1897, 1916) philosophy in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Identified by most scholars as the founder of the project method, a reading of his lines gives us a glimpse of what he managed to envisage more than a century ago.

His ideas were further developed by pedagogue William H. Kilpatrick (1918), author of *The project method*. His notion of project was worded in these terms:

“As the purposeful act is thus the typical unit of worthy life in a democratic society, so also should it be made the typical unit of school procedure. We of America have for years increasingly desired that education be considered as life itself and not as a mere

preparation for later living. The conception before us promises a definite step toward the attainment of this end” (p. 6).

His view of project work was so modern that he even succeeded to foresee the typology of projects that would be later described by other authors, as well as the steps that each type of project requires:

Type 1, where the purpose is to embody some idea or plan in external form, as building a boat, writing a letter, presenting a play; type 2, where the purpose is to enjoy some (aesthetic) experience, as listening to a story, hearing a symphony, appreciating a picture; type 3, where the purpose is to straighten out some intellectual difficulty, to solve a problem, as to find out whether or not dew falls, to ascertain how New York outgrew Philadelphia; type 4, where the purpose is to obtain some item or degree of skill or knowledge, as learning to write grade 14 on the Thorndike Scale, learning the irregular verbs in French (p. 16).

This whole pedagogical movement that originated in the United States arrives in Europe and starts flourishing in Spain at the time of the Second Republic. Hernández (1996) and Fernández Soria y Agulló Díaz (2004) describe to a great extent how the project method became a new way to understand education and how it was implemented in rural schools by those forward-looking teachers such as Vicente Calpe in Valencia, who was criticized by parents' and community because of his school trips outside the classroom, who took his violin to class to teach kids to sing and appreciate music, and who took life itself as a pedagogical resource to stimulate his students and make learning meaningful.

In a similar direction, the Andalusian Education Inspector Fernando Sainz published his *El método de proyectos*, in 1934. Sainz highlighted that the main objective of his method was to articulate a curriculum in which school work would be interconnected with life outside school. For him, the key word was task -and active and productive notion- because receptive and passive learning was a burden and ineffective for students.

Francoist dictatorship tried to put an end to this wave of innovation and classical textbooks from that period, such as *Enciclopedia Álvarez*, the perfect model for the national curriculum at the time, were far from approaching education in a project-based conception. In any case, prominent exceptions remained for some time; quoting Barceló Bauzá, Comas Rubí & Sureda García's (2016) words: “despite the Franco regime's evident desire to break away from the prevailing educational ideas of the Second Republic, the pedagogical guidelines that were laid down did not prevent the continuance of former educational practices that might seem contrary to or inconsistent with the philosophy of the new regime” (p. 73).

Elsewhere, mostly after the Second World War and during the 50s and 60s, the project approach was shaping thanks to influences from different fields (Hernández, 1996; Eyring, 2001): humanistic education, the work of psychologists and pedagogues such as Bruner, Vygotsky and his zone of proximal development, Curren, Asher or Lozanov; the end of behaviourism and the appearance of cognitivism and constructivism; the trend of experiential education and the desire to interconnect the classroom and the outside world. In due time, CLIL was also nourished by similar educational trends (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010): apart from Bruner, Piaget and Vygotsky's influence, the multiple intelligences framework, learner autonomy, language awareness or language-learning strategies.

Substantial research was carried out through the seventies, eighties and nineties. The consequence was an emergence of papers in which the benefits of the project approach or project-based learning were enhanced significantly. To tell the truth, at that time, most investigations had nothing to do with foreign languages nor content-based or immersion classes; the largest number of studies focused on the early stages of education.

These studies (Katz & Chard, 1994; Thomas, 2000) underlined the way in which projects helped young children develop the four categories of learning goals: knowledge, skills, dispositions and feelings: In parallel, project work provided opportunities so that children of many different ability levels could contribute to the life process of the work group. In a different sphere, project-based learning might become a challenge for teachers too and thus contribute to an improvement of their professional career.

It was also found that, where project-based learning was implemented, projects were not peripheral to curriculum, but they became the core of it. Projects drove students to unconsciously discover the central concepts of a discipline and promoted constructivist investigation among students in as much as the tasks involved the transformation and construction of knowledge. Among their features, real projects were never teacher-led, scripted, packaged or school-oriented; on the contrary, they were learner-centred, negotiated and real life-oriented.

In our school system, a preview of the new arrival of project work was found with the publication of a book under the title of *La enseñanza de un idioma y el método de proyectos* (Sánchez & Pozuelo, 1982). No doubt, it was a breath of fresh air at a time when the Spanish reform of education was not even thought of. Its authors canvassed for its implementation to help develop communicative competence and supported their plea in these terms: (a) project work breaks with traditional teaching methods as it confers learners a central role in the learning process; (b) learning by discovery or research is worthwhile and more fruitful than learning by memorizing; (c) learners also get an opportunity to learn how to learn through the implementation of autonomy in the whole process; and (d) the content of projects does not belong to a single subject but runs across the curriculum. In addition, the real world becomes a topic with a wealth of potential content for projects. Despite the long-time gone since publication, their description of the project organization and development as well as the sample projects they illustrate are worth reading even more than forty years later.

14.4. Project work in the 1990s: LOGSE curricula. Findings from research

That educational reform promoted several methodological changes to be implemented in classrooms. Among them, project work was suggested as the way to encourage real communication in foreign language classes (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia, 1989).

“Por todo ello nos parece que tiene mayor sentido articular los contenidos para esta etapa en forma de un compendio de tareas, de actividades estructuradas en marcos generales o tópicos. Nos decantamos pues por la técnica de actividades basadas en tareas específicas (task-based activities), o, en segundo lugar, la técnica de project work, o trabajo por proyectos, como las más adecuadas para el aprendizaje del idioma en esta etapa” (p. 20).

In parallel, results from a nation-wide study (Palacios Martínez, 1994) reported the teachers' preference for an eclectic approach to curriculum design, including both structural and functional components together with activities such as pair work, group work, songs, games and projects.

At that turning point of reform, a wealth of classroom experiences was reported (Roldán Tapia, 1997b), plenty of teacher training was done, publications were abundant, research was carried out (Roldán Tapia, 1997a, 1997c) and even projects were frequently included in textbooks (Hutchinson, 1985; Denton, Lewis & Siles Suárez, 1996; McLaren & Madrid, 1998, among others).

Findings from studies (Roldán, 1997a, 1997c) provided first-hand information about that updated approach to methodology. The statements that follow convey the features that shaped that new portrayal of projects:

- (a) project work involves in most cases group work. Groups ought not to be randomly formed and members should not exceed the number of three or four. There should be a group leader, with a high language competence, together with two or three more members with different skills and abilities;
- (b) projects are long-term tasks which require negotiation throughout the process and which are the result of continuous interaction. Interaction implies using all language skills and handling large amounts of input to conclude with a final end-product;
- (c) interaction takes place in both languages: students' first language and target language. In all cases, whereas the final product was, no doubt, in the L2, most group interaction used to take place in the L1;
- (d) project work means production; as a consequence, the use of receptive skills and productive skills is unbalanced, with a clear prevalence of the second ones. It involves plenty of creativity as well as translation from the first to the second language. It is also an opportunity to link the foreign language classroom and out-of-school everyday life and real world;
- (e) production not only means linguistic production; there is a large amount of non-linguistic work that is carried out during the process and towards the end-product. Non-linguistic work provides opportunities for everyone to contribute to the shared goal depending on the different skills and abilities each student has;
- (f) it consumes time in and out of class and, consequently, it does not seem to be appropriate as the single method to implement a school curriculum. This is a real weakness when constraints such as external examinations condition the teaching and learning processes;
- (g) regarding the type and number of materials used during the process, it might be inferred that students found it very difficult to substitute their teacher and textbook for self-selected materials as the source of information. With respect to the non-linguistic materials, the extended use of drawing sets, calculators, maps and so on leads us to think of project work as the best way to deal with cross-curricular and interdisciplinary issues.

14.5. Project work in the 2010s: CLIL classes. Why is it successful now?

Undoubtedly, project work is becoming one of the methodological tools that best serve the needs of CLIL classrooms. Specialized literature does not lack good proposals (Deller & Price, 2007; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008; Dale, van der Es & Tanner, 2011) or research (Moliner Bernabé & Fernández Mateos, 2013; Lasagabaster & López-Beloqui, 2015; Sierra, 2016). It is not, either, short of materials (Ruiz Gómez, 2015) nor classroom experiences (Álvarez-Cofiño, 2009; Zaparucha, 2009; Sierra, 2011; Vorholt & Harris, 2014; Herrero García, 2015; Moreno Barrios, 2015). In fact, Hylliard (2011) states that CLIL is a new integrated approach that nurtures from a variety of EFL methodologies that overlap each other and which have been widely used for years: for example, project work, task-based learning, thematic cycles, content-based instruction, language across the curriculum, etc.

Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols (2008) dedicate a whole chapter in their book to talk about connectivity and how CLIL provides opportunities for students to connect to other learners, to their world and to a wider learning environment. They exemplify this perception of CLIL connectivity with a project implemented in a Maths class, in which students have investigated about crime statistics in their local community. In this way, they look back at the founders' idea of bringing the real world into the classroom.

Apart from their suggestions to implement projects, Dale, van der Es & Tanner (2011) have voiced those perceptions from participant CLIL teachers who experienced project work in their classes. Positive feedback was worded in these terms:

“Our English department is always very willing to help when we do projects and often initiates them. Our Art teacher often has a good, creative idea, and then she asks other colleagues to join in”. [...] “Working on our Geography and English project is one of the most satisfying aspects of my year. I have a good relationship with the Geography teacher, the learners really like doing the project and come up with some fantastic products” (p. 221).

Nonetheless, all comments were not so rewarding:

“Projects are so time-consuming, both to create and to execute. For that reason only, we don’t do much project work”. [...] “The children make lovely products, but sometimes they only cut and paste from the Internet to make their projects. Projects don’t really seem to add to their learning” (p. 221).

Although “the amount of research on CLIL programmes founded on cooperative project work in our context is negligible” (Sierra, 2016, p. 73), a large scale study is to come to shed some light on some methodological issues (Pérez Cañado, 2016). In any case, studies with a focus on Spanish schools have already provided some promising findings.

Recent publications (Sierra, 2011, 2016) have shown, for example, how students perceive project work in their Music CLIL lessons as Very Good/Good in a 92,1% from a questionnaire on its implementation. In the same study, students also appreciated its impact in motivation and autonomous learning as well as in self and co-evaluation. Lasagabaster and López-Beloqui (2015) have shown to what extent a CLIL program, compared to traditional EFL, has a positive effect on some components of motivation for primary school learners. However, among CLIL classes, there were no significant differences in terms of motivation between groups that followed a textbook and groups that implemented project work.

Some other difficulties have been outlined elsewhere: when teachers were questioned, Moliner Bernabé & Fernández Mateos (2013) found that project work was the least widely used methodology in CLIL schools in Castilla y León, through a questionnaire that was answered by seventy-two CLIL teachers in the region. Whereas 46.5% admitted using cooperative activities and 40.80% individual work, project work was ticked in the checklist by only 15% of teachers. Sierra (2016) reported the challenges of a more complex and participative methodology, a demanding amount of work for teachers and students or the need for a permanent redesign of materials and strategies to cope with a heterogeneous student body in constant change.

The report of classroom experiences is also very enlightening and provides a good view of the momentum. Álvarez-Cofiño (2009) presents an inspiring account of her project-work experience for five years with learners aged six and seven. Her perception of project work deeply connects with the pioneers’ philosophy of bringing life and classrooms closer through projects. Her description includes examples of projects such as *Post and letters*, with a trip to the local post office, *Dinosaurs*, with a trip to the Jurassic Museum of Asturias, or *Milk*, with a visit to a dairy. Another way to connect to the outside world is to invite families to participate in the process and in the final project display. Zaparucha (2009) accounts for an interdisciplinary project, with Geography and English, with 13-14 years old students from Poland, on the biomes of the Earth. Vorholt & Harris (2014) focus on how to develop the sense of entrepreneurship: a leading topic nowadays for students doing Economy-related subjects in high school. Moreno Barrios (2015) describes how project work is implemented in a rural primary school, for example, with the organization of historical fairs that focus on different periods: the Ancient Egypt, the Medieval times, etc. From a different perspective, Herrero García (2015) shows how his students have carried out a project in his Technology class. Through extensive research online and the language assistant’s support, they have been able to plan a trip to the USA as realistic as possible with final presentations that remind the audience of travel experts.

Bearing in mind the sequential waves of content-based and project work, and its current drive, there are, at least, four main reasons that may explain this revival of project work in CLIL classes:

- (i) It is currently content-based instead of topic-based, as it was its use in foreign language lessons in the 1990s. At that time, students used to work on topics rather than content from other subjects. In this sense, project work relied very much on popular films, different musical styles, all sort of sports, books students had read, real or imaginary trips, teenagers' free time and entertainment, fashion, etc. Indeed, topics did not vary that much from the topics students were also approaching in their textbooks (Palacios Martínez, 1994). Cross-curricular topics or contents were not thought of then and students would not have considered physical geography or the Mediterranean forest, for instance, as the content for their projects; the process of interaction and negotiation would have never led them that far.
- (ii) Education in this century is distinct because ICTs have come to stay and are making a significant difference in schools. ICTs provide the best channel to search for, manipulate and produce information. In the 1990s, students limited their interaction with materials to those that might strictly provide some useful information. Resources were not plentiful in the pre-Internet years and chances to have unlimited access to written or oral input were scarce. On a regular basis, students could only seek information in encyclopaedias, printed magazines or newspapers, books, videos, radio or cassettes. Providing resources for information involved frequent trips to the school or local library. Banks of resources were an alternative but space or availability became serious constraints. Whereas ICTs have set a difference in terms of the provision of input because of the rich potential of online research, the production of output has also greatly benefited from the use of new technologies, increasing both the quality and quantity of the linguistic and non-linguistic outcome of students' end-products. All formats are close at hand: from written reports to audio-visual presentations, audio recordings, etc.
- (iii) From a different perspective, the use of projects in content-subjects lessons may emerge as the best contribution these subjects can make to the School Language Project and, consequently, to the development of student's communicative competence. Bearing in mind the distinction between focused-on form and focused-on-meaning tasks or communicative and open tasks versus enabling and closed tasks, project work in CLIL classes - Geography, Science or Technology, for example - is the best tool to develop learners' linguistic competence by focusing on the former: those activities that try to get the message across, that simulate real world tasks and that are open and slightly planned because of their communicative character. On the contrary, foreign language classes may cater for focused-on-form tasks in as much as they are understood as previous steps in the communicative process, with a high degree of planning as classroom activities that are requested for the sake of language mastering.
- (iv) Last but not least, the new framework of key competences in education, deriving from both European and national directives, provides a comprehensive context in which project-based learning makes full sense. Former experiences in the 1990s in foreign language classes found it difficult to explain the benefit of project work in terms of non-linguistic issues. In this respect, many aspects were assessed but were hardly interpreted in the evaluation process: for example, how learners contributed to group work, whether they assumed their own or group responsibilities, how much initiative students had in their own learning, how autonomous they were during the project implementation, to what extent their end-product was creative

and reflected their artistic and visual skills and attitudes, how much they were able to analyse, infer, simplify, calculate, interpret, plan, dramatize, etc. All these unresolved issues find an answer in the new framework and the set of descriptors for key competences that are mandatory for the national curricula. Recent research carried out in Spanish schools seems to reinforce this perception: Nieto Moreno (2012) shows how CLIL helps students develop their emotional competence and (2016) and how it also improves the learning to learn competence among students who take part in bilingual programs.

14.6. Conclusion

Whereas a deeper diachronic review of project work is not an urgent need and further analysis may only complement what we already know, its current implementation deserves the attention of scholars, as pointed out by Sierra (2016). Some lines of research are opened: for example, how it affects students' motivation, but many others are still waiting and on standby. These potential studies may rest on some of the reflections on the above section.

Issues such as project work potentiality to develop non-linguistic curricula in a school system with external exams, the effect that ICTs in project work may have on interaction among peers, and input interaction, the impact it may have on the development of learners' communicative competence or on the acquisition of key competences, might turn into research questions that need substantial analysis in a coming future.

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Comparing Results from International Bilingual Education Programmes

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Abstract

The evaluation of bilingual education programmes arouses the attention of international educational organisms due to their massive implementation across the world. Interesting references can be found in the literature on the evaluation of such programmes, offering detailed information on the level of language(s) of the students; specific training of participant teachers; the methodology used; teachers', parents' and students' opinions; or the economic investment of the programme. Bilingual schools across the world present different degrees of effectiveness, and one of their most outstanding difficulties lies on knowing whether such success is due to the programme, to the individual characteristics of the students, to the qualities of the teachers, or to a combination of these. There are hundreds of variables that affect each programme's outcomes, at the same time that success is usually measured against the quality of inputs and challenged by contextual factors. Therefore, comparative evaluations are necessary to help researchers identify clearly such factors. The contrastive analysis of school language policies should include key parameters such as extracurricular activities and literacy, as they can throw light on the way school management teams understand bilingual education and implement their programmes.

15.1. Introduction

Bilingual education is a topic of broad and current interest for both researchers and educational stakeholders, regardless of the specific approach under which dual-language programmes are implemented. In Dalton-Puffer et al.'s (2014, p. 214) words: "... empirical research on CLIL implementations visibly started to happen in different national contexts around the mid 2000s"

and from then on, national and international studies have contributed to build a vast and rich literature that nowadays offers interesting points of view on which improvement should be based. These analyses (mainly conducted at a local or national level) focus on a plethora of aspects that range from teachers' and students' linguistic competencies (Baker, 2011; Madrid & Madrid, 2014) to school curricular and organizational procedures (Gold, 2006), not forgetting assessment (Mueller-Gathercole, 2013), materials (Lambson, 2002, Mehisto, 2012a; Gómez, 2016) or bilingual teachers' roles (Thorstensson Dávila, 2016). The effective analysis of the results from this massive research is of the utmost importance as they offer meaningful data on contrastable parameters which will contribute to establish the real scenario on which bilingual education is being paved across the world. Nevertheless, the scholarly literature still lacks comparative studies where international data are contrasted against a structured set of parameters.

The outcomes of bilingual education should be observed, measured and contrasted from a myriad of perspectives, a process where the main objective should be maintained and preserved: to offer a taxation of the societal benefits that this approach to education entails. One of the best ways to do this is to establish a comparative study where international data can be contrasted (Masters, Rowley, Ainley & Toon Khoo, 2008). Therefore, the achievements of bilingual education can be viewed from different perspectives, being the complementarity of educational aspects the most important structural feature of a comparative analysis.

The concept of bilingualism (along with its impact on the 21st century) has evolved along the last decade and it runs along the ongoing debate on the concept of the native speaker (Rampton, 1990; Davies, 2003; Kamhi-Stein, 2016; Dewaele, 2017), which is itself compatible with the idea of the *native bilinguals* (Rothman & Treffers-Daller, 2014) in our society. Being bilingual nowadays entails being linguistically and culturally competent in a range of situations, a multiplicity of contexts, and for a number of purposes, due to the societal complexities that make people understand the world as a 'globalised village' (a concept that Cummins (1989, p. 57) described as "una profecía McLuhiana"). Bilingualism may be beneficial for one's linguistic development, and also, for cognitive conceptualizations which empower flexible and critical thinking. Being bilingual may therefore benefit from structural and procedural changes in one's memory, which result from cross-linguistic and cross-cultural factors in one's development (Kecskes & Albertazzi, 2007). Pavlenko (2005) explains that, in the view of recent research, different languages and cultures cause specific cognitive effects. Learning a second language entails, in that view, a socialization into new understandings, perspectives and ways of speaking. Whorf (1956) was the first to show a strong believe that learning an additional language has the potential to transform or enhance the speaker's view of the world. Subsequently, Rossi-Landi (1973, p. 33) stated that "... whoever learns a new language becomes a new person". Stubbs (1997) showed a fresh view on this linguistic relativity, which was summarized sufficiently in the following words: "Languages are not incompatible. We can translate between them. And bilinguals speak different languages, but they do not perceive the world differently when they switch from one language to another." (p. 357). Pavlenko (2005) confirms that simultaneous bicultural bilinguals may develop representations different from those of sequential or late bilinguals. Therefore, the bilingual speaker must command two parallel linguistic and cultural systems (Byram, 2011) by keeping their identity as an individual. Pavlenko (2005) has also described the conceptual changes influenced by language. Those seem to be affected by *individual factors* (speaker's language learning histories, the language dominance or proficiency, the degree of biculturalism and acculturation, the expertise in the domain in question); *interactional factors* (the context of language interaction, the linguistic status of the interlocutor); *linguistic and psycholinguistic factors* (concept comparability, which is the degree of relatedness between the mental representations in the languages in question, and type of encoding, which is the degree to which the concept of one language could be expressed in the other language and the means with which it is expressed). Therefore, Pavlenko's studies demonstrate that bilingualism is most probably extraordinarily advantageous for enriching the speakers' linguistic skills and offering them alternative conceptualizations vital for flexible and critical thinking.

Bilingual education programmes have traditionally had sociolinguistic aims (García, 2009, p. 117), and nowadays the *language gap* (Johnson & Zentella, 2017) concept speaks about the economic disparities brought about by the 21st century world crisis, impacting negatively on impoverished communities. Learning a second language contributes extensively to the real socialization of the individual. A successful bilingual programme, therefore, should help to avoid such *language gap* by educating the citizenship in such a way that the commandment of both second languages and cultures facilitates their effective societal integration.

This chapter will be devoted to presenting the outcomes of our research into a comparison of how two specific language issues are addressed by 5 international schools (Muszynska & Gómez, 2015) within the European context. Methodological triangulation was implemented in this study to avoid data contradiction, which will lead the researchers to draw valid insights and conclude with reliable interpretation.

15.2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): the European approach

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is a specific type of bilingual approach endorsed by the European Commission. Research on CLIL has massively evolved since its birth in 1994, and it constitutes one of the richest and more interesting methodologies on bilingual education across the world, being incipiently implemented in other countries (Lara Herrera, 2015). Sometimes the term CLIL is used to cover relatively small but important percentages of time allocated to the second language, such as 25%, with the term Bilingual Education used to cover a higher percentage of time, but sometimes the term CLIL is used as an umbrella term to cover any teaching in which content and language are integrated. The idea behind it is to allow children to develop their first language, from which second one can be developed during the school years. This type of bilingualism can be described as 'additive bilingualism' and it is reported to have a positive influence on students' linguistic, cognitive or academic growth (Cummins, 2006). It seems justified, as by the age of four, children would have mastered the basic structures of their first language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In other words, most children by the age of four can ask questions, give commands, report real events, and create stories. Cummins (2006) also emphasizes that the first language does not need to be fully developed before the second language is introduced to school. Nowadays educational systems need to adapt to the changes that take place in our societies. In CLIL, the content is closely related to the notion of modern times, and it is linked to the way our brain learns (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). CLIL is based on language acquisition rather than enforced learning (Mackenzie, 2012), and the language becomes a medium of instruction. In general terms, we can say that CLIL is an approach which integrates the teaching of content through a non-native language. However, when we take a closer look, we see that a CLIL practice promotes a more natural use of language, where learners learn and use languages for different purposes and in various contexts, which leads to attention and tolerance towards other cultures. We are referring here to all the activities where students work collaboratively using higher order thinking skills (HOTS). In CLIL the teacher's role is to gradually maximize student learning, which can be done by choosing the right teaching and learning method determined by the results the teacher wants to achieve (Wiggings & McTighe, 2007). Therefore, methods that fall under this approach generally integrate cognitive theory with communicative strategies and child-centered constructivist perspectives, where learning should involve social negotiation and integration with others in authentic contexts that are relevant to the learners (Cummins, 2006). The cognitive approach sees language as a process and what we do with language as an integral aspect of our thinking, making meaning (García, 2009). Accordingly, CLIL adopts an inquiry-based approach to classroom teaching and learning. It is about learning by construction, rather than learning by instruction. It focuses on language learning, learning strategies, multilingualism, multiculturalism and cooperation. Students build their content and language competences, as well as lifelong learning skills and strategies, such as dealing with the unexpected, observational skills, constructing knowledge, and so on. What

is also significant is that CLIL links two constructivist perspectives: Piaget's view on how people perceive and adapt new information (the process of assimilation) and how they refer to previously learned information to make sense of it (the process of accommodation), with Vygotsky's social constructivist perspective, which suggests that knowledge is constructed in a social context. Sociocultural theory states that people establish control and reorganize their cognitive processes during mediation as knowledge is internalized during social activity (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Effective content learning requires defined knowledge and skills together with their application through creative thinking, problem solving and cognitive challenge.

All of the above are a part of the CLIL thinking curriculum, where learning is a progress from information processing (organizing information – what, when, where, which, who, why questions) to concrete thinking skills (abstract thinking – reasoning and hypothesizing – the why and what if questions). Good questions recognize wide possibilities of thought and are built around varying forms of thinking. They are directed towards learning and evaluative thinking rather than determining what has been learned in a narrow sense (Menegale, 2011). Open-ended questions are effective for encouraging creative thinking, because they stimulate further inquiry (Soussa, 2011). This puts communication and interaction at the core of teaching. Learners are given opportunities to develop linguistically during lessons, as children learn language as a means of expressing the concepts they have acquired (Bialystok, 2001). Communication is understood here, as the world knowledge through which we can create messages and make meaningful contact with one another. This *functional bilingualism* (Fishman, 1965, in Baker, 2011) does not only entail the structure of language, but also the information of who is saying what, to whom and in what circumstances (Baker, 2011). This view is also reflected in the seminal works of Krashen (1981) and Swain (1996). The linguistic items should not be over familiar but a little over learner's language level, so that students do not feel discouraged, but rather motivated by succeeding in their learning. In this way, they are bound to acquire and improve their language competence. CLIL as an educational programme has a strong political basis. The position of the European Commission in its regards is clear: "Learning one *lingua franca* alone is not enough. Every European citizen should have meaningful communicative competence in at least two other languages in addition to his or her mother tongue." (García, 2009, p. 34)

As the Council of Europe (Guide EPI, 2010) sees it, curricula are developed on the basis of certain principles and values, but without ignoring the realities in which they will be operating. Those realities are reflected in the data applicable in the socio-linguistic context. Systematic analysis of that context provides a practical basis for decision-making. The data (both quantitative and qualitative) which will help us to provide a picture of the socio-linguistic context usually cover (Guide EPI, 2010, p. 27):

- the language varieties present in the area: national, regional, minority and migration languages; languages and socio-linguistic varieties (particularly of the national language or regional language/language of schooling) used by pupils at home and in their immediate circle; languages of nearby frontier regions, languages accessed via the media;
- the views of learners, teachers, other school system players (including school principals) and families on languages (utility, ease of learning, aesthetic qualities, prestige value, path to modernity, prosperity, etc.) and plurilingualism (perceptions of native competence, bilingualism, language diversity, etc.);
- national/regional/local language requirements for economic and development purposes, and for relations with neighbouring countries - requirements which do not necessarily coincide with the real or perceived needs of individuals, and should not be equated with them;
- language provision in schools (assessed on existing curricula) and on the private market. The language tuition provided by schools must be weighed against that available from commercial language schools or associations, the aim being to prevent

over-provision or duplication (parallel courses: school in the morning, private tuition in the afternoon) and ensure, for example, that language proficiency (particularly in foreign languages) does not determine a person's social worth.

Moreover, when planning introducing and implementing bilingual education programmes in America, Brisk (2010, p. 136) advises schools to consider specific language, culture and curriculum policies. Language policies adopted by a school must be followed by all teachers in order to provide consistent language development. When planning bilingual curriculum, teaching of language, content, and literacy should be integrated. Therefore educating bilingual students should not merely teach students English or maintain their native language. Schools with a well thought-out initiative, well educated teachers and well-specified goals discussed with local community will provide the foundation to create a quality bilingual education pyramid (Brisk, 2010, p. 201).

The way a school achieves its curriculum will depend on many factors, such as individual or situational contexts. Initiating a bilingual programme is a start of a long process that may take many years. Mehisto (2012b) suggests examining complementary issues and sees high quality bilingual education as a merging of researchers, educators, teachers, bilingual teachers, parents, government and international partners.

In this study we are going to address two of these complementary language issues by means of comparing meaningful data obtained through questionnaires to teachers in five different schools from four European countries.

15.3. The study

15.3.1. Objectives

The main objective of this research is to identify similarities and differences on the ways five European bilingual schools address key language issues. Two specific sub-objectives can be drawn and are independently analyzed:

- a. To identify the opportunities that students are given to enhance their language skills in terms of social integration and academic achievement.
- b. To identify the literacy policy in terms of students' languages.

15.3.2. Research Design

This study is part of a larger investigation on the ways of implementing dual-language programmes and the schools' internal procedures of evaluating them. The methodology used to analyse data was Mixed Methods Research (MMR), specifically its philosophical orientation known as pragmatism (Biesta & Burbules, 2003; Bryman, 2006), which can be considered a bridge between paradigm and methodology (Cameron 2011, p. 96). It offers a helpful alternative to combine both QUAL and QUAN methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) as it draws on many ideas using diverse approaches and valuing both subjective and objective knowledge. The combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods supports a better understanding of the research problem. MMR was appropriate in this study as it comprises data from five schools from various countries with their own bilingual education programs, where the MMR allows to incorporate many diverse viewpoints (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

According to Torrance (2012, p. 111) "Triangulation has its origins in attempts to validate research findings by generating and comparing different sorts of data, and different respondents'

perspectives, on the topic under investigation.” The methodological triangulation was used in this study for data analysis and also for determining the quality of such data. It involved the use of quantitative and qualitative methods to conduct the research. When triangulation is the rationale for conducting the mixed analysis, as it is in this study, the researchers compare findings from the quantitative data with the qualitative results. When the results and conclusions from each of the methods (such as questionnaires and or interviews) are compared and similar results are found, then validity is established.

As it is often difficult for a researcher to be methodologically bilingual (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 45) that is, skilled in both quantitative and qualitative methods, in this research Morse’s (2010, p. 351) study was used in the form of the ‘5 Checks’.

Data collected come from the textual and conceptual analysis of a survey and a structured series of interviews which were analysed by following both qualitative and quantitative methods. Then, we conducted a descriptive study aimed at exploring teachers’ and Heads of Department’s opinions on different key areas encountered in the implementation of bilingual programmes, namely frameworks and benchmarks, evaluation, and language-related practices. The comparative herein will focus on two interesting aspects framed on the general ways these schools implement language-related practices (L1, L2, L3 and L4). We will draw conclusions and insights from this analysis.

15.3.3. Sample

The study was conducted in five bilingual schools in Europe and it included both internal (among the 5 studies) and external comparisons (against standards of plurilingual and intercultural education present in Europe, e.g. those stated by the Council of Europe, 2010). Studies conducted here were examined with reference to the specific contexts in which they are located: the institution, the school, and the bilingual education programme within each.

The surveyed sample consisted of 5 interviewees (specifically chosen by each school management team to answer our questionnaire and interviews as the representative of the school). Out of them, 1 was a bilingual education teacher and the other 4 were, additionally, the Heads of their Departments. All of them were teaching at least one content subject through a foreign language (English) at these five schools. Out of the total sample, 66.6% were men and 33.3% were women.

15.3.4. Data collection techniques

The complete questionnaire used as a tool for collecting the data consisted of a set of open questions on issues related to the identification of frameworks and benchmarks adopted by the schools when evaluating the quality of their dual-language programmes, and the description of present education practices in terms of dual-language programme evaluation in each of the participating schools. It was written in English as it was implemented in 5 different schools of 4 different countries (Spain, Poland, Italy and The Netherlands). After taking into account the considerations and contributions of the panel of experts (Delphi Method), the number of questions was reduced from 18 to 10, and it was also improved in terms of clarity, coherence, appropriateness and wording. This was finally set as a medium-size questionnaire with clear and simple questions which avoid misunderstanding among the survey respondents. The answers were exhaustive and complete, allowing us to test our hypotheses and infer relevant conclusions. The dimensions in which the questions were gathered were established according to a deep literature review. Before getting the final version of the questionnaire (and right after introducing the corresponding modifications according to the experts’ opinions), we selected a small sample of ten respondents in order to verify that it fitted the objectives that this research aims to.

The interview to the teachers was also validated according to the Delphi Method and it consisted of a structured series of 7 questions where teachers could openly explain the researchers' methods, techniques, daily practices and norms/rules of the school regarding different aspects of the implementation of their specific bilingual programmes.

For this chapter we used a part of the language dimension of both instruments, the questionnaire and interviews, which corresponds with the teachers' and Head of Departments' answers on how two specific language practices (L1, L2, L3 and L4) have been implemented in their respective schools (extracurricular activities and literacy).

The school selection was determined by the research purpose, questions, propositions and theoretical context, as well as by other restrictions such as, accessibility (whether the data needed can be collected from either one individual or the school organization); resources (whether resources are available to support travel and other data collection); and time availability (Rowley, 2002). In this study, a spectrum of five schools from Europe was needed in order to reach valid conclusions.

The five participating schools were:

- A. a private bilingual primary school in Spain (School A),
- B. a public bilingual primary school in The Netherlands (School B),
- C. a public bilingual primary school in Italy (School C),
- D. a public bilingual primary school in Poland (School D), and
- E. a private bilingual primary school in Poland (School E).

15.3.5. Procedure

First of all, in order to proceed with the collection of data, it was necessary to get the corresponding permission from the five schools, whose head-teachers authorised and appointed one representative each. Once we obtained these positive responses, the research team was in charge of contacting the teachers to inform them on the purpose of the investigation, as well as on the instructions to complete the survey and the questionnaire.

The quantitative analysis herein was done by calculating the percentages of hours that are designed in the school curricula to extracurricular activities and literacy through different languages.

Atlas.ti has been chosen as the most suitable software to process our data due to a number of reasons, among which we can underline its usefulness to do on-screen coding, and the possibility it opens to build mind maps (which visually explain the results), as well as to create links among them.

Firstly, we used the two options of Atlas.ti: *textual analysis* to obtain the corresponding categories and subcategories; and *conceptual analysis* to establish the relationships among them by creating the appropriate *networks*.

15.3.6. Results

The first objective of this research was "To identify the opportunities that students are given to enhance their language skills in terms of social integration and academic achievement", so we specifically included this question: "In which language/s do the extracurricular activities of your school take place?" These were the results:

TABLE 15.1 Percentages on the languages for extracurricular activities

LANGUAGES	SCHOOLS ⁴				
	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B	SCHOOL C	SCHOOL D	SCHOOL E
L1, L2 & L3	43.1% L1 39.2% L2 12.2% L3 5.5% L4	49.4% L1 50.6% L2	49.3% L1 50.7% L2	0%	44.2% L1 55.8% L2
L1 only	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
L2 only	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%

School A

Head of the Dept. 1-SP: “The extracurricular activities take place in two languages in this school (Spanish and English). In the Primary School, also in Portuguese (L3); and in the Secondary School also in Portuguese and French (L3 & L4). These classes include Art and Sports.”

School B

Head of the Dept. 1-NT: “The extracurricular activities take place in more than one language, but I cannot say to which proportion this occurs.”

School C

Teacher 1-IT: “The extracurricular activities take place in both L1 and L2 (when the English teacher is involved, the teacher and the children speak English). The same occurs with the Italian teacher. When we are together, the children use both, L1 and L2. In this way we want to attest – concretely testify the communicative value of our project: two – three languages to learn and to communicate. In the weekly timetable of our bilingual classes, we have two hours where the two teachers (Italian and English) work together to the same cross-curricular – interdisciplinary project. This is a way to put into practice what we believe.”

School D

Teacher 1-PL1: “The most popular extracurricular activity is the preparation for KET/PET exams, so we can say that the answer to this question is that extracurricular activities in the school are conducted in English only.”

School E

They did not offer further information in the interview.

⁴ Data for L3 and L4 were 0% for all schools; therefore, corresponding rows were erased.

TABLE 15.2 List of categories, codes and frequencies from Atlas.ti

CATEGORY	CODE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Extracurricular activities	L1	4	28.7%
	L2	5	35.8%
	L3	1	7.1%
	L4	1	7.1%
	Exam	1	7.1%
	Communicate	1	7.1%
	Project	1	7.1%
TOTAL		14	100%

The second objective of this research was “To identify the literacy policy in terms of students’ languages”, so we specifically posed this question: “Does your school support literacy skills in more than one language?”

TABLE 15.3 Percentages on the languages of instruction for literacy

LANGUAGES	SCHOOLS ⁵				
	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B	SCHOOL C	SCHOOL D	SCHOOL E
L1	47.1% L1	42.3% L1	47.4% L1	62.2% L1	43.1% L1
L2	52.9% L2	57.7% L2	52.6% L2	37.8% L2	56.9% L2

School A

Head of the Dept. 1-SP: “The school ... has no bilingual library on site. The books can be viewed in the lessons in a pdf format. Summative assessment only written / reading in both languages (L1 and L2). Formative assessment writing, speaking / listening in both languages (L1 and L2).”

School B

Head of the Dept. 1-NT: “Yes, throughout.”

School C

Teacher 1-IT:

- “Italian: at the end of Year 5 in both projects (Veicolare – 7/9 hours in L2 – English, and Bilingual – 20 hours in L2 English), the level of Italian language our children have to achieve is very high (listening, speaking, reading, writing + Italian grammar). The national tests of Italian have very high standards, but also secondary school asks from primary school the achievement of a high level of Italian (both oral and written).”

⁵ Data for L1 and L2 were 0% for all schools; therefore, corresponding rows were erased.

- **English:**
 - in the “Veicolare project”, we expect high levels of listening, speaking and reading.
 - in the “Bilingual project”, we expect high levels of listening, speaking, reading, writing + English grammar. We follow a “readapted method” to teach English literacy that we call “Ruth Miskin” (from the name of its English inventor: <http://www.ruthmiskintraining.com/home/index.html>).

School D

Teacher 1-PL1: “All new topics are introduced in L1; only then English follows. In the specific case of L2 lessons or activities, home language is used only to clarify concepts.”

E. SCHOOL E

Teacher 1-PL2: “Both schools have an ESL department. Students are referred by individual teachers or during the admission process. These work as either pull in or pull out sessions.”

TABLE 15.4 List of categories and subcategories from Atlas.ti

CATEGORY	CODE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Literacy	L1	4	26.7%
	L2	5	33.3%
	Assessment	3	20%
	Skills	1	6.7%
	Lessons	2	13.3%
TOTAL		15	100%

15.4. Discussion

The main objective of this research was to identify differences and similarities on the ways five European bilingual schools manage specific key language issues to establish a comparative evaluation.

The amount of time L1 and L2 are used for extracurricular activities among the schools does not differ excessively among schools. The school D has implemented only L2 (for KET and PET exam preparation), whereas the rest of the schools show a balance in the time the use of both languages has been designed for these activities. This is supported by the interviews: a) the teacher in the school C says: “The extracurricular activities take place in both L1 and L2.” b) The school A’s Head of Department states that: “Summative assessment only written / reading in both languages (L1 and L2). Formative assessment writing, speaking / listening in both languages (L1 and L2).” All schools seem to attach importance to the language in which these activities are carried out. For example, the teacher from the school C states: “In this way we want to attest – concretely testify the communicative value of our project: two – three languages to learn and to communicate.” In the school C, literacy (or rather bi-literacy) is of the highest importance. The programme is tailor-made for the students’ needs in this particular area of Italy. Everything seems to be well thought-out. Regular lessons are conducted both in L1 and L2: teachers firstly provide a full explanation of contents in students’ L1 (Italian), and then they move on to the L2 (English) for further practice and for showing understanding and commandment of the content

taught. The extracurricular activities are generally conducted by two teachers; one Italian and a native speaker of English.

In school E, where multilingual students are found, the school tends to focus on L2 (English), while other languages are studied during extracurricular classes (regular lessons are conducted in L2 –English–, as this is an immersion programme). L2 literacy is strongly supported by the school. This school succeeds in its English language immersion programme thanks to its multicultural context. Students need to communicate in English in order to understand each other and the lessons.

In school D, only parts of the lessons are delivered in English as a medium of instruction (EMI). The literacy programme is designed by the teachers as they plan the content for particular lessons and it is mainly focused on L1. The lessons conducted in L2 are taught by Polish teachers.

In the school C the multilingualism is emphasized; various subjects are taught in different languages and on different levels. The extracurricular activities are conducted in L2 (English) and literacy is strongly supported in some languages.

In the school A only certain subjects are taught in L2 (English) with the use of content course books in English. The lessons conducted in L2 are mainly delivered by Spanish teachers. Literacy is supported in two languages and extracurricular activities are delivered in four languages across Primary and Secondary levels.

The comparison of data from the two research questions reveals that most schools have designed a balanced use of first and second languages both in the delivery of extracurricular activities and in their support of literacy in different languages. Additionally, the school A supports extracurricular activities in four languages (which are gradually implemented as students become more proficient in their second languages) and the school D, whose educational philosophy is more EMI than CLIL nowadays, supports only-L2 (English) activities.

15.5. Conclusions

Some general curricular guidelines in Europe on how to implement CLIL can be found (for example, www.clilcompendium.com or www.clilconsortium.jyu.fi to name only two), but they are very broad and need to be adapted to each school's individual context. This study has shown that the comparison of data from different schools can be a good standpoint from which a comprehensive view of the bilingual panorama can be analyzed across Europe. Our research has intentionally gathered information from both private and state schools, as these data could reveal if specific language actions within bilingual education programmes are being successfully implemented across Europe, trying to avoid the language gap (Johnson & Zentella, 2017).

Brisk (2010) emphasized the need for English to be promoted and developed for social interaction and academic use, and Mehisto (2012a) recommends that student learning of content, language, and related learning skills should be interconnected. Mahoney (2000) demonstrated that the greatest advantage of participating in at least one extracurricular activities is the decrease in anti-social behaviours and students growing up to be more successful in communication and relationships. Extracurricular activities, therefore, stand as one of the parameters to measure how the school designs the social and cultural uses of languages, at the same time that it is connected to the way teachers support literacy through regular subjects. Students engage in more ludic activities that, generally, are connected to the subjects they do in their bilingual itineraries. Therefore, the way schools design these programmes is not any longer a trivial question but rather it is of increasing interests for parents, students and researchers. The findings herein show

that the careful planning of these activities and the languages in which they are conducted can support the language policy of schools, as it reflects their general educational philosophy.

Thus, the analysis of specific school language policies include different parameters, among which extracurricular activities and literacy should be included as they can throw light on the way school management teams understand bilingual education and implement their programmes.

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Subtitling in CLIL: Promoting Bilingual Methodologies through Audiovisual Translation

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Abstract

This chapter explores the use of subtitling as a teaching tool to promote bilingual methodological strategies in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Subtitling as a didactic resource in CLIL –and in bilingual education in general– has been neglected so far, probably due to the stigmatization of translation in foreign language teaching and its association with the Grammar Translation method; however, translation can stimulate students' language awareness, and challenge language separation in bilingual education: namely, the introduction of subtitling in CLIL is intended to encourage code-switching or translanguaging (i.e. the purposeful alternation of the L1 and L2) by working with inter- and intra-linguistic subtitles, enhancing students' metalinguistic skills and leading to the natural use of linguistic codes in the classroom. In addition, watching subtitled videos and producing subtitles in the L1 and the L2 can promote CLIL's 4Cs, as specific contents will be presented with the support of audiovisual material, and cognition, communication, and intercultural elements will be endorsed in the two languages.

16.1. Introduction

The implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Europe has been a major trend in the last two decades with the active support of European institutions (Cenoz, 2015; Eurydice, 2006; Marsh, 2002). Aiming to promote individual plurilingualism, CLIL has emerged as a “timely solution to European plurilingual education” (Pérez-Cañado, 2012, p. 315). In Spain, CLIL schools –especially in Primary Education– have proliferated based on the language, cultural,

and cognitive benefits reported by research (Cenoz, 2015; Coyle, 2002; Dafouz & Guerrini, 2009; Escobar & Sánchez, 2009; Madrid & Hughes, 2011).

The advantages of CLIL have been thoroughly examined in relation to language attainment, language transfer, and other language-related issues (Casal & Moore, 2009; Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Lorenzo, Trujillo, & Vez 2011). Paradoxically, it can be argued that the use of code-switching still deserves academic attention, since the use of both languages in the classroom is critical to favour the development of language awareness and metalinguistic skills of students in bilingual provisions; however, studies investigating bilingual methodological strategies in Spain are scant, and further investigation is required on how to integrate both languages in the classroom. In this framework, virtually no research has been published on the use of translation in bilingual provisions.

The benefits of subtitling as a didactic tool have already been approached in language teaching, and the main findings report that vocabulary recall, motivation, and receptive skills are clearly boosted (Díaz-Cintas, 1997 and 2008; Díaz-Cintas & Remael, 2007; Malmkjaer, 1998; Steiner, 1975; Talaván, 2006 and 2013). The current chapter will contend that subtitling can be beneficial in CLIL by contributing to develop language awareness, metalinguistic skills, and cross-linguistic transfer: specifically, subtitling may be included in bilingual methodological strategies, as it encourages the use of students' L1 and L2 in the classroom, challenging language separation. In addition, subtitling can promote accessibility in CLIL, where there is a dearth of research investigating the difficulties of students with special needs. This paucity of research is in stark contrast to European policies on plurilingualism and inclusive educational approaches, as societal multilingualism should be promoted irrespective of citizens' social background, age, or special needs; otherwise, we will create a gap between a bilingual elite and disadvantaged monolingual students. As pointed out by Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016), the main challenge for bilingual education and CLIL provisions is to meet the demands of all types of students, including children with special needs. In this vein, lessons from audiovisual translation –where subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing has proven to promote accessibility and a more inclusive society (Díaz-Cintas, 2008; Neves, 2005; Orero, 2004)– can be transferred to bilingual education aiming to support the learning process of students with auditory impairment in CLIL.

16.2. Subtitling as a Teaching Resource in Foreign Language Teaching

The use of translation as a didactic tool in foreign language teaching has been condemned by researchers in applied linguistics (Cook, 2007), probably as a consequence of the evolution in language teaching methodology: translation has been unfairly linked to the Grammar Translation method, and any association with this approach has been frowned upon by scholars and practitioners in previous decades. Arguably, the history of language teaching methodology has taught that *new* methods are defined in clear opposition to their predecessors (Sánchez, 2009); hence, it is no surprise that translation has been stigmatized in language teaching due to its association to *old* methods which do not promote active communication and the meaningful learning of the L2. However, as argued by Cook, “translation in English language teaching should be a major topic for future applied linguistic research and discussion” (2007, p. 396). Cook justifies his plea on the dearth of (recent) research on the benefits of translation in language teaching and the possible simplification of the topic by some scholars:

There is also a tendency in criticisms (documented by Fisk Ong 2002) to regurgitate certain arguments without evidence, as though all uses of translation were inevitably connected to authoritarian teaching, dull lessons, form rather than function, writing rather than speech, accuracy rather than fluency, and laboured rather than automated production. This is false reasoning. For while these associations may be true of some teaching that

uses translation, it is also true of some teaching that does not, and they are certainly not inherent in the pedagogical use of translation itself (Duff, 1989).

Cook develops his reasoning by proposing that translation can, in fact, trigger nuclear processes in Second Language Acquisition, namely lowering the affective filter, promoting focus on form, and facilitating the negotiation of meaning (Cook, 2007). These claims have been supported in the framework of audiovisual translation, where subtitling has rendered positive learning outcomes and has proven compatible with communicative views on language teaching (Caimi, 2006; Talaván, 2013). The emergence of audiovisual translation in the last two decades and its consolidation as a sub-field within Translation Studies, has put subtitling as a tool in foreign language learning on the agenda of European research (Díaz-Cintas, 2008).

The use of intralingual (or monolingual) subtitles –where the audio and the written text on the screen is in the same language– has reported gains in students' motivation (Vanderplank, 1988), vocabulary learning (Bird & Williams, 2002), reading comprehension (Bravo, 2008), listening comprehension (Caimi, 2006), and oral production (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994). In parallel, research investigating the use of standard interlingual subtitling (with the audio in the foreign language and the subtitles in the L1 of students) concludes that it may support vocabulary recall (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994), and memory enhancement (Caimi, 2006). The investigation on the production of subtitles has also rendered encouraging effects in terms of motivation, vocabulary acquisition, and reception skills (Orrego-Carmona, 2015; Talaván, 2006 and 2013).

In addition to the possible language gains, the use of subtitles in language teaching may also contribute to language awareness and noticing (Cook, 2007; Lertola, 2012), and the reduction of stress in students' learning process, as subtitles can create a friendly and engaging environment in the classroom, lowering Krashen's (1982) affective filter (see Caimi, 2006; Talaván, 2013). In the same vein, pedagogical approaches to subtitling in foreign language teaching (Lertola, 2012; Talaván, 2010) are also concomitant with Krashen's input hypothesis, which underlined that Second Language Acquisition occurs when students obtain comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985, p. 4).

More recently, Talaván (2013) provided a pedagogical model to integrate subtitling in language teaching: this proposal advocates the functional learning of the foreign language using authentic materials and real language. Talaván's framework places subtitling within Task-Based Learning (Nunan, 1999) and considers that the introduction of audiovisual translation is compatible with communicative approaches to language teaching (Talaván, 2013, p. 13).

The application of audiovisual translation – including dubbing, subtitling, and related areas, such as respeaking or audiodescription for the deaf and hard of hearing (Orero, 2004) – in foreign language teaching still deserves scholarly attention, as many gaps can be identified. One of them relates to the use of subtitles to encourage language awareness and integrated plurilingual approaches to language teaching (and learning). A second gap relates to the use of subtitles in bilingual education to support students with special needs and facilitate their inclusion in bilingual provisions; in Europe, the first studies on the suitability of using subtitling with hearing-impaired children started in the 1980s but, so far, the application in bilingual education remains unexplored.

This chapter is not intended to champion the generalized use of translation as a method in language teaching but rather to underpin its value as a resource that may be beneficial when correctly planned and implemented by teachers (Zabalbeascoa, 1990). Translation is understood and presented here as a resource to be considered in language teaching, not as a goal by itself; as it happens with technology, translation may be beneficial or detrimental in language teaching depending on the methodological approaches and strategies employed by the teachers; in this sense, the main hypothesis here is that the use of subtitling in CLIL may encourage students' language awareness and metalinguistic skills, and avoid language separation.

16.3. Subtitling and CLIL: Content and Languages Integrated Learning

As suggested in the previous section, the application of audiovisual translation as a teaching resource in the field of bilingual education remains unmapped. However, the characteristics of CLIL suggest that using subtitles in the classroom may be suitable with certain fundamental aspects when teaching content through an additional language.

16.3.1. The 4C's

Specific contents from non-language subjects can be addressed by the teachers: for instance, any video about nature or animals will be suitable to be watched in *Conocimiento del Medio* or Science (which is the most common content-subject in CLIL sections in Primary Education in Spain); similarly, clips from films can be utilized to teach specific matters: Tim Burton's animation film *Frankenweenie* may be used to explain electricity, insulators, conducting materials, and so on. The introduction of concepts from content-subjects by means of videos can be a good pedagogical strategy, since knowledge is better constructed when connected with prior knowledge; hence, videos can be a good example of scaffolding to support students' independent learning.

Secondly, cognition may be favoured, as several types of activities can be planned: students can hypothesise or predict what will happen in the video (as the teacher can stop the clip at any moment), summarise the plot, or comment on specific elements being portrayed. As previously mentioned, research reports that intralingual subtitling contributes to a better comprehension when learning a foreign language, as the combination of the written form and the phonological expression promotes the retention of vocabulary (memory enhancement) and the recognition of individual words (Bird & Williams, 2002). By reading the written text on the screen, students have less difficulties when understanding the oral message in the L2 (Caimi, 2006). Hence, it could be argued that by reducing the difficulty associated to the listening comprehension, students can focus on the contents being taught in the L2. In other words, by using subtitles lower- and higher-order thinking skills can be approached.

Third, culture is implicit in audiovisual products, as any video integrates intercultural elements which can be worked in the classroom from elementary to secondary and even tertiary education. Moreover, the impact of the visual channel is clearly beneficial when working with intercultural and social matters in the classroom.

Finally, as for communication, the use of videos favours the contact with authentic materials and real language, which is critical in language teaching and CLIL. As justified by Talaván and Ávila-Cabrera (2015, p. 35), "the oral text differs widely from the written text, not only in physical terms (speed of speech, background noises), but also linguistically (ellipsis, backchanneling, overlapping) and psychologically (potential interaction and negotiation with the speaker)". Following Talaván and Ávila-Cabrera, the use of subtitling in language teaching enhances oral comprehension, as we make students confront "spontaneous language" in contrast with planned texts, which is a cornerstone of language teaching.

16.3.2. The Dual-Focus

CLIL is a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 1). This dual focus can be heightened by audiovisual support, as videos stimulate students' memory and promote vocabulary acquisition (Caimi, 2006) at the same time that non-linguistic contents are introduced. The visual sustenance contributes to the acquisition of lexicon in the L2 when

students watch images of the concepts being explained. When subtitles are displayed, the semiotic channels (audio and video) are complemented by a third reinforcement, the written text on the screen, which facilitates the phonological association. This is conferred by Caimi in the following terms:

The transfer from the spoken text into written form aims to facilitate the viewers' fruition of the exchanges as they are, thus linking pronunciation to the written form and the mental division of sounds into single words. It is the intentional combination of the phonological expression of the foreign language with its written form that acts as a complementary aid to language comprehension (Caimi, 2006, p. 3).

Criticism have been made on the purported distracting nature of subtitles; however, studies have concurred that "far from being a distraction and a source of laziness, subtitles might have a potential value in helping the learning acquisition process by providing learners with the key to massive quantities of authentic and comprehensible language input' (Vanderplank, 1988, p. 272).

Although further analyses are required, research in audiovisual translation has concluded that subtitling countries – those where subtitles are the standard watching preference – report higher competence in foreign languages than do dubbing countries – where most films and TV shows are dubbed into the L1 – (Talaván, 2013, p. 66). Historically, Spain has been a dubbing country where subtitling has only recently been available on TV, and there is a strong tradition to watch audiovisual contents dubbed in Spanish. The introduction of subtitled videos in the classroom is, obviously, not a breakthrough innovation in CLIL (or in a class of English as a foreign language); however, the production of subtitles by students is not customary either in language teaching or in bilingual education. When creating subtitles (either in the L1 or the L2), students are focusing on form at the same time as they are working with the meaning (i.e. contents) presented in the video, reinforcing the dual approach of Content and Language Integrated Learning. In addition, the production of subtitles tallies with one of the basic tenets of CLIL: students are active participants in the learning process. Subtitling can also be framed within task-based approaches to CLIL (Escobar & Sánchez, 2009), as the reception and production of subtitles also favours the real application of language, while the meaning is clearly targeted.

16.3.3. Code-Switching

Code-switching is fundamental in CLIL, since it might contribute to students being unable to express complex ideas or command specific terminology in the L1 and the L2 (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh 2010, p. 16). It should be noted that we refer to code-switching – or translanguaging, as originally proposed by Cen Williams (1994) in Wales – as the "purposeful pedagogical alternation of languages in spoken and written, receptive and productive modes" (Hornberger & Link, 2012, p. 262). In other words, code-switching is a conscious pedagogical strategy used in CLIL to provide support and facilitate students' learning.

Arguably, the use of both languages in the classroom is a key determiner to separate CLIL from "traditional foreign language lessons" where, often, the dogma "100% in the L2" has prevented teachers from using the L1 whatever the purpose (e.g. repeating, rephrasing, clarifying ideas, checking understanding, recasting, and so on). However, language separation might not be an effective strategy, as advocated by Widdowson (2003, p. 150), who stated that "while in the classroom the teachers try to keep the two languages separate, the learners in their own minds keep the two in contact".

Code-switching should not be exclusively associated with CLIL, as it has already been examined in bilingual education (Baker, 2001) and in foreign language teaching (Macaro, 2001).

All in all, the benefits of using both languages in the classroom have been scrutinized in CLIL contexts, and studies suggest that using the L1 may raise students' language gains in the L2 and provide a better comprehension of non-language concepts (de Graaff, Koopman, Anikina, & Westhoff, 2007; Escobar, 2009). These findings concur with previous research anticipating that a bilingual is not the sum of two monolinguals (Grosjean, 1985), and bilingualism is not “monolingualism times two” (García, 2009, p. 71).

In this framework, Cummins' (1979) ground-breaking separation between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) has to be cited, as bilingual education should lead to the acquisition of the social and the academic dimensions of language. Aiming to improve outcomes in CLIL programmes, Cummins recently suggested that teaching for the transfer between the L1 and the L2 of students should be promoted by means of bilingual instructional strategies (Cummins, 2017). Translation and code-switching should be encouraged in CLIL provisions to stimulate language transfer, language awareness, and metalinguistic skills: language separation is not in line with the objective of raising plurilingual citizens, and the “two solitudes approach” to bilingual education has to be challenged (Cummins, 2017). In this sense, this chapter argues that CLIL should refer to content and *languages* integrated learning, where real bilingual settings and situations are presented to the students.

When it comes to the use of subtitles in the classroom, the possibilities offered by this teaching resource can clearly encourage the use of the L1 and the L2, and trigger cross-linguistic transfer when subtitles are read (or created by the students) in the L1 and the video is played in the L2 (or vice versa). In fact, research has reported that subtitling improves the linguistic balance in non-equivalent bilinguals (De Bot, Jagt, Janssen, Kessels & Schils, 1986). The use of subtitling in CLIL can incite language transfer and interdependence between languages as well as the promotion of bilingual literacy; also, by using videos and subtitling in the classroom, students can recognise the differences between everyday conversational English and more academic language.

16.3.4. CLIL for All?

The social milieu of CLIL has received scant attention in the investigation of bilingual education in Europe and in Spain (Pérez-Cañado, 2012) with few studies evaluating the impact of the socio-economic status in CLIL (Alejo & Piquer-Píriz, 2016). Students' social class and family environment should be on the radar screen of researchers, since we need to guarantee that bilingual education is available to everyone through public education. Together with socio-economic aspects, the inclusion of students with special needs in CLIL needs to be considered, as there is virtually no research on the topic, and few teachers have received training on how to deal with such situations.

The use of subtitling to enhance accessibility has been extensively documented in audiovisual translation (see, among others, Díaz-Cintas, 2008; Neves, 2005; Orero, 2004), with a special emphasis on the possibilities subtitles provide to the hard of hearing. Obviously, the introduction of subtitled materials in CLIL does not solve the challenges of students with hearing impairments, but it can sponsor a friendlier environment, since additional support is provided to students, so they can read the text in the L1 or the L2. The findings in foreign language learning – such as improvement in impaired students' motivation, vocabulary acquisition, reading fluency, or metalinguistic skills (Talaván, 2010) – can be transferred to educational settings where contents are taught through an additional language. Both major types of subtitling modalities (intra- and interlingual) can be used in CLIL to support the learning process of students with hearing impairment, although some variations are usually introduced to challenge the difficulties of the hard of hearing: close-captioning is preferred to regular subtitles, as this modality includes

non-verbal and paratextual information that is included in the soundtrack of any video, such as noises, laughter, music, and so on (Neves, 2005).

16.4. On the Use of Subtitling in CLIL Provisions

Next, some general guidelines on the application of subtitling in CLIL are presented; rather than unfolding a didactic proposal, this section is intended to outline some wide-ranging strategies on the implementation of subtitling in CLIL. These general recommendations are drawn from the project *Subtitula2.0*, developed at the University of Oviedo between 2013 and 2015 with 3 schools of Primary Education and 2 establishments of Secondary Education.

16.4.1. The Context

In Spain, CLIL has been implemented in all educational stages, from Elementary to Higher education. The most suitable stages to introduce subtitling in CLIL are the last cycle of Primary Education (5th and 6th grades) and in any cycle of Secondary Education. In these two stages, all the potential of subtitling and audiovisual translation (i.e. watching subtitled videos and producing subtitles) can be implemented. Prior to the last cycle of Primary Education, students might find more difficulties when dealing with subtitles and it is preferred that they have already been enrolled in a CLIL provision for some years (where teachers should promote the use of code-switching); as for university students, although they are cognitively prepared for these kinds of activities, the type of bilingual education implemented in Spanish institutions of higher education is closer to English Medium Instruction (EMI) than to CLIL, and the focus is solely on contents rather than on the integration of language and contents.

16.4.2. The Actors: Teachers and Students

Teachers working in CLIL provisions in Spain are usually well-versed in the use of ICTs in the classroom, as technologies are today a central component in the curriculum of Primary and Secondary Education. Nevertheless, teachers should learn the basics of subtitling before working with the students: for instance, subtitles should not exceed two lines of text, they need to be displayed between 1 and 6 seconds on the screen (depending on the length of the subtitle, and considering that children's reading speed is between 120 and 140 words per minute), they should occupy a certain space on the screen, and line breaks have to be carefully planned to facilitate the reading of the subtitles (see Díaz-Cintas & Remael, 2007). Although no teaching materials have been published so far, teachers can check websites and online resources explaining the basics of subtitling; in the project developed at the University of Oviedo, Primary and Secondary School teachers received a 1-hour training seminar on the basics of subtitling and the use of subtitling software. Before implementing any activity, teachers should also brief their students on some basic rules of subtitling and the use of the tools.

16.4.3. Resources and Materials

Nowadays, subtitles can be displayed in DVDs, video on demand services (e.g. HBO and Netflix), and even regular TV and online contents: YouTube's closed-captioning tool displays machine translation subtitles, and many online videos have been subtitled by the authors. As for the production of subtitles, again, many websites offer online tools that can be used in the classroom. However, the use of stand-alone software may be more interesting, as it provides additional functionality. *Subtitle Workshop*, for instance, is a well-known tool due to its simplicity and functionality: it allows one to subtitle any video in a straightforward way and is easy to

use by teachers and students.⁶ Similarly, Aegisub is a free multi-platform software that allows integrating of subtitles and audio in any video.⁷ Understandably, the type of videos should be adapted to the age group, students' level, and the specific topics to be approached in content-subjects.

16.4.4. Types of Activities

An introductory session is recommended to present the activities, activate students' prior knowledge, discuss their use of subtitles, show the software, and so on. It is advisable for students to work with subtitles on their own: pair work and (small) group work is preferred to promote communication among students and to avoid individual usage of technology in the classroom. Students may be asked to use the L2 or the L1 while working with the video: as already explained in this chapter, the use of code-switching should be promoted.

16.4.4.1. Watching Subtitles

The standard activity is watching videos in the foreign language with subtitles in the L2 (intralingual subtitles) or in students' L1 (interlingual subtitles). Ideally, pre-viewing activities should be planned to activate students' previous knowledge: brainstorming, guessing activities, or any warm-up is suitable before watching the video. Working with lower- and higher-order skills is critical in CLIL: therefore, encouraging students to predict and hypothesise is good practice. Videos can be stopped and students may guess what will happen at the end, how the plot will unfold, etc. Post-viewing activities may include content tests, vocabulary quizzes, summarising, and so on. This is a classical pattern for working with videos, which can be enhanced by exploiting the use of the two languages in the classroom: for instance, the display of subtitles in Spanish to watch a video about the water cycle in English will promote students acquisition of vocabulary in the L1 and the L2.

16.4.4.2. Producing Subtitles

For the production of subtitles, short videos between 30 seconds and 3 minutes are ideal. Students can transcript the subtitles on a paper and introduce them in the software later on (or work directly with computers if this is an option in the school).

Intralingual subtitling: the standard activity is to create English subtitles for a video watched in the L2. Besides transcribing / translating the oral channel into a written code, students have to synchronise the text with the actual utterances of the video, increasing their awareness on phonological and prosodic elements.

Interlingual subtitling: in this case, students can work with direct or reverse translation. In the former, students will create Spanish subtitles for the English audio; in the latter, students will produce subtitles in English for a video which is played in Spanish.

Creative writing (mash-ups): although this activity was not planned in the project, we soon discovered its potential and effectiveness to promote students' language awareness. Students can create subtitles which are not a transcription / translation of the audio of the clip: they can produce mash ups (similar to the famous parodies of Bruno Ganz's Hitler in *Downfall*), as long as they are synchronized with the video (lip-sync) and they make sense. Although this proposal

⁶ <http://subworkshop.sourceforge.net>

⁷ <http://www.aegisub.org>

was initially dismissed, we discovered that it boosts students' motivation, communication within the group, and the use of the two languages while producing the subtitles.

Next, a table with some possible activities is presented (Table 16.1). Proposals on the use of subtitling in foreign-language learning can be found in the studies by Incalterra and Lertola (2011, p. 149), and Talaván (2013, pp. 93-124). The current scheme aims to unveil some of the possibilities that subtitling offers on the use of the L1 and the L2 in CLIL, and the relation with content, language, and cognition focuses. The diagram does not provide a model to implement the activities (as this would require a much more detailed approach and addressing specific contents and language objectives in a target age group), but rather a general outline to exemplify how subtitling can contribute to enhance bilingual methodological approaches.

TABLE 16.1. Activity diagram on the use of subtitles in CLIL

STAGE	ACTIVITY	SKILLS (COGNITION)	LANGUAGE	CONTENTS
PRE-WATCHING	Introducing activity Warm-up / icebreakers Brainstorming Reading a short text on the topic of the video	Activating prior knowledge Formulating questions and queries Cooperative learning	Introducing new vocabulary Presenting / reviewing language structures	Addressing specific contents Relating contents to other subjects
WATCHING	Watching the video with / without subtitles (L1 or L2)	Predicting, hypothesising (before video ends); describing (contents, processes, characters) Memory enhancement	Translating L1/L2 vocabulary Oral / written comprehension Phonological association Vocabulary recall	Assimilation of contents in the L1/L2 Visual reinforcement
CENTRAL TASK	Subtitling the video (intralingual / interlingual subtitling / creative - alternative subtitles)	Metalinguistic skills Translating Cross-linguistic transfer	Meaning negotiation Code-switching Promote biliteracy	Content development in L1/L2
POST-WATCHING	Discussion; comprehension; role-plays; summary; writing activities	Reasoning, synthesising, drawing conclusions	Vocabulary check Analysing differences / similarities between languages (e.g. cognates)	Content test Analysis of the video

The table does not include recommendations on the language to be used in the activities, as this depends on the group, the context, and the teacher. However, as has been noted, working with subtitles should favour the promotion of code-switching in the classroom. Also, following standard guidelines, activities should go from less cognitively demanding to more challenging tasks, promoting learning progression in language skills and the construction of knowledge.

16.5. Final Remarks

This chapter has challenged the stigmatization of translation within foreign language learning, and has justified the use of subtitling in CLIL provisions by reviewing some of the theoretical tenets that cater for the use of both languages in bilingual education. The presence of real language in the classroom, the access of students to authentic materials, the promotion of code-switching, and the avoidance of language separation should be guaranteed, aiming to encourage students' language awareness and the development of a plurilingual communicative competence: it is critical that the social and the academic dimensions of language –BICS and CALP– are stimulated in bilingual education. In this framework, translation is a mediation skill that is absolutely required in multilingual societies, where meaning needs to be constantly negotiated among several languages and cultural backgrounds. CLIL students should be able to switch between codes in a natural way, so they are aware of the differences, similarities, and even commonalities among languages.

The current chapter has outlined some of the possibilities derived from the use subtitling in CLIL. Strategic pedagogical approaches are still needed to enhance the plurilingual and integrated nature of CLIL. In this sense, empirical research on the effectiveness of subtitling in CLIL is welcome to measure its impact on students' motivation, vocabulary acquisition, code-switching, and language transfer. Furthermore, the use of dubbing as a teaching tool deserves scholarly attention in CLIL research. All in all, the investigation of strategies and/or methodologies intended to create real bilingual settings in CLIL will be beneficial to enhance plurilingualism and the natural use of languages in our students.

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In-Service Teacher Professional Development and Bilingual Education: Towards a Comprehensive Teacher Training Curriculum

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has revealed itself as a most fruitful educational dual-focused approach in bilingual programmes in Europe and beyond, whereby attention is paid both to language and content to make deep learning happen in the classroom. However, without appropriate teacher education programmes, CLIL would be unlikely to succeed or would be simply unsustainable. This paper explores in-service teacher training initiatives designed and implemented by Teacher Training Centres in Andalusia, a region that boasts a huge network of bilingual schools (1375 schools in the academic year 2016-2017) that has been expanding since the *Plurilingualism Promotion Plan: A Language Policy for the Andalusian Society* came into force in 2005. The new *Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia. Horizon 2020* (2017) seeks to give continuity to the language policies propounded in the previous strategic plan and to further develop bilingual education in Andalusia. We will also look at a detailed body of knowledge, skills and understanding that make up a CLIL vademecum or teacher training curriculum for high-quality bilingual education. This training curriculum embodies the theoretical underpinnings and practical implications of CLIL, the pedagogical know-how and expertise that content and language teachers alike should assimilate and update throughout their careers.

17.1. CLIL and Language Policies in Andalusia

In the context of bilingual education, many teachers feel that CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) offers considerable promise as a dual-focused educational approach that has the potential to boost students' content acquisition and language learning. The now classical

definition of the concept emphasises the importance of fusion, convergence and integration: “CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language. [...] CLIL is not a new form of language education. It is not a new form of subject education. It is an innovative fusion of both.” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1) A true Copernican revolution, CLIL is part of a shift towards a new education paradigm in the early 21st century, and also a timely response to the exciting challenges posed by the Knowledge Society at a time of unprecedented historical acceleration. What makes CLIL truly valuable and unique is that it puts language and cognition at the very centre of the learning process. In other words, it reminds us that language and knowledge go hand in hand, for it is through words and text that we handle ideas, thoughts and emotions and we construct knowledge, both in speaking and in writing. CLIL also gives us the opportunity to approach human knowledge in a more sensible, holistic way, as a whole or *Gestalt*, as well as a precious pretext to renovate classroom practice by fostering learning by construction rather than learning by instruction, by means of learner-centred, dialogic pedagogies. In a nutshell, good CLIL practice is a true catalyst for change towards good education. CLIL is about learning both disciplinary content and language successfully, while enhancing students’ academic literacy – i.e., their ability to speak and write well about newly-learned content in an effective manner. In a globalised world, academic literacy in languages other than the mother tongue is a fundamental skill to access the labour market and progress in a globalised economy.

In this respect, since 2005, one of the educational strategic priorities of the Andalusian government, as stated in the *Plurilingualism Promotion Plan: A Language Policy for the Andalusian Society*,⁸ has been to promote the teaching and learning of several languages at school in a monolingual community like Andalusia. Pilot projects date back to 1998, but 2005 was a sort of *annus mirabilis* that marked the beginning of systematic, widespread bilingual education in Andalusia. Over the last twelve years, teachers have been doing their best to stand up to the big challenge of bilingual education, which involves not only teaching at least 50% of the curriculum of certain content subjects through a foreign language (English, French or German), but also implementing student-centred dialogic pedagogies that bring about deep learning in class. In the meantime, the *Consejería de Educación* has produced a mass of helpful documents, resources and materials for bilingual schools: 130 CLIL lessons for Primary and Secondary Education (in English, French and German), 452 ELP communicative activities (based on the European Language Portfolio and the CEFR), the so-called Integrated Language Curriculum (CIL or *Currículum Integrado de las Lenguas*) and the School Language Project (PLC or *Proyecto Lingüístico de Centro*). In the realm of in-service teacher training, the challenge for the Andalusian Network of 32 Teacher Training Centres (whose origins date back to 1986) has been twofold: to improve teachers’ linguistic competence in the L2/L3 (both functional, everyday language and academic language) and to provide them with the right methodological updating (i.e., knowledge, understanding, skills and strategies) to teach their subjects creatively and effectively through CLIL.

In line with the EU language policies of the last two decades, the new *Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia. Horizon 2020 (PEDLA, Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía. Horizonte 2020)*, which has come into force in January 2017, expands the language policies propounded in the 2005 *Plurilingualism Promotion Plan*. The six overarching goals of the new strategic plan seek (i) to consolidate the achievements of the bilingual programme, (ii) to expand and improve teacher education initiatives, (iii) to optimize the use of I+D+i (investigation, development and innovation), (iv) to increase students’

⁸ In the introduction to this landmark document, we read: “la lengua es un elemento clave de nuestras vidas: «Somos seres que sabemos pensar y expresarnos e intercambiar ideas, gracias al uso de la lengua, de ahí que cualquier debate que implique imaginar cómo tenemos que estar en una nueva o renovada sociedad o civilización, se tiene que hacer necesariamente conociendo en qué lengua nos vamos a expresar, cuál va a ser la lengua común y de qué modo se utilizarán las lenguas de origen, cuya diversidad es fuente de riqueza y un patrimonio de la humanidad.» (2005, p. 10)

exposure to foreign languages outside of the classroom, (v) to foster intercultural education, and (vi) to improve students' language learning results and academic performance. Like the 2005 strategic plan, the *PEDLA* highlights the simple fact that methodology is the heart of the matter and that new efforts will be invested into teacher training programmes, particularly into the design of “itinerarios formativos que den respuesta a las necesidades del profesorado de áreas lingüísticas y no lingüísticas, teniendo en cuenta que son actores fundamentales de la adquisición de la competencia lingüística [del alumnado]” (2017, p. 25), which is to say: “training paths catering for the needs of language and content teachers, taking into account that they are the fundamental actors in boosting students' language acquisition.” This particular proposal is in line with the *Third Andalusian Plan for In-Service Teacher Training (III Plan Andaluz de Formación Permanente del Profesorado, 2014)*, which clearly states that its first strategic action comprises plurilingualism, the use of ICT and entrepreneurship as basic skills in the context of the so-called Knowledge Society:

Para poder desenvolverse como integrantes de una ciudadanía de pleno derecho en la sociedad del conocimiento, las personas deben tener adquiridas las destrezas comunicativas, tanto en su lengua materna como en lenguas extranjeras, las destrezas digital y tecnológica y el espíritu emprendedor. Sobre este fundamento, y para alcanzar los objetivos estratégicos de Europa 2020, hay tres líneas estratégicas a seguir dentro de la formación del profesorado: el fomento del Plurilingüismo, la integración de las tecnologías de la información y la comunicación y el fomento de una cultura del emprendimiento. (2014, p. 19)⁹

[For people to be able to function effectively as active citizens in the Knowledge Society, they must have a good command of communicative skills both in their mother tongue and in foreign languages, of digital and technological skills, and of a critical sense of entrepreneurship. In this respect, so as to achieve the strategic objectives of Europe 2020¹⁰, there are three strategic actions to be implemented in the realm of teacher education: the fostering of plurilingualism, the integration of information and communication technologies, and entrepreneurship.]

In what follows, we will look precisely at the kind of elemental professional competences that teacher training initiatives designed and implemented by the Teacher Training Centres in Andalusia should ideally develop in bilingual teachers. In addition, we will propose a more detailed body of knowledge, skills and understanding that make up a CLIL vademecum or teacher training curriculum for high-quality bilingual education. Put very simply, this training curriculum embodies the theoretical underpinnings and practical implications of CLIL, the pedagogical know-how and expertise that content and language teachers alike should assimilate and update throughout their careers. The competence-based in-service teacher training model we propose should aim at empowering teachers to enhance bilingual education in their classes, to optimize their impact on their students' content and language learning, and to give students the best cognitively-demanding and linguistically-rich experiences (as well as memorable learning experiences) that make deep learning and cognition happen in the classroom.

⁹ As for plurilingual education, the Third Andalusian Plan states the following: “El Sistema Educativo Andaluz se orienta a conseguir, entre otros fines, la capacitación para la comunicación en la lengua oficial y en una o más lenguas extranjeras. Este impulso al conocimiento de idiomas tiene el fin de que, a medio plazo, la juventud andaluza sea bilingüe.” (2014, p. 19) In other words: “The Andalusian Education System seeks, among other goals, to empower people to be able to communicate in the official language and in one or more foreign languages. The ultimate mid-term objective is for the Andalusian youth to become bilingual.”

¹⁰ The three strategic objectives of Europe 2020 are: “smart growth – developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation; sustainable growth – promoting a more resource efficient, greener and more competitive economy; and inclusive growth – fostering a high-employment economy delivering economic, social and territorial cohesion” (2010, p. 8). Smart growth entails “improving the quality of our education, strengthening our research performance, promoting innovation and knowledge transfer throughout the Union...” (2010, p. 9) and investing resources into education, training and lifelong learning “to raise the overall quality of all levels of education and training in the EU, combining both excellence and equity” (2010, p. 11).

17.2. The Art of Teaching: A Bedrock of Pedagogical Knowledge

Bilingual education is a tantalizing challenge for both content and language teachers, who are the most sophisticated piece of equipment of any education system in the world. Teaching is no random practice, though. It has got its own set of rules, which betrays the simple fact that the art of teaching is a harmonious combination of talent and technique – a sort of innate capacity and instinct guiding classroom action, on the one hand, and a body of professional know-how, expertise and knowledge gained from first-hand experience and explicit reflection on education theories, on the other hand. At any rate, teachers remain constant students throughout their careers if they are committed to the ethical dimension inherent in educating the younger members of a human community. In this respect, the main strength of any education system lies in the human factor, i.e., it is rigorously, highly qualified and committed teachers that make all the difference and have a remarkable impact on students' learning. The remaining factors are all distractors, as John Hattie claims in *Visible Learning for Teachers*. Therefore, the ultimate purpose of teacher training, teacher education or in-service professional development is nothing other than empowering teachers to have an optimal impact on students' learning. When it comes to bilingual education, the provision for the necessary initiatives that might ensure the success of these programmes remains a fundamental responsibility of the educational administration. According to the *Third Andalusian Plan for In-Service Teacher Training*,

... la formación del profesorado en lenguas extranjeras no puede limitarse tan solo a la capacitación lingüística, sino que tiene que abarcar también al menos los siguientes objetivos:

1. Fortalecer y consolidar la competencia comunicativa del profesorado en lenguas extranjeras necesaria para el desarrollo de su materia.
2. Favorecer la actualización pedagógica y didáctica en el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenido y Lengua Extranjera (AICLE).
3. Acometer un tratamiento integrado de las lenguas en el currículo.
4. Impulsar la dimensión europea de la educación en los centros. (2014, p. 19)

[... the foreign language training aimed at teachers is not only about upgrading their linguistic capacities. It should also take into account the following objectives:

1. To strengthen and consolidate teachers' communicative competence in foreign languages, so that they can teach their subjects effectively through them.
2. To foster teachers' pedagogical and didactic updating in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning).
3. To approach the languages in the curriculum in an integrated manner.
4. To enhance the European dimension of education in schools.]

Bearing in mind these fundamental guidelines, any in-service teacher training framework in the realm of bilingual education should aim at providing both content and language teachers in Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Education with knowledge, competences, skills and understanding in at least three fundamental areas of professional development:

1. Linguistic competence, or knowledge of the mother tongue and foreign languages (L1, L2 and L3). This means that teachers should ideally have an effective knowledge of and about the idiosyncrasies of the languages used in the classroom as objects of study, as tools for learning and as vehicles of communication. In CLIL settings, language is not just a tool of communication, but, most importantly, a weapon of epistemological precision that facilitates access to curricular content or disciplinary knowledge (i.e., the body of concepts or bedrock of facts making up a specific academic discipline). But language is a multifaceted phenomenon and so language competence entails a wide spectrum of sub-competences and skills such as:

the ability to communicate both in writing and speaking according to at least the CEFR B2 level (though a C1 level is most desirable in view of the objectives associated with Horizon 2020); the capacity to use languages to transmit knowledge and the curriculum of content subjects in class; the faculty to analyze the workings of the L1, L2 or L3 (meta-language), as well as the process of language learning itself (meta-cognition); the capacity to identify the worldview and cultural messages encoded in the languages used at school; and the willingness to keep on mastering the language, a process which takes a lifetime and is really a work in progress. In sum, any programme aimed at fostering a solid teacher professional development should take into account the need for constantly updating teachers' language skills, as well as their knowledge of and about the language. The reason is simple enough: in bilingual education we need sophisticated language for sophisticated thinking and learning to co-construct solid knowledge. Good education does not want students to have a shaky grasp of the fundamental facts that make up the body of disciplinary knowledge, but a solid grasp of academic content instead. It goes without saying that we are taking for granted that teachers have a good mastery of the disciplines they teach (i.e., scientific or disciplinary knowledge).

2. Pedagogical competence, or knowledge about how to construct and deal with knowledge and emotion in class by creating a safe and supportive learning atmosphere. This entails a solid command of a wide range of teaching-learning strategies, techniques and resources. The so-called pedagogical competence comprises a vortex or dynamic constellation of capacities, abilities and skills: (1) general pedagogical competence, which includes fundamental knowledge of the teaching-learning process, as well as learner-oriented pedagogies that put the student at the very centre of the learning experience (cooperative learning, task-based approach, project-based learning, Design Thinking, flipped teaching, competence-oriented methodologies, etc.); (2) specific pedagogical competence to teach the L1, L2 or L3, including theories and models of language acquisition and learning; (3) pedagogical competence to teach a content subject through the L2 or L3 and a good command of CLIL theory (Do Coyle's 4Cs Framework, the Language Triptych, the spiral of language progression, Cummins' BICS vs. CALP, Bloom's taxonomy of lower- and higher-order thinking skills, the CLIL Matrix and academic literacy) and CLIL practice (unit planning, materials and tasks evaluation and design, methodological strategies, dealing with the five CEFR skills, classroom management, assessment);¹¹ (4) competence to deal with mixed-ability classes in the context of inclusive education; (5) competence to accurately assess students' learning (formative assessment) and the teaching-learning process itself; and (6) competence to implement research processes based on class observation and data, for teachers are constant learners, practitioners and researchers (inquiry-oriented and -based teaching practice).

3. Emotional competence and social skills, or empathy, self-assertion, creativity, originality, the ability to work collaboratively with other colleagues and network to form a community of practice that inquires into its own teaching. Like curiosity or the desire to know and be happy, emotion is ubiquitous and so it is of the essence that we pay attention to what is going on within and around people. In this sense, it is necessary to cultivate emotional intelligence at school in a systematic way throughout the stages that make up basic education. Emotional intelligence consists of two fundamental dimensions: intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence, or the ability to identify and control one's own emotions and to recognize other people's emotions and to respond to them appropriately. Dealing with emotions is then an inescapable and fundamental enterprise at school, for education is the ideal space for human interaction and socialization. As Spanish philosopher Fernando Savater observes, humanity is a highly contagious disease and school serves the purpose of spreading this disease to others. As he puts it himself in memorable words,

¹¹ See Coyle et al. (2010) for a detailed anatomy of CLIL theory and practice.

Los demás seres vivos nacen ya siendo lo que definitivamente son, lo que irremediamente van a ser pase lo que pase, mientras que de los humanos lo más que parece prudente decir es que nacemos para la humanidad. Nuestra humanidad biológica necesita una confirmación posterior, algo así como un segundo nacimiento en el que por medio de nuestro propio esfuerzo y de la relación con otros humanos se confirme definitivamente el primero. Hay que nacer para humano, pero solo llegamos plenamente a serlo cuando los demás nos contagian su humanidad a propósito... y con nuestra complicidad. La condición humana es en parte espontaneidad natural pero también deliberación artificial: llegar a ser humano del todo —sea humano bueno o humano malo— es siempre un arte. (1997, p. 11)

[The remaining living beings are born into what they will be for good, into what they will inevitably be regardless of what may happen, whereas it seems prudent to say that we human beings are born *for* humanity. Our biological humanity needs a sort of confirmation *a posteriori*, something resembling a second birth in which our first birth is consolidated by our own effort and our relationship to other human beings. One needs to be born to be human, but we become fully human only when the others spread their contagious humanity on purpose and we acquiesce. The human condition is partly natural spontaneity, but also artificial deliberation or artfulness: to be completely human – be it a good human or a bad human – is always an art.]

Fernando Savater reminds us that school is not just a tiny part of life, but life itself, as we spend long hours at school learning different academic disciplines, learning to do and learning to be. Hence, a teacher is a humanist, a person who cares about humankind, for teachers work with other human beings, not with bricks or stone or wood. In an education paradigm forged in the Industrial Revolution, emotion appears to have been somehow neglected and reason is of paramount importance. But teachers cannot take proper care of human beings if they pay attention only to their rational side and forget about their emotional dimension, for humans are multifaceted inquisitive and sentient beings. Today, in an emerging education paradigm and in a connected world where knowledge is constructed collaboratively more than ever before, a highly-qualified teacher needs to learn to be emotionally intelligent and to help students handle their own emotions in their daily interaction with others. After all, all human beings want not just to know, but also to be happy, as Roman philosopher Lucio Anneo Seneca observed in his treatise *De vita beata (On Happiness)* in the first century AD.

17.3. A Teacher Training Curriculum for CLIL Settings

As Do Coyle puts in the Foreword to *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, Results and Teacher Training* (2010), a valuable volume edited by David Lasagabaster and Yolanda Ruiz de Zarobe, “without appropriate teacher education programs, the full potential of CLIL is unlikely to be realized and the approach would be unsustainable.” (2010, p. viii) Similarly, in a chapter entitled “Teacher Training Programmes for CLIL in Andalusia” included in the same collection, Sagrario Salaberri observes something to the same effect: “Considering all the factors that contribute to the success of bilingual programmes, one of them is teacher training – the fact that teachers have an appropriate linguistic and methodological background is essential for language and content learning success.” (2010, p. 144) Since 2005, the training actions put in place by the *Consejería de Educación* so as to update the linguistic and methodological skills of the teachers involved in bilingual teaching have been varied and designed in a such a way as to cater for teachers’ need for permanent professional development. Training initiatives and actions have been ultimately supported by the 32 Teacher Training Centres across Andalusia in charge of designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating CLIL training activities in a variety of formats (conferences, courses, workshops, seminars, online courses, e-learning, exchange of good CLIL practice, etc.).

The three Teacher Training Centres in the province of Córdoba are part of the public institutions that make up the so-called *Network of Teacher Training Centres*, which aims at fostering the necessary strategies to achieve the general objectives proposed in the groundbreaking document entitled the *III Plan Andaluz de Formación Permanente del Profesorado (Third Andalusian Plan for In-Service Teacher Training, 2014)*. The overarching goal of in-service teacher training or continuous professional development is to endow teachers with fundamental knowledge, understanding and skills to have an optimal impact on students' learning and academic performance. Thus, the role of in-service teacher training consists in providing Pre-School, Primary and Secondary teachers as well as teachers of the so-called *Enseñanzas de Régimen Especial* (Official Language, Art and Music Schools) with the necessary pedagogical, methodological and academic training that they need to do their job efficiently in the classroom, which is the ideal space for knowledge co-construction and innovation. In this respect, Teacher Training Centres try to harmonize institutional initiatives, guidelines and priorities with schools' actual training demands, so as to meet teachers' heterogeneous needs and interests in a vast geographical area. To this end, teacher training advisors design courses, workshops and other training initiatives whose target audience is teachers from all educational (non-tertiary) levels, since their aim is to improve their teaching skills and practical strategies, when dealing, for instance, with key competences, plurilingualism, subject-specific methodology, reading and literacy, numeracy and scientific knowledge, ecology and gender equality, which are cross-curricular areas of concern to all public schools.

When it comes to CLIL, plurilingualism and language teaching and learning, the three Teacher Training Centres in the province of Córdoba work collaboratively so as to cover the following contents aimed at improving the professional competences of CLIL teachers. This is a sort of work in progress: a vademecum or training curriculum summarising all the essential knowledge, understanding and skills that teachers (both content and language teachers) working in CLIL settings should assimilate and update through in-service training initiatives:

1. Learning languages in the 21st century: plurilingualism in the world, in Europe and in Andalusia. [Workshops at the beginning of every school year aimed at content and language teachers working in (new) bilingual schools.]

- 1.1. Bilingualism, multilingualism and plurilingualism: clarifying concepts. A short history of language learning and bilingual education throughout time: a diachronic perspective. The 20th century: Canada, the USA and Europe.
- 1.2. Language policies in the EU: CEFR (2000), European Year of Languages (2001), and EU's crucial language recommendations.
- 1.3. A decade of bilingual education in Andalusia (2005-2015): achievements and gains of bilingual education; scientific evidence to fight myths and wrong assumptions about bilingual education.
- 1.4. Legal framework for bilingual education in Andalusia: *Orden de 28 de junio de 2011*, *Orden de 29 de junio de 2011* and *Orden de 1 de agosto de 2016, por la que se modifica la Orden de 28 de junio de 2011, por la que se regula la enseñanza bilingüe en los centros docentes de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía*. Organisation and functioning of a bilingual school, resources and coordination between content and language teachers. School leadership in a bilingual school.
- 1.5. The language assistant in the bilingual classroom: legislation, timetable, teaching responsibilities, materials design, integration into the school community, preliminary arrangements concerning visa, payment, health care, etc.

2. CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning): the potential inherent in a new educational approach. [Online courses on Moodle / e-learning, seminars, job-shadowing, exchange of good practice, experiential workshops where teachers learn

to design CLIL units and deliver micro lessons, courses and workshops dealing with crucial CLIL aspects (e.g. cognition, Bloom's Taxonomy of LOTS vs. HOTS, Cummins' BICS vs. CALP, scaffolding input and student output, dealing with oral & written text, adapting materials, using ICT, etc.), CLIL for Primary and Secondary Education teachers, CLIL for specific content subjects. The goals are (i) to gain an understanding of the fundamental theoretical underpinnings of CLIL, as well as the pedagogical potential inherent in this new approach with a high impact on students' learning and (ii) to critically look at the singularity of CLIL and the implications thereof for the teaching-learning of languages and of the so-called content subjects in the fields of science and the humanities and (iii) to ultimately improve teachers' pedagogical and linguistic competences.]

- 2.1. **Theoretical underpinnings of CLIL.** What is CLIL? Looking at CLIL historically and sociologically. Proto-CLIL in antiquity. CLIL in the Knowledge Age: historical acceleration, a change in education paradigms. Definition and features of CLIL as a flexible construct, the 4Cs Framework by Do Coyle et al. (Content, Communication, Cognition and Culture), integrating language and content, the Language Triptych (language *of*, *for* and *through* learning), Bloom's taxonomy of types of thinking updated by Anderson & Krathwohl in 2001 (LOTS vs. HOTS), the CLIL Matrix to balance cognitive and linguistic demands. Language learning and language using: language as a tool of knowledge and communication; the spiral of language progression. BICS vs. CALP (Cummins, 1979): academic language and disciplinary discourse. Towards fusion, convergence and interdisciplinarity: a holistic approach to human knowledge.
- 2.2. **Planning the teaching-learning process in a CLIL setting: towards a shared vision of CLIL in context.** School Project, Department Didactic Programme, Class Didactic Programme, collaborative planning on the part of language and content subject teachers in a bilingual school: models of curricular integration and convergence. Towards a globalised and integrated curriculum across subjects: themes, topics, projects, global citizenship and interdisciplinarity. Overarching goals guiding CLIL in a specific socio-economic and cultural milieu.
- 2.3. **Designing didactic units as basic planning tools for successful CLIL education.** Elements in a CLIL unit: aims, learning outcomes, content (4Cs), methodological guidelines, assessment criteria. Planning, preparing, implementing and monitoring a CLIL unit. (a) Steps in preparing a CLIL unit (mind map summarizing the 4Cs): considering content, linking content and cognition, communication (language *of*, *for* and *through* learning) and cultural components. (b) Preparing a CLIL unit: evaluating, assembling and adapting materials, resources and tasks; creating new materials and tasks. (c) Implementing a CLIL unit: the structure of a "master lesson" & methodological strategies related to how to begin a CLIL lesson, how to make it flow, how to wrap it up. (d) Monitoring: formative assessment of CLIL units for better teaching-learning performance.
- 2.4. **Materials, resources and tasks for CLIL units: dealing with text.** Evaluating and adapting authentic material and tasks from the Internet and other sources. Creating new material and tasks. Input in CLIL settings: students meeting input, processing input and responding to input. Dealing with texts: a hierarchy of texts (continuous text, bulleted text, visuals/graphs/flowcharts/tables, artifacts or real objects, including artwork). Adapting, simplifying and scaffolding text (rediscursification). Designing memorable learning experiences and cognitively demanding tasks, taking into account (1) a hierarchy of task types: from LOTS

to HOTS (labeling, matching, gap-filling, identifying, hypothesizing, creating); (2) BICS vs. CALP: academic language and disciplinary discourse; (3) the centrality of texts as fundamental input in CLIL settings: text typology and genre; towards a plurilingual genre map across the curriculum; and (4) scaffolding input and student output: practical ideas; translanguaging and code-switching in CLIL classrooms.

- 2.5. **Methodology: student-centred methodologies, dialogic pedagogies and reflective interaction.** The centrality of student experience, cooperation and rich interaction leading to deep learning. Knowledge in action: a competence-oriented model, or acquiring and developing key competences. Making academic language visible. Reflecting on teaching and learning: making both teaching and learning visible; making metacognitive strategies explicit to enhance learner autonomy. Student-centred methodologies: cooperative learning, Task-Based Learning, Project-Based Learning, the flipped classroom, Design Thinking, creativity (Ken Robinson and Edward de Bono) and mindfulness. Using ICT and mobile devices to enhance students' learning. How/when to use individual, pair and group work. Communicative approach: accuracy vs. fluency. Error treatment and conceptual accuracy in learning progression: giving students formative feedback. Creating a safe and supportive learning environment: cooperation instead of competition, dealing with errors and mistakes as a natural part of the learning process, emotional education, positive interdependence and group identity in a learning community. Dealing with the five CEFR skills (helpful resources and tasks to teach listening, speaking, spoken interaction, reading and writing). Teaching pronunciation (segmental and suprasegmental aspects), vocabulary, grammar and functions creatively and efficiently. Doing things with words (Pragmatics). Using music, literature and video in CLIL classrooms. Storytelling and Phonics. Language *for* learning: language for classroom management, for interaction and co-construction of knowledge in class. Managing (speaking & lecturing) time: teacher talk vs. student talk; asymmetry in favour of student talk. Managing space in the classroom: motion in space and kinaesthetic intelligence. Mixed-ability classes: tips, strategies and resources to cater for students' different needs, interests and learning styles. Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences. Special needs students: making inclusive education real.
- 2.6. **Assessment in CLIL settings.** Tracking students' content and language learning progression. Assessment criteria, strategies and tools. Formative and summative assessment. Self-assessment and peer-assessment. Using the European Language Portfolio as a self-assessment tool in CLIL classrooms: reflecting on the process of language learning and cultural awareness; linguistic biography and cultural experiences; working on one's own linguistic dossier; the language passport. Using rubrics and students' portfolio assembling samples of oral and written production to track both content and language learning progression. Issues in CLIL assessment: content- or language-focused assessment? Mastery over content or linguistic accuracy? Assessing teaching practice to achieve higher standards in teaching performance.
- 2.7. **Language and culture: language as the embodiment of a culture and worldview.** Making the fourth C (Culture) visible. Making the most of opportunities to cultivate the fourth C. Awareness of self and otherness; from cultural awareness to intercultural understanding and dialogue; global citizenship. Cultural messages encoded in and through language. History, politics, geography, folklore, literature, music, cinema, art, etc. associated with the culture of the vehicular language. Cosmopolitan citizens in a globalised, connected, culturally and linguistically diverse world.

3. The Integrated Language Curriculum (CIL, Currículum Integrado de las Lenguas): bringing languages together at school.

- 3.1 .Why and how to integrate languages in CLIL settings. Theoretical underpinnings: Cummins' principle of 'Common Underlying Proficiency'. Language competence is one, even if it may be embodied in more than one language (L1, L2, L3).
- 3.2. Towards curricular and methodological convergence around language teaching and learning: sharing methodological strategies, working on the five CEFR skills from a communicative and functional perspective.
- 3.3. A genre-based approach to language teaching and learning: towards a map of text typologies and genres in L1, L2 and L3 across the curriculum (including content subjects).
- 3.4. Oral & written skills: working on oral/written comprehension and production skills in the school languages; materials, resources and strategies for the CLIL classroom. Register and linguistic adequacy.
- 3.5. Providing task diversity in the classroom: motivating and cognitively demanding tasks such as research projects, recording a radio or TV programme, making oral presentations in class (individually, in pairs or in groups), interviews, surveys, recording students' oral production, etc.
- 3.6. The importance of reading and the school library as a place of mind and learning. Reading across the curriculum in both content and language subjects. Kinds and purposes of reading at school: intensive vs. extensive reading; reading for pleasure vs. reading to access disciplinary knowledge.

4. The School Language Project (PLC, Proyecto Lingüístico de Centro): towards a shared & holistic vision of language competence across the curriculum.¹²

- 4.1. A holistic approach to students' language competence in a school: diagnosis and context (vehicular languages, languages of instruction, environmental languages, languages at school and at home); identifying overarching goals to improve students' language competence as an essential prerequisite for a better academic performance.
- 4.2. Designing the School Language Programme in CLIL settings: bringing together CLIL education, the Integrated Language Curriculum, the ELP (European Language Portfolio), the School Library Programme and European Education Programmes (Erasmus+).
- 4.3. Content and language teachers' effective pedagogical coordination. Roles in contributing to improving students' language competence (and to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and understanding).

5. Erasmus+ Programme (2014-2020): the pedagogical potential inherent in European Education Programmes in CLIL settings.

- 5.1. From the LLP (Life-Long Learning Programme) to Erasmus+: a simplified architecture structured around three key actions – KA1 (student and staff mobility), KA2 (partnerships for cooperation and the exchange of good practice) and KA3 (policy reform).

¹² The ambitious School Language Project reminds us of a powerful insight by Fernando Trujillo, from the University of Granada, into the importance of the linguistic competence: "La lengua es un elemento fundamental de la identidad del individuo. [...] En las lenguas encontramos pertenencia, cultura y conocimiento colectivo y, al mismo tiempo, espacio personal, intimidad, recogimiento: las lenguas son de todos y también de cada uno." (2010, p. 1) This is why language should figure prominently on the agenda of any education system: "El desarrollo de la competencia en comunicación lingüística es uno de los objetivos fundamentales de cualquier sistema educativo; del éxito de esta tarea depende, en buena medida y entre otras cuestiones, la formación posterior de los estudiantes, su inserción laboral y su participación activa en la sociedad." (2010, p. 1)

- 5.2. The educational potential inherent in Erasmus+ for the School Education, Adult Education and VET Sectors: “Changing lives, opening minds”. Benefits for students, teachers and schools.
- 5.3. The European Development Plan (EDP) for the internationalization of a school. Keys to designing a high-quality EDP connecting teachers and schools across Europe.
- 5.4. Erasmus+ annual call: deadlines, preliminary arrangements (EU Login, PIC, URF), online application, Erasmus+ Mobility Tool, a project’s life cycle (application, implementation, dissemination, evaluation reports and sustainability).
- 5.5. Looking for mobility and partnership opportunities: School Education Gateway, e-Twinning and EPALE.

17.4. A Handful of Conclusions & Challenges for the Future

From the previous detailed anatomy of a teacher training curriculum for successful bilingual education we can draw a handful of fundamental conclusions. For any in-service teacher training programme to be effective, it should take into account the need for constantly upgrading teachers’ language skills in the L2/L3 (a CEFR C1/C2 level is desirable in the long term), since languages are epistemological weapons that help us advance knowledge and we need sophisticated language for sophisticated thinking at school. However, having teachers endowed with a good command of the L2/L3 is not sufficient to push the CLIL agenda forward in Andalusia: a solid, standardized training curriculum for content and language teachers comprising the basics (i.e., a bedrock of facts and understanding) should be implemented across the region through the 32 Teacher Training Centres. Most importantly, training in CLIL theory and practice (with a special focus on disciplinary discourse and ways to deal with text as primary input in CLIL settings) should be an official prerequisite for teachers wishing to teach in bilingual schools.

Furthermore, there appears to be an urgent need to go beyond traditional teacher training models where the expert explains and teachers listen and take new strategies with them into their classrooms. It is necessary to experiment with new training formats that actively engage content and language teachers and have got an optimal impact on their learning process. In this respect, a critical analysis of class practice, job-shadowing, experiential approaches, exchange of good practice and reflexive learning might prove fruitful alternatives. The natural step to take next would be to analyse the impact of training initiatives on teachers and on their classroom practice. Thus, we should look for new synergies, as there is a crucial need to foster interprofessional communities of practice and research that bring together teachers, practitioners, teacher trainers and educators, teacher training advisors, inspectors of education, university professors and researchers to inquire into CLIL and its impact on students’ overall language and academic performance (classroom studies, a genre-based approach, disciplinary discourse, pluriliteracies, etc.). After all, CLIL remains a powerful catalyst for change towards good education. One of the greatest challenges is to design and implement appropriate training paths and initiatives that effectively update teachers’ linguistic and didactic skills, both at the stages of pre- and in-service professional development (i.e., at University and beyond). At any rate, alongside adequate human resources and material investment, a solid teacher training framework remains essential to ensure the sustainability of bilingual programmes in the long term. This is not utopia, but a dream that collaborative action can make come true.

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The Role of Technology in the Development of Materials for Bilingual Education

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Abstract

Currently, technology plays a major role in the development of language learning materials, but these advantages can also be applied to the development of content and language integrated learning materials in the context of bilingual education. There is no doubt that technology supports the individual's learning process and increases learning opportunities outside the traditional classroom. In fact, much of the literature focuses on technology-based materials for L2 learning, but some principles may also apply for bilingual education. This chapter aims to underline the importance of increasing the awareness on teacher digital competence and on the new approaches to education technology. Incorporating technologies into the curriculum, teachers will turn into learning facilitators, helping students discover themselves and their capabilities to learn, develop their skills and competences, and face the new challenges of the 21st century society. Finally, the distinctive features and benefits of technology-based materials for bilingual education are analysed from a double perspective: i) features derived from the type of resources, and ii) pedagogical benefits of technology-based materials for bilingual education.

18.1. Introduction

The proliferation of the use of technology in bilingual education and language learning poses both new opportunities and challenges. In this chapter, it is argued that technology can play an essential role in the development of materials for bilingual education, considering them as anything that can be used to facilitate or improve the integrated learning of content and language (i.e. digital texts, videos, flash cards, games, apps, websites, etc.). This is especially

relevant considering that different learners learn in different ways (Oxford, 2002), so the 'ideal materials aim to provide all these ways of acquiring a language for the learners to experience and sometimes select from' (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 143). In this light, 'materials development' involves all the processes used and followed by teachers who design, produce and/or use materials for bilingual education, including their adaptation, assessment, exploitation and research.

Prior to analysing the key elements related to the development of technology-based materials for bilingual education, however, it is necessary to reflect on teacher digital competence:

The teaching professions face rapidly changing demands, which require a new, broader and more sophisticated set of competences than before. The ubiquity of digital devices and applications, in particular, requires educators to develop their digital competence (European Commission, 2016).

Moreover, the evolution of education technology from the now 'traditional' information and communication technologies (ICT) to new approaches is another opportunity, and the concepts of 'Learning and Knowledge Technologies' (LKT) and 'Technologies for Empowerment and Participation' (TEP) should be taken into account in order to improve both teachers' and students' perceptions towards technology. After reviewing these concepts, this chapter focuses on the distinctive features and benefits derived from technology-based materials for bilingual education, which may create opportunities for meaningful content and language learning.

18.2. Teacher Digital Competence

Nowadays, digital competence is one of the eight competences that young people should have acquired and developed when they finish their compulsory education, according to the Recommendation 2006/962/EC of the European Parliament and Council (2006). In fact, this Recommendation emphasises the importance of the digital competence, as can be seen in the following definition:

Digital competence involves the confident and critical use of Information Society Technologies (IST) for work, leisure and communication. It is underpinned by basic skills in ICT: the use of computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet (European Parliament and the Council, 2006).

Digital competence enhances the possibility to use adequately the wide range of resources available on-line, but also to face the continuous challenges digital technologies entail. Proficiency in the use of digital technologies is seen thus as an unavoidable target, even to the point of equating inability in the use of technologies to a sort of 'illiteracy' in the 21st century society.

Educational policies and standards must then allow students to acquire and develop these skills, which will enable them to have an active role in our current and future globalized society. Consequently, teachers need to be aware that they are teaching students of the digital century and know precisely what they are expected to do, so that technologies are appropriately exploited and implemented at schools. Bearing this in mind, the New European Strategic Framework for Education and Training (ET 2020) 'calls for action to improve the quality and efficiency of education [and] aims at ensuring that the assessment of future skill requirements and the matching of labour market needs are adequately taken on board in education and training planning processes' (OMC Group 'Languages for Jobs', 2012, p. 8).

Until quite recently digital competence training has been, however, underdeveloped due to the diversity of descriptors and approaches. The Common Digital Competence Framework

for Teachers was published in 2013 as part of both the Digital Culture Plan in the School and the Strategic Framework for Professional Teacher Development and related to *The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens* (Vuorikari, Punie, Carretero Gómez & Van den Brande, 2016). This framework was meant to cover all these issues, and it was organized according to five main categories, namely:

1. Information,
2. Communication,
3. Content creation,
4. Safety, and
5. Problem-solving. (INTEF, 2013)

Although this initiative is supported by the European institutions, the constant evolution of technologies demanded further studies and reflection to implement the Framework. In January 2017, the second (updated) edition of this Framework was published with significant changes. One of the most relevant was a more specific definition of the five categories, as shown below:

1. Information and data literacy: identify, locate, retrieve, store, organize and analyse digital information, evaluating its purpose and relevance.
2. Communication: communicate in digital environments, share resources through online tools, connect and collaborate with others through digital tools, interact and participate in communities and networks; Intercultural awareness.
3. Digital content creation: create and edit new content (texts, images, videos...), integrate and re-elaborate previous knowledge and contents, perform artistic productions, multimedia contents and computer programming, know how to apply intellectual property rights and use licenses.
4. Safety: personal protection, data protection, digital identity protection, use of security, safe and sustainable use.
5. Problem-solving: Identify digital needs and resources, make decisions when choosing the appropriate digital tool according to the purpose or need, solve conceptual problems through digital media, solve technical problems, creative use of technology, upgrade own competence and of others. (INTEF, 2017)

Following the structure of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), another necessary innovation was the definition of the competence descriptors according to three levels: A (Foundation), B (Intermediate), and C (Advanced). Furthermore, the development of them is subdivided into six competence levels (A1-C2) for each of the five areas mentioned. In this line:

Each of the 21 competences that have been defined are presented in tabular form including: a brief definition of the competence, descriptors for the three proficiency levels, examples of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the competence, and examples of potential usefulness of the competence for specific purposes, learning, employment, etc. (INTEF, 2017, p. 12)

The European Digital Competence Framework for Educators (DigCompEdu) is now being refined and 'to encourage take-up, it is proposed to refer to proficiency levels using motivating role descriptors' (European Union, 2017). From March to May 2017 all stakeholders and interested parties are invited to contribute to this process, but it can be highlighted that DigCompEdu considers six different competences areas with 23 competences, namely:

- Area 1 focuses on the professional environment;
- Area 2 on sourcing, creating and sharing digital resources;
- Area 3 on managing and orchestrating the use of digital tools in teaching and learning;

- Area 4 on digital tools and strategies to enhance assessment;
- Area 5 on the use of digital tools to empower learners;
- Area 6 on facilitating learners' digital competence. (European Union, 2017).

18.2.1. Digital Content Creation

Special attention needs to be paid to digital content creation as it is the most related area to this chapter devoted to the development of materials for Bilingual Education. The general description of this area according to the Framework is 'Create and edit new digital content, integrate and rebuild prior knowledge and content, make artistic productions, multimedia content and computer programming, know how to apply intellectual property rights and licenses' (INTEF, 2017, p. 24).

This area is subdivided into four main competences: i) developing digital content; ii) integrating and re-elaborating digital content; iii) copyright and licenses; and iv) programming. As can be seen, the development of content is only one of the four competences, since materials can definitely be improved and updated (competences ii and iv), as long as the copyright and licenses are granted (competence iii).

18.3. New Perceptions of Education Technology: from ICT to LKT/TEP

The idea of using 'new technologies' in education started to be popular at the beginnings of the 1980s, when computers became accessible for the general public. By the end of that decade, however, the term 'computer' was replaced by 'information technology' in a clear attempt to move from the tool to the capacity to store/retrieve information. The wider use of the e-mail since 1992 represented a further step in the process, resulting in the evolution of the term to the current 'information and communication technologies' or 'ICT' (Pelgrum & Law, 2003).

Nowadays, ICT are the core of society, and the access to ICT is a crucial matter in schooling and training at the global level. Nevertheless, the high expectations derived from the use of ICT in education (mainly related to a direct increase in students' motivation and/or effectiveness of the teaching-learning processes) have commonly resulted in the use of technology as a mere supplement to the curriculum. A clear example of this situation is the use of PowerPoint in the classrooms: this tool, based on slides projected in a white panel, is the most prevailing technology at the international level (Pérez, Rodríguez & García, 2015); nevertheless, the slides in most cases are used as a sort of 'pre-set blackboards' with no additional attractive of efficiency neither for students nor teachers.

Despite the fact that ICT has not been the panacea for improving education at all levels, it is undeniable that the outbreak of the Internet entailed a revolution in the education systems, which would need to prepare citizens for the interconnected information society. Furthermore, the turn of the millennium has brought different initiatives for innovation in education with a common underlying rationale, as Pelgrum and Law (2003) stated:

1. In the knowledge society, the half-life of knowledge will become progressively shorter;
2. Due to the growing specialization of knowledge, it will be increasingly necessary to work in teams;
3. Citizens need to be prepared for lifelong learning and be introduced to the basics of team- and project-work as part of basic education;
4. Educational innovations in basic education are necessary if these new demands are to be met, and such innovations should have a strong pedagogical focus on student-centred and increasingly student-directed didactical approaches facilitated by ICT, whereby teachers should play a more of coaching role (pp. 20-21).

These changes entail that, unlike the situation in the past century, technologies should more adequately be considered as enablers to develop the necessary competences of the students, so that they are fully capable of carrying out autonomous learning, working in projects, working in teams, etc.

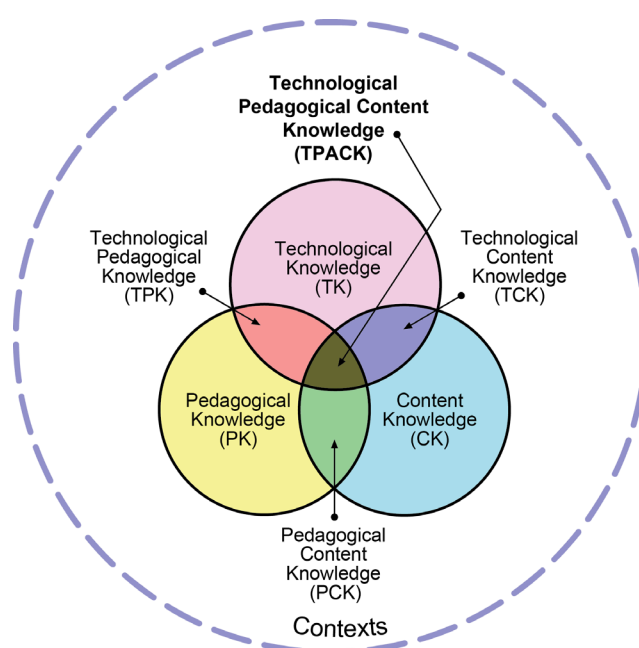
Based on the above, however, there is a new change in the terminology since ICT are not specifically devoted to education. A new term thus has been created: 'Learning and Knowledge Technologies' or LKT (originally developed in Spanish as 'Tecnologías del Aprendizaje y el Conocimiento' or TAC). According to Lozano (2011), LKT consist of orienting ICT towards more educational and training uses, for both teachers and students, with the main purpose of learning more and better. They aim at focussing on the methodology and on the actual uses of technology, and not only on ensuring the mastery of a series of digital tools. This evolution of the term implies that is a matter of know-how and evaluate the possible didactic uses that ICT have for the teaching and learning processes, exploring the use of the tools at the service of the acquisition of knowledge.

Using the synthetic formula developed by Vivancos (as cited in Enríquez, 2012), LKT could also be explained as follows:

LKT = e-learning + knowledge management

One of the theories of constructivist learning that can be easily connected to LKT is the model designed by Mishra and Koehler (2006): Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK). This pedagogical model states that the development of a good use of ICT and LKT in educational settings depends to a large extent on the teacher's knowledge. Consequently, teachers' expertise not only has to include content knowledge, but also a good digital competence and methodological knowledge. These three areas –content knowledge, digital competence/knowledge, and methodological knowledge– help teachers choose the best digital tools to teach the contents, and this process will be supported by the most appropriate didactic methodologies, highlighting the importance of active, collaborative and cooperative learning. Figure 18.1 shows the interrelation among the three key areas of the TPACK model:

FIG 18.1. TPACK model. Source: Mishra & Koehler (2012)



LKT entails that teachers play a key role in applying technologies in the classrooms, and therefore in implementing active methodologies. These two crucial elements allow that students learn content knowledge simultaneously to the development of their own digital competence. In view of the foregoing, LKT is clearly a step further of ICT, as they take advantage of the benefits of technology engaging both teachers and students.

The socialization of the media and the digital sphere (e.g. social networks, social web) has recently led to the creation of a new term: Technologies for Empowerment and Participation (TEP) (Reig, 2012). TEP could be defined as the use of technologies applied in real contexts to foster the participations of citizens, developing their empowerment and social awareness. This new approach to technologies may have a direct impact in education, as students are more and more conscious of their role in the globalized society. Furthermore, TEP should be viewed as a foundation for social cohesion, creating an environment conducive to the exchange of knowledge, ideas, interests and proposals in favour of a shared educational and social purpose.

Considering the constant changes of technologies and their applications in educational settings, there is no doubt that the number of digital resources will continue to grow. In this light, teachers should seek the balance among the different approaches, taking advantage of the benefits of each of them. Moreover, incorporating technologies to the curriculum, teachers will turn into facilitators, helping students discover themselves and their capabilities to learn, develop their skills and competences, and face the new challenges of the 21st century society.

18.4. Distinctive Features and Benefits of Technology-Based Materials for Bilingual Education

Two decades ago Tomlinson (1998) edited the collection 'Materials Development in Language Teaching', but the reference to the contribution of technologies to this process was very limited and there was a significant lack of focus on computer-assisted language learning (CALL) (Johnson, 1999; Levy & Stockwell, 2006; Reinders & White, 2010). The place of technology in language teaching and bilingual education in the 21st century, however, 'needs to grasp the nature of the unique technology-mediated tasks learners can engage in' (Chapelle, 2001, p. 2). Bearing technology in mind, Reinders & White (2010) studied the distinctive features of CALL materials, paying a special attention to contrast CALL materials characteristics versus traditional non-CALL materials, including examples of materials development from an actual, pedagogical and theoretical perspective. In this context, we should highlight that several theoretical approaches have been proposed and reviewed (Reinders & White, 2010), but the challenge remains one of including the last trends (i.e. mobile-assisted language learning or MALL, LKT, TEP) in bilingual education.

In view of the above, and from a pedagogical perspective, it is interesting to note the three-level model suggested by Lamy and Hampel (2007), who stated that pedagogical activities should include the three following parameters:

1. Approach: Scrutinising theoretical frameworks and concepts for their ability to inform task design appropriately.
2. Design: Examining the triangular relationship between task type, tutor or student role and the affordances of the medium based on its materiality.
3. Procedure:
 - a. Thinking about how tasks can be orchestrated in the virtual classroom in order to foster interaction between learners and improve their communicative competence.
 - b. Taking account of research to ensure more frequent participation, release more control to the students, enable collaborative work and a problem-solving approach, and negotiate certain pitfalls. (pp. 71-2)

This section aims at reflecting on the distinctive features of materials for bilingual education based on technology. For this purpose, two types of parameters will be analysed: i) features derived from the type of resources; and ii) pedagogical benefits of materials for bilingual education based on technology.

18.4.1. Features Derived from the Type of Resources

The use of technology in the development of materials for bilingual education necessarily entails a series of features related to the inherent nature of multimedia resources. Bearing this in mind, the following features should be highlighted:

- **Accessibility.** This concept must be considered from a double perspective: i) access independently from time or location; and ii) access for students with special education needs. With regard to the first case, internet-based materials can be used by both educators and learners inside or outside the classroom. The role of the instructor, however, remains essential in the teaching-learning process (Reinders, 2005, White, 2006), as without this support motivation levels tend to decrease and inefficient learning strategies arise (Shirazifard, 2016). With regard to accessibility in the case of students with special education needs, it can be seen as the adaptation of bilingual materials to their specific needs (using assistive technology, such as screen enlargement software, adaptive web design, text-to-speech devices or software, etc.). Furthermore, the possibility of repetition, the use of subtitles and the control in videos or presentations are additional specific features of multimedia resources that may help students with special education needs.
- **Sharing of bilingual materials.** Multimedia resources can continuously be shared and updated, both in the case of the design and development of teachers' own bilingual materials, and in the acquisition and management of quality resources created by other experts. These repositories and databases reduce significantly the development time, as can be used in different contexts and 'recycled' for different subjects and/or integrated units. Technology thus plays a significant role in cost efficiency, for instance in terms of decreasing print materials or reusing materials previously designed. Moreover, portable intelligent devices (i.e. smartphones and tablets) are more and more accessible to students, and the need to devote specific facilities has experienced a dramatic decrease in recent times.
- **Going a step further, open educational resources (OER)** is an emerging construct with significant changes in contrast with previous approaches, which focuses on the legal transmission of materials without copyright-related costs and limitations. According to Wiley (2010), 'open' refers to a free resource that entails four permissions (known as the 4Rs), which include:
 - Reuse: the content can be reused in its unaltered form.
 - Revise: the content can be adapted, translated, adjusted, modified, and even altered.
 - Remix: the original or revised content can be combined or improved with other content in order to create new materials.
 - Redistribute: this is the right to share copies of the original/revised content with others.

Focussing mainly on the permissions, for Tuomi (2006, p. 34) the concept of OER should be considered as 'sources of services' with three levels of openness:

- Level I: OER provide non-discriminatory access to contents (information and knowledge).
- Level II: The services can be enjoyed by anyone with sufficient non-discriminatory capabilities.
- Level III: all users can contribute to OER.

- Assessment and feedback. Connected with the previous ideas, assessment and feedback of bilingual materials based on technology can be easily carried out by both guided and/or spontaneous comments provided by real users (including teachers and learners). This idea is related to what Shermis and DiVesta (2011) see as the ‘changing role of assessment’ (p. 22). In the case of learners this means that the ‘assessment for learning happens in the classroom and involves students in every aspect of their own assessment to build their confidence and maximize their achievement’ (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2006, p. 11). This view of learners as active agents, using assessment and feedback to allow them to improve their learning processes, also helps the teachers who have previously designed or adapted the bilingual materials for technological environments. Furthermore, other instructors/teachers who also use these materials can provide assessment (e.g. rating, surveys) and feedback (e.g. comments, suggestions) to improve teaching-learning processes in bilingual education. This combination of internal and external assessment and feedback – carried out by both learners and teachers – can be easily automated and stored, so that instructors/designers can retrieve the records periodically to review the materials, solve the problems and potential errors, and improve the quality of approach, design and procedure of the bilingual contents and activities developed.
- Storage and retrieval of students’ learning behaviour, performance and records. Unlike traditional learning, when technology is implemented in the teaching-learning process students’ data (including learning behaviour, performance and records, together with results and assessment) can be automatically collected and easily retrieved. Free and open-source learning management systems, education tools, gamification learning platforms, and even social networks used for education, automatically collect students’ learning behaviour (e.g. participation, number of connections, results, time devoted to each activity, etc.) and allow the instructor/manager to retrieve this information and in most cases download it as adjustable and modifiable files (i.e. datasheets, XML, or plaintext).

18.4.2. Pedagogical Benefits of Technology-Based Materials for Bilingual Education

Together with the benefits derived from the type of learning materials, there are numerous pedagogical advantages derived from the use of technology in bilingual education, namely:

- Authenticity. The ability to work with authentic materials in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is one of the characteristics to bear in mind when designing and producing quality materials for bilingual education (Mehisto, 2012). Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that authentic materials do not always lead to authentic learning environments:
Authenticity resides in the teacher-student relationship and in how materials are worked with. Therefore, materials need to incorporate ways of using both the content and language in authentic ways through, for example, assignments that seek to personalise the content and make connections with the student’s world. (Mehisto, 2012, p. 22).
Moreover, authentic materials should also develop intercultural connections, and help students not only to improve their knowledge, but also to raise intercultural awareness (Coyle, 1999). Bilingual materials can thus benefit from technology in a double perspective: i) they may assist in the production of other authentic materials, promoting the idea of learning by discovery and as a type of consciousness-raising activity (Aston, Bernardini & Stewart, 2004); and ii) multimedia materials may correlate with the type of resources learners use in their everyday life (Reinders & White, 2010). This opportunity to use the language in sociocultural meaningful contexts is directly

linked with the idea of situated learning, which entails that the learners have a deeper knowledge of the entire communication domain: participants, situations, mode, tenor, field, etc.

- Interaction and cooperative learning. One of the most significant advantages of materials for bilingual education based on technology is the fact that they foster interaction and language use. For Lantolf (2000), sociocultural theory underlines the importance of interaction in a meaningful context. Furthermore, several CALL programmes 'aim to create this context and opportunities for language use through email or chat communication, or through language exchanges between learners' (Reinders & White, 2010, p. 7). Connected to the idea of interaction, in the case of bilingual education, and more specifically in a CLIL context, learning materials should 'provide some of the language needed for doing peer cooperative work such as terminology and sets of phrases required to manage group work, to foster critical thinking and to test and analyse group work results' (Mehisto, 2012, p. 21). The combination of interaction, cooperative learning and bilingual education based on technology may lead to meaningful learning as well as to arise new opportunities for the teaching-learning process. According to Johnson and Johnson (2014):
By enabling students to cooperate in learning to read, write, and discuss, work with several medias simultaneously, illustrate reports, create multimedia projects, cover relevant events together, create websites and webpages, engage in inquiry projects that take place in any corner of the world, and play multiplayer simulation games requiring them to solve problems and live together peacefully, technology can revolutionize how members of cooperative groups interact and work other. Teachers can use technology to track the work of students and cooperative groups and create learning communities both within the classroom and the world as a whole. (p. 1351).
- Formative assessment. Due to the type of files involved in materials based on technology, automatic and immediate feedback is possible, as well as the implementation of modelling, coaching, and scaffolding assessment (Reinders & White, 2010). Together with this possibility, however, other types of formative assessment should also be considered in the case of bilingual education, including self and peer assessment. Thanks to the use of technology, these processes can be designed so that several parameters can set the most adequate conditions for the assessment of each task (e.g. blind peer review, multiple peer review). This is especially interesting, as numerous authors conclude that assessment for learning significantly improves student achievement, raises standards of education, reinforces teaching practice, and improves students' attitudes and engagement in learning (Black & Wiliam, 2010; Mehisto, 2012; Hattie, 2012).
- Empowerment, autonomous learning and critical thinking. Materials for bilingual education based on technology have the potential to empower learners, which is directly connected to the recent way of 'Technologies for Empowerment and Participation'. The easier accessibility to materials, the role of learners as the centre and as active agents of the teaching-learning process, and an increase in their opportunities to develop metacognitive skills are remarkable benefits that have been previously studied regarding CALL materials (see Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000). This empowerment can also lead to autonomous learning, a key factor in both bilingual education and language learning. Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon and Barch (2004) claim to: substantiate the benefits students gain (i.e., engagement) when practitioners incorporate a more autonomy-supportive motivating style. Few disagree with the goals of supporting other peoples' interests, developing their competencies, and promoting autonomous self-regulation (i.e., supporting autonomy). (p. 167)

The empowerment of learners should also lead to triggering their critical thinking. This is thus in line with Mehisto (2012), who emphasises that quality CLIL materials should foster critical thinking by ‘applying, analysing, evaluating and creating’ (p. 25). In the light of the above, Guthrie (2004) also connects learners’ engagement as including thinking critically about the tasks, writing about them, and using different learning strategies to deal with them and develop new knowledge. Technology also promotes collaborative social opportunities to discuss the tasks and make them more meaningful –also fostering learners’ autonomy.

18.5. Discussion / Conclusion

Significant differences exist between traditional materials and technology-based materials for bilingual education. Nevertheless, this chapter briefly tries to underline that whether or not these differences lead to improved bilingual education depends on how technology is implemented in the teaching-learning processes. Technology will not replace teachers, but can undoubtedly improve the quality of bilingual education. Consequently, teachers need to be more and more aware of their role teaching students of the digital century, and know precisely what they are expected to do, so that technologies are appropriately exploited and implemented. Developing teacher digital competence should be seen thus as an essential requirement for the 21st century teacher, and teacher’s attitudes toward technology should be also improved. In this light, education technology is also evolving from the now ‘traditional’ information and communication technologies (ICT) to new approaches, among which ‘Learning and Knowledge Technologies’ (LKT) and ‘Technologies for Empowerment and Participation’ (TEP) stand out.

Despite the complexity nature of CLIL materials, the distinctive features and benefits derived from technology-based materials for bilingual education create opportunities for meaningful content and language learning. These opportunities may arise from both the type of resources (i.e. accessibility, sharing, assessment and feedback, and storage and retrieval of students’ learning behaviour, performance and records) and the pedagogical benefits (i.e. authenticity, interaction and cooperative learning, formative assessment, and empowerment, autonomous learning and critical thinking).

Furthermore, the role of technology in the development of materials for bilingual education may benefit not only to individual learners, but also to larger groups of learners, to their teachers and to parents and the local community, to be achieved by having regular on-going links with partner schools and their communities in countries in which the additional language is spoken. Consequently, this may generate not only very useful learning of language for communication with the partner groups, but also could stimulate intercultural learning through gaining real intercultural experience.

It is clear that new learning methods associated with technology and bilingual education have an undeniable importance for socioeconomic and cultural life. The actual challenge for educational practitioners consists of taking advantage of all this knowledge to increase meaningful learning, together with an active approach and a deeper engagement of both teachers and learners.

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Initial Teacher Education for CLIL at Primary Education Level in Madrid: Key Issues and Challenges

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs have become increasingly popular in Spain, following the European Union language policy. In the Madrid region, the number of bilingual schools has considerably increased in the last decade. However, despite the wide implementation of these programs, there still exists the need for both Pre-service and In-service Teacher Education for CLIL. This is a real challenge, since the number of credit hours designated to Language Teacher Education in the present Foreign Language Degree has been significantly reduced, following the Bologna Declaration (1999). Hopefully, the recent trend toward implementing English-medium courses at Schools of Higher Education and other European initiatives may provide the opportunity for complementing future teacher development. In this chapter, we aim to ascertain whether the CLIL approach provides complementary foreign language development for prospective teachers, from the perspective provided by two teaching innovation projects that address the issues of interdisciplinary teaching/learning in English-medium subjects and the Erasmus+ International Practicum being carried out at the School of Education, Complutense University of Madrid (UCM). The results of both projects seem to indicate that participants benefit from and appreciate these holistic approaches in achieving the language skills and methodology necessary for the teaching profession.

19.1. Initial Primary Teacher Education for CLIL in the Madrid Autonomous Community

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs have become increasingly popular in Spain, following European multilingual policy (Scott & Beadle, 2014). The Autonomous

Community of Madrid has not been an exception and a CLIL program was first implemented in the 2004-5 school year in 26 state primary schools. Twelve years later more than 350 primary schools partake in the program, involving over 94.000 primary students. In line with Llinares & Dafouz (2010), it can be said that the major aspects of this bilingual program have been its rapid implementation and its multiple dimensions. Students enrolled in the bilingual programs receive at least 30% instruction in English through language and content subjects. At least two content subjects are taught in English, one of them preferably being Natural Science, with the aim that primary students acquire/learn ample knowledge of the target language (Comunidad de Madrid, 2016). In addition, since 1996, there are ten bilingual state Infant/Primary schools with an integrated curriculum in the Madrid region, due to an agreement between the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science and the British Council. The content instruction in English accounts for 40% of the curriculum (Dobson et al., 2010).

Therefore, Initial Education for CLIL has become a challenge for Schools of Education in the region, due to its crucial role in the success of the primary bilingual program (Navés, 2009). However, despite the wide implementation of these programs nationwide, there still exists a need for both Pre-service and In-service Teacher Education for CLIL (Escobar Urmeneta, 2011; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012). In the same vein, Marsh et al (2010) provide a framework for the professional development of CLIL teachers and point out eight key areas that education of CLIL teachers should cover: personal reflection, CLIL fundamentals, content and language awareness, methodology and assessment, research and evaluation, learning resources and environment, classroom management, and CLIL management. Furthermore, as reported by the European Commission (Blondin et al., 1999), both knowledge of methodology, and language skills are of utmost relevance in preparing teachers for the Foreign Language Primary classroom:

“Teachers should be educated in the following domains: proficiency in the target language; description of this language, including comparison with the mother tongue (and/or the majority language of the school); processes of first and second language acquisition; pedagogy for pre-primary and primary education and for language teaching at those levels” (p. 41)

However, the number of credit hours designated to Language Teacher Education in the various aspects of Foreign Language and Didactics has been considerably reduced in the new Teaching Degrees, following the Bologna declaration (1999) that called for a unified European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Parallel to this, there is a recent international trend in Higher Education: “Linked to the demand for English is the rise of English in education internationally as governments introduce English in schools earlier and earlier, as content areas are increasingly being taught in English, as universities teach more courses through English” (Gardner, 2012, p. 250). Hopefully, the recent trend toward implementing English-medium courses at Schools of Education may provide the opportunity for complementing future teacher development (Toledo et al., 2012).

The main objective of the Bilingual Primary Education Degree Program (initiated in 2011-12) at the UCM School of Education is to promote the future job placement of students who graduate, within the network of bilingual schools in the Madrid Autonomous Community. At least 60% of the university courses in this degree program are taught in English by language and content specialists, starting from the first year of the degree. Therefore, the aim is for students to fulfil linguistic and professional teaching competences, in the holistic integrated context of a CLIL approach as they “learn to teach”. One year later, in the 2012-2013 academic year, the Foreign Language Major Degree (*Mención de inglés*) started. Unlike the Bilingual program, the instruction in English is carried out by language specialists and accounts for approximately 20% of the total courses which they start in year 2. The entry requirement for both programs is a B2 level (Common European Framework) and the maximum number of students enrolled is forty in each of them.

Bearing this in mind, and following the implementation of the Bilingual Group and the English Language Major in the Undergraduate Degree in Primary Education at our university, two distinctive Projects for Innovation and Teaching Quality Improvement have been set up in the last few years. This chapter focuses on Pre-service Education for CLIL at the School of Education, Complutense University in Madrid, from the perspective provided by these two teaching innovation projects that address issues of interdisciplinary teaching/learning in English-medium subjects and the Erasmus+ International Practicum.

19.2. Interdisciplinary Teaching for Initial Teacher Education Innovation Project

Students enrolled in the Primary Education Degree are supposed to acquire adequate knowledge, not only of the Primary curriculum areas, but also the interdisciplinary connections that exist among them (Order 3857/2007). Therefore, interdisciplinary collaboration across academic disciplines through joint planning, decision-making, and goal-setting becomes essential in Spanish Schools of Education. Furthermore, a CLIL approach had been adopted by specialists in the different disciplines who teach through the medium of English at our School of Education. As Coyle et al. (2010) and Marsh and Langé (2000) highlight, teamwork between language and content specialist teachers becomes essential in CLIL contexts. Thus, it was necessary to set up a working group where language and content teachers could collaborate and create common lessons as occurs in bilingual primary schools in our region (Dobson et al., 2010).

Since the 2013-14 academic year, three interdisciplinary Projects for Innovation and Teaching Quality Improvement have been put into practice at the UCM School of Education, the third one is still ongoing. All three projects focus on content areas that are taught through English in the Primary Education Degree. The main objective of these projects was to develop collaboration among university professors who instruct in English, providing a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences from different perspectives and disciplines. At the same time, we aimed to familiarize prospective teachers with cross-curricular teaching/learning within a CLIL context.

In the first project, around 75 students and three professors participated in three disciplines: Foundations of Art Education, Didactics of Physical Education and Initial Teacher Education for CLIL. The project then sought to promote collaborative work among teaching staff in four Departments of our School of Education. Three of them were responsible for the instruction of the subjects mentioned above and a fourth one from the Department of Research Methods in Education, designed the data collection instruments. The group was completed with an in-service trainer, an expert on bilingual education, making a total of five team members.

The second project was implemented a year later, in the 2015-16 academic year, and involved more than 100 students. A fourth subject, Educational Psychology, was added. It was decided that the common topic for the 2015-16 interdisciplinary project would deal with Multiple Intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Another English specialist joined the team, which now increased to seven members.

Finally, the third project started in the first semester of the 2016-17 academic year and is still ongoing. In the current project, we aim to look at ICT from a cross-curricular perspective to facilitate CLIL learning (Vlachos, 2009). There are four professors involved in the four disciplines under study: Educational Psychology, Foundations of Art Education, Initial Teacher Education for CLIL and Music in Primary Education, which substitutes Physical Education included previously. Two more English specialists joined along with one more in-service trainer, making a total of ten team members. The number of students who will take part in this year's project is estimated to be 155, enrolled in Years 1-4 of the Primary Education Degree. See Table 19.1 below.

TABLE 19.1. English medium disciplines and groups involved in the 2016-17 project

Subject	Degree year	No. of students
Educational Psychology	1	40
Music in Primary Education	2	40
Foundations of Art Education	3	40
Initial Teacher Education for CLIL	4	35

A third objective of the project was to build a basis, enabling future teachers to collaborate on interdisciplinary tasks, in order to introduce innovation in their classrooms. Throughout the project, students have carried out different interdisciplinary activities, that have been adapted to student levels and needs. Therefore, first year degree students participated in activities to blend the concept of creativity and Multiple Intelligences, mainly visual, musical, intra/inter-personal and kinesthetic intelligences. In the Teaching Primary Physical Education course, the second-year degree students represented the stories behind paintings, which they had previously written, whereas third-year students planned activities on contemporary artists, where they integrate Art Education and English. Finally, fourth year degree students designed didactic units with ICT support, where they integrated the disciplines of Physical and Art Education with other areas of the primary curriculum (Literacy, Physical Education, Music, Arts and Crafts and Science), under the supervision of experienced teacher educators and experts in these subjects. A final objective of the project is to bring the university closer to real classroom situations, and develop an awareness of the reality of bilingual primary schools. With this aim, a two-day workshop takes place every year in which bilingual education classroom teachers come to the School of Education to share their experiences with our students and the university professors who teach through the medium of English.

19.2.1. Project Stages

At the initial stage of the Project, the team members meet to organize the two-day workshop on good practices in bilingual teaching and learning and to plan and design the activities that are going to be carried out in the different disciplines, as well as the specific roles of the classroom professor and other team members. An interdisciplinary approach called the “shared model” (Cone et al., 2009) is chosen, in which two or more subject areas are integrated into the same topic, which in turn make up part of the curricular contents and competences to be developed in the university courses. Afterwards, an implementation stage follows. Firstly, the “Cross-curricular activities for the Bilingual Primary Classroom” workshop takes place at the beginning of the first semester where both content and language bilingual teachers deal with various interdisciplinary topics that have worked well in their CLIL primary classrooms. Then, interdisciplinary activities in the different subjects are implemented, involving more collaborative planning and analysis of the materials to be used for interdisciplinary work. Finally, the evaluation of the project, which serves as a basis for reflection on how well the different components worked, was carried out and future actions were discussed and included in the final project report.

19.2.2. Methods and Results

The methodology used to evaluate the project included mixed methods, ranging from student surveys, to field observations, and written reflections on the teacher’s part. To investigate the students’ perception and learning related to interdisciplinary, pre-and-post questionnaires were administered at the beginning and end of the different courses and served as a basis

for the reflection on the development of the project by the team. Both questionnaires were semi-structured. Open-ended questions were used to obtain a deep understanding of the respondents' views on cross-curricular lessons, such as the students' perceptions about their knowledge on the topic at the beginning and end of the innovation project and details about interdisciplinary training at any level of their education. On the other hand, a Likert-type scale was used for the closed-ended questions, with a 5-point response scale (1 being the lowest and 5 the highest). They covered different topics regarding the role of interdisciplinarity in pre-service teacher education, such as the importance of participating in real cross-curricular teaching experiences, the role of collaboration among professors from different subjects or their views on the importance of this type of activities in their future teaching practices.

Below, we show the students' perceptions of the impact of interdisciplinary instruction on two disciplines: Art Education (third year students) and Initial Teacher Education for CLIL (fourth year students), during the current academic year. For the Art Education class, the students had to plan an activity for the Arts and Crafts primary classroom about contemporary artists of their choice. To do so, they made use of online resources such as MOMA Glossary of Art Terms, Google Art Project, Pinterest and Google Drive to share the work done. The professor in charge of the subject and three English specialists worked together to provide feedback on student activities. On the other hand, Initial Teacher Education for CLIL students had to design a task or a set of cross-curricular activities to teach about a festival (or holiday) in a CLIL class. Project-based learning was used to enable interdisciplinary learning and teaching and the students worked in small groups.

As can be observed in Figures 19.1 & 19.2 below, the results obtained from the final questionnaires showed that the students had a very positive attitude towards interdisciplinary teaching/learning and they were able to make cross-curricular links among the different subject areas. In addition, they expressed great satisfaction with the methodology that has been used in these disciplines and the different interdisciplinary activities that they have carried out for university course work. They also acknowledged the positive peer relationships that they had developed through the project. To some extent their motivation towards these disciplines improved over time. Finally, they stated their intention to implement an interdisciplinary approach in teaching Primary education in their future teaching practice.

FIGURE 19.1. Students' perceptions on the impact of interdisciplinary teaching/learning in the Art Education class

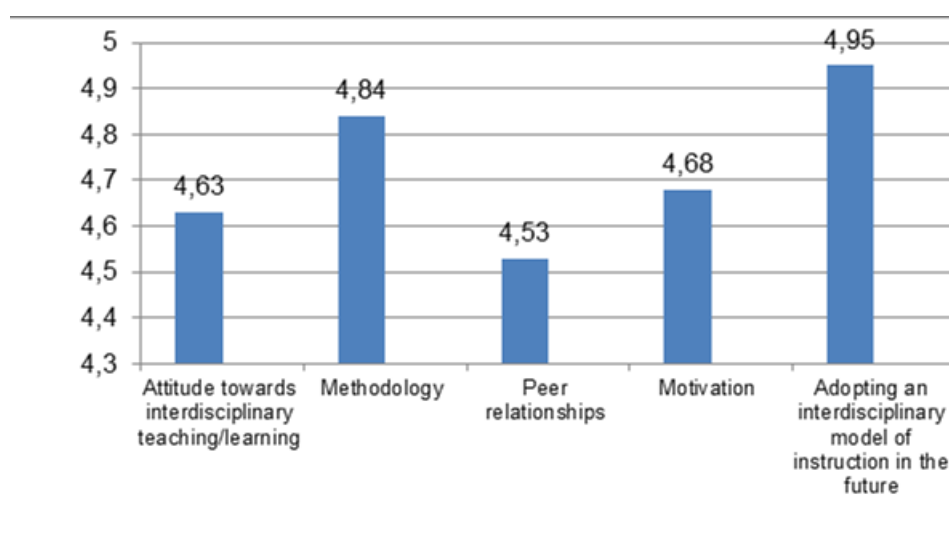
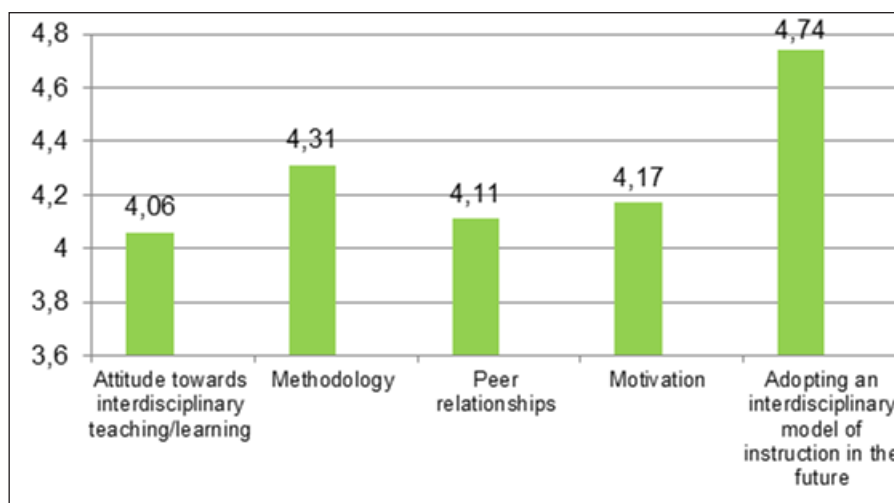


FIGURE 19.2. Students' perceptions on the impact of interdisciplinary teaching/learning in the Initial Teacher Education for CLIL class.



The professors involved in the project also expressed their opinion about their role in this interdisciplinary collaborative project. These are some of their thoughts:

It has been my first experience using an interdisciplinary approach to teaching my subject, and I have really enjoyed it. I think the students had the chance to learn the Multiple Intelligences theory in a more meaningful way (Educational Psychology specialist).

Cross-curricular activities let us understand other colleagues' work and value the importance of other areas in the curriculum. Of course, I have also enjoyed trying out new activities and ideas (Art Education specialist).

To sum up, in this section we have described the nature of teacher collaboration in an interdisciplinary project and pointed out that a collaborative approach to teaching/learning is a quality model for good practice in teacher education.

5.3. Erasmus+ International Practicum Innovation Project

Complementing and benefitting from the aforementioned interdisciplinary experiences, two Projects for Innovation and Teaching Quality Improvement were created, designed and implemented to provide quality academic guidance for Erasmus+ Practicum students. The student-teaching placement in schools is a fundamental stage in teacher education, where general and transversal competences acquired throughout their studies should be applied in a school context through practise teaching. Following *Practicum I and II*, carried out in second and third years of the degree program in the Madrid network of bilingual schools, students may choose the option of doing *Practicum III* in another European country through the Erasmus+ Student-Teaching Program. This is a unique and enriching intercultural experience and takes place in the last semester of the Foreign Language degree programme. These students experience the added dimension of directly observing and doing practise teaching with a variety of methodologies and techniques in another European education system; furthermore, the curriculum is in English or at least partially so, depending on the country. Therefore, they develop their professional competences with a dual focus to enhance foreign language awareness and practise:

- by teaching subjects in English as a first language or an additional language context
- and/or by teaching their mother tongue (Spanish) as an additional language for cultural enrichment in the host country.

TABLE 19.2. Erasmus+ Practicum students participating in the projects

	First project 2015-2016	Second project 2016-17
Number of students	14	11

The focus of the projects is to provide quality educational support before leaving, during and after returning from their internship abroad. A pilot project was run with 13 students in 2014-15. Based on the results of that experience, a major priority in the first project (2015-16), was the successful fulfilment of university requirements the Student-Teacher Placement Report (*Memoria del Practicum*) and the End of Degree Dissertation (*Trabajo Fin de Grado*), through appropriate guidance by the academic tutors at a distance. The development of linguistic awareness and respect for cultural and educational diversity are the underlying strong points of this experience. This in turn opens the door for students to bring innovation back to their home country education system on their return. Students developed competences in their mother tongue, foreign language and intercultural awareness as students shared cultural/educational aspects of their own language by teaching some language lessons in the host country. To successfully prepare students and efficiently measure outcomes of our proposals, team members from different departments applied their expertise: three English Department academic tutors for Bilingual Education Degree students; Erasmus+ Coordinator; Vice-Dean for International Relations; one member of the Department of Education and School Management, who was responsible for the student orientation on European Education Systems; one member from the Department of Research Methods in Education for the design and analysis of questionnaires before and after the Erasmus+ practicum; Library Director: appropriate referencing and searching for bibliography on educational topics.

The second project (2016-17) has been enhanced by centering on new technologies (Digital Competence) and inclusive education (Social and Civic Competence), these being aspects of European education systems that previous Erasmus students observed and found interesting, relevant and conducive to a modern constructive education system. Bearing these new aspects in mind, two new team members were included from the Department of Education and School Management, who have contributed to orienting students on the Universal Design for Learning, which encompasses inclusive education and new technologies for the classroom. Finally, the study also includes a focus on a *Competencia Europeista*, an important “cohesive element” (Asenjo, 2015, p. 35), as students learn (knowledge, skills and attitudes) through developing key competences and an awareness of diversity in various European educational environments. The coordinators of these innovation projects found this to be essential in forging a quality progressive European education system.

A CLIL approach is used in monitoring the content and language of students in all stages, as they participate in the project activities and construct their final Report and Dissertation. Students have English speaking academic tutors/mentors both at university and in their school placement. The first opportunity for bridging the intercultural gap was the adaptation of guidelines (published in Spanish) for both requirements to be written by students in English. Distance was another difficulty to be overcome, since Erasmus+ students cannot be directly observed and guided by their tutors, like those doing their student teaching in Spain. The overall framework, materials used and experience provided an authentic context for developing the competences of Foreign Language and Intercultural understanding and Cultural Awareness and Expression

(Byram, 1997). The project objective is to guide them through objective reflective practice to enable emergence from the “learning to teach” to the “teaching to learn” stage of professional development.

19.3.1. Project Stages

Each of the projects required four stages of development to ensure quality experience and results. In Stage I, the team of UCM professors, tutors and collaborators designed and developed the materials necessary for the Seminars to be held before and following the international student-teaching experience. A series of informative and interactive seminars were then designed and carried out by the Erasmus tutors and team members. These seminars, required for TFG and Practicum tutoring by the university, are all the more necessary for Erasmus+ student-teaching and gathering information and data for completing their final projects.

Stage 2 is the implementation of the project with students. The previously planned student-centred interactive seminars and workshops are carried out. One Seminar focuses on education systems in Europe, and how to search for pertinent information about the country and school for their Practicum Report and Dissertation by using officially recognised European websites, and thus enhance their learning experience before departure. In other seminars, they are introduced to the idea of keeping a student teacher reflective diary and creating a portfolio, UCM required elements for observation and data collection. After discussing these elements openly with their own proposals, the Erasmus+ students discuss and are provided with an objective educational focus, researched and adapted from student-teacher reflective journals requirements at a variety of European universities, and focusing on UCM guidelines. This is also considered to be a very important tool to develop a teaching-learning awareness. The cultural dimension is another point for reflection, to promote a positive attitude and emphasize the personal responsibility necessary to participate in international education exchanges in schools. Our educational proposal is to improve intercultural understanding and communication in Europe, as students share their culture, educational context and development, while benefitting from that of the host culture. In the latest project, students participated in a seminar/workshop, prepared by a team member and specialist in Universal Design for Learning (<http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl/whatisudl>). This was included to enhance student-teacher preparation, focus on new technology and inclusive education and fulfil the European key competences for the Digital and Social and Civic Competences.

Stage 3 was the Erasmus+ Student-Teaching itself, following exhaustive preparation, reflection and sharing of ideas among students in the previous stages. Besides writing their daily reflective journal and to bridge the distance gap of not being able to observe and offer direct guidance to students, students fill out a template (see Table 19.3), based on their reflective journal entries, and send it every two weeks online to the academic tutor for remarks and feedback. Direct tutoring is carried out by emails or online direct tutoring.

A new feature in the present project is inspired in ICT. Students will film the school setting with all its components indoors and outdoors, to be narrated by them and shared with classmates and project team members on their return.

The final stage 4 of the project consists of a final post-Erasmus+ Seminar for sharing and reflecting on various aspects of their experiences abroad. Topics of discussion include the living and working context in the host country, along with its education system, and a reflection on their perception of their own culture during and following the Erasmus+ student-teaching. The whole purpose is to develop an awareness of good practice, self-evaluation and educational values through intercultural understanding. The peer support experience through interactive seminars, the development of common objectives, sharing ideas in an online forum and finally

presenting their TFGs in a joint session are added dimensions for enhancing learning through critical reflection about “their own learning to teach process”.

TABLE 19.3. Template for active observation and reflection

1. Observe and objectively explain: a. the teaching aids, resources, new technologies, methods used b. the activities, games, projects
2. Describe teacher-student relationships, attitudes towards learning/teaching.
3. Whole school projects and interdisciplinary activities.
4. Identify problems in the teaching-learning context. What solution would you propose to solve some problems identified in the teaching learning process?
5. Identify the successful aspects of teaching different subject areas. Comment on types of resources and their effectiveness. Contrast with what you have observed in your previous student teaching in Spain.
6. What approach and materials are used for the diverse needs of students? Inclusive education.
7. Define teaching and learning process and how they are fulfilled through the curriculum.
8. Identify the characteristics of a good, interesting, creative, and effective teacher.
9. Cultural differences observed in classroom/education system.

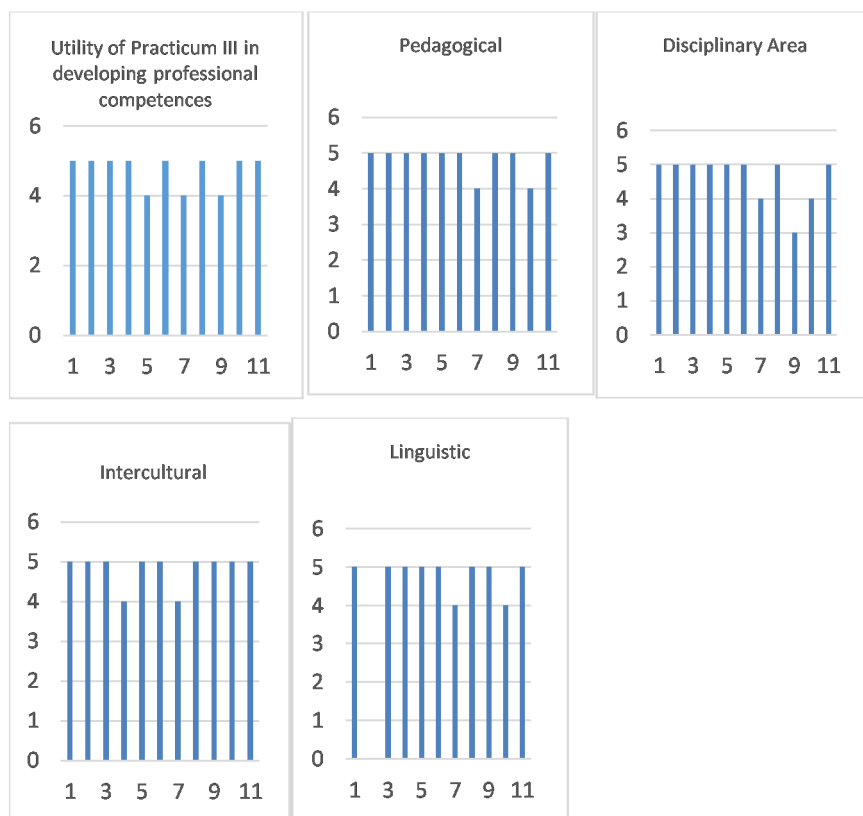
19.3.2. Methods and Results

Data were collected from a wide range of materials: pre- and post-questionnaires, surveys and activities used in the interactive seminars before leaving, the active observation reflective diaries, photos, videos and templates during the student teaching, and the Student-Teaching Report and Final Dissertation following the Erasmus+ Practicum. The Practicum Evaluation Questionnaire, in which there were 40 items with a 1-5 Likert type scale (1 being the lowest and 5 the highest value), provided quantitative results. The open-ended questions allowed students to express themselves about various aspects of the learning-teaching experience and provided qualitative data. All materials used were analysed and interpreted by the members of the Innovation Project. It also included qualitative analysis of Student Teaching Report content and topics chosen for the Final Dissertation.

Students gathered information and experience about the methods and techniques for teaching a variety of curricular areas in the classroom in another European education system, the groundwork for selecting a topic for students' final dissertation and developing their didactic units for their Report. Lesson planning and Final Dissertation topics reflected the influence of the new contexts for learning-teaching: Project Based Learning; The Magic of Art; Spanish Language and Culture; Planning across Subject Areas; Visible Learning and Self-regulation; Assessment; Equality and Opportunity from Early Childhood; Influence of Cooperative Learning on Academic Achievement; Performing Arts at a Reggio Emilia school; and Life Long Learning Skills.

Analysis of all data show that students were able to take optimal advantage of the student-teaching experience in a foreign country by following the guidelines and orientation provided in the preparatory seminars. In the foreign country, they developed strategies for independent learning and active participation in the construction of their own knowledge.

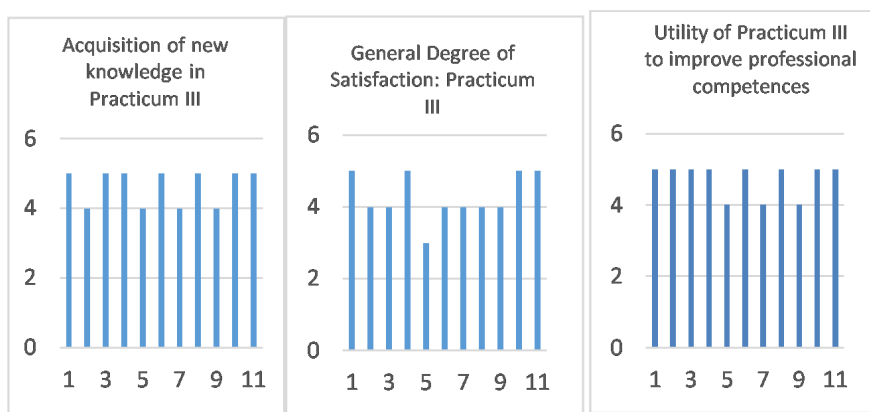
TABLE 19.4. Improvement of degree competences through Practicum III



Legend: Responses from 11 students (horizontal axis) on a 1-5 Likert scale

Most students found the reflective diary to be most useful and they felt an improved level of observation, reflection and responsibility, due to the guidelines provided. Open ended questions asking for feedback from students indicate that they felt the workload to be overwhelming, since they have to simultaneously complete *Memoria/Practicum* and *TFG* in a short period, while doing their student-teaching. This is also true for students who do not go abroad, and it is suggested that they create a didactic unit for the *Memoria*, to be used as action research to report on directly in their *TFG*.

TABLE 19.5. Survey results



Legend: Responses from 11 students (horizontal axis) on a 1-5 Likert scale

The personalized virtual teaching/practicing tools provide students full support. Good practice in “tutorial action” through the innovative system of guiding at a distance is also beneficial and complementary as students’ progress “from learning to teach to teaching to learn”.

19.4 Conclusions

Throughout the degree program, these Innovation Projects have been designed to help students construct their learning process for effective future teaching, while fulfilling their undergraduate degree requirements. Students in first to third year develop their language and subject competences through lead-in activities, and learn to structure and carry out collaborative work for their own future teaching practice. These interdisciplinary activities enhance the holistic focus for contemporary teaching approaches and are required to fulfil university competences. In fourth year, they work on lesson planning and how to implement a CLIL approach to prepare them for student-teaching. This connects immediately with student teaching in Practicum III, the second Innovation Project, and supports students in their “learning to teach process”. It also connects theory and practice: guiding them to create a dynamic teaching/learning process for putting acquired knowledge into action.

In addition, the stakeholders in the projects reported on here are the experts in and outside the university in this teacher education model: UCM teacher educators, bilingual school teachers, in-service trainers, Doctoral candidates, Post-doctoral researchers, and the Head Librarian. Some of these are ex-students from this university who come back to collaborate and enrich the degree program as education professionals. Experts available at the UCM are an important resource for the development of Information Technology, library skills and innovative learning.

These projects include a variety of methods for developing an awareness of learning-teaching parameters, such as reflective diaries, teaching techniques, resources and portfolios for constructing a meaningful learning experience, self- and peer-assessment and finally the multiple dimensions of evaluation. Through these project requirements, it was discovered that students needed to build their academic writing skills, which is an important component of CALP (Cognitive Academic Learning Proficiency). Thus, the university has improved its support in preparing students to fulfil university requirements and competences for future jobs and/or studies.

The on-going Internationalization of the University is a two-way process. Firstly, students have contact with and are enriched by the incoming Erasmus students in Spain during the degree program. Secondly, in fourth year UCM Erasmus Student-teachers may go to different European countries to learn to teach and teach to learn. They initiate language development and culture awareness through university degree courses, and finally can apply the intercultural awareness and respect through the Erasmus experience of living and working abroad in an educationally enhancing context. On the other hand, the professors from different departments offer their perspectives and experience from teaching through English. They have had to reconstruct their subject matter and teaching methodology, and have reflected on and shared these discoveries and ideas on the learning-teaching processes in a CLIL context with project members, enhancing the project itself. They also discovered that they developed empathy with students participating in CLIL learning experiences with the tri-dimensional challenges in language, content and cognition for effective learning. Making learning visible in English has been an important objective and result of the activities and projects carried out.

To conclude, collaboration among faculty team members has provided structured systematic guidelines for supporting students with continuous feedback. These are fundamental for innovation and academic success in the field of education.

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APPENDIX 1

Innovation Projects Titles and Team Members

TABLE 19.1. Interdisciplinary Teaching for Initial Teacher Education

<p>Proyectos de Innovación y Mejora de la Calidad Docente Vicerrectorado de Evaluación de la Calidad (PIMCD) 166/2014 <i>“Initial Teacher Education in curricular areas that are taught through the medium of English: cross-curricular activities for Primary (Years 3 & 4)”</i></p> <p>Project co-ordinator: María Dolores Pérez Murillo, Dept. de Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura (DLL). Team members: Noemí Ávila Valdés . Dept. Didáctica de la Expresión Plástica (DEXPLAS) María José Camacho Miñano. Dept. Didáctica de la Expresión Corporal y Musical (EXPMYC). Rafael Carballo Santaolalla, Dept. de Métodos de Investigación y Diagnóstico en Educación (MIDE) and Rosa González García (in-service trainer).</p> <p>PIMCD 124/2015 <i>“Initial Teacher Education for CLIL: Cross-curricular activities to develop Multiple Intelligences in the Primary classroom”</i></p> <p>Project co-ordinator: María Dolores Pérez Murillo (DLL). Team members: Noemí Ávila Valdés (DEXPLAS) María José Camacho Miñano. (EXPMYC). Rafael Carballo Santaolalla (MIDE), Irene Solbes Canales. Dept. de Psicología de la Evolutiva y de la Educación (PEE), Anna Steele (DLL) and Rosa González García (in-service trainer),</p> <p>INNOVA-DOCENCIA 10/2016-2017: <i>“Initial Teacher Education for CLIL: A cross-curricular approach with ICT support”</i></p> <p>Project co-ordinator: María Dolores Pérez Murillo (DLL). Team members: Noemí Ávila Valdés (DEXPLAS) María José Camacho Miñano & Gabriel Rusinek (EXPMYC). Rafael Carballo Santaolalla (MIDE), Irene Solbes Canales (PEE), Diego Rascón & Katherine Smith (DLL), Magdalena Custodio (University of la Rioja) and Rosa González García (in-service trainer)</p>
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TABLE 19.2. Erasmus+ International Practicum Innovation Projects

<p>PIMCD 102/2015: <i>“School internship in the formation of future teachers for bilingual education through the European Erasmus+ program: New contexts, new models, new destinies”</i>. Project Coordinator, Erasmus Coordinator, Academic Tutor: Marina Arcos (DLL). Team Members: Vice-Dean of International Relations: Jesús Casado; Carmen Alba, Dept. Didáctica y Organización Escolar (DOE); Mónica Fontana (MIDE); UCM academic tutors: Anna Steele & Cecilia Bradshaw (DLL).</p> <p>INNOVA-DOCENCIA 166/ 2016-17: <i>“New multidimensional tools for developing professional competences in Erasmus+ student teaching for future primary teachers in bilingual education”</i>. Project Coordinator, Erasmus+ Coordinator and Academic Tutor: Anna Steele (DLL). Team members: Vice-Dean of International Relations: Jesús Casado; Carmen Alba, Ainara Zubillaga, José Sánchez (DOE); Mónica Fontana (MIDE); Head Librarian: Juan Carlos Domínguez. (DLL) Academic Tutors: Marina Arcos, Jaime García & Esteban López.</p>

An Insight into CLIL in the Canary Islands Autonomous Community: Key Aspects and Students' Achievements

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Abstract

The intent of this preliminary research was to gain insights into the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in The Canary Islands Autonomous Community, where since 2004-2005 many primary and secondary schools have been gradually adopting this methodology in the classroom. Hardly any research has focused attention on this context. This study attempts to fill this void in the literature by examining three different issues. Firstly, CLIL learners' performance in the English test in the University Admission Examination was compared with the performance of their non-CLIL counterparts; secondly, the variety of content-subjects taught through the medium of English was examined; and finally, attention was centered on the number of academic courses with any CLIL subject that the participants in the study had had. First year university learners from three different degrees who had been enrolled in English as a foreign language instruction (EFL) and CLIL completed a questionnaire designed ad hoc. These learners belonged to the first and second generation of CLIL instruction. The data gathered corroborate previous findings and identify some of the features of CLIL instruction in its first decade of existence in this region. The chapter concludes with several implications for research and practice.

20.1. Introduction

A growing body of research has reported the paramount role of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in providing European citizens with a knowledge of English and putting an end to the shortcomings of traditional foreign language teaching (Bruton, 2013; Coyle, 2015;

Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Graddol, 2006; Lasagabaster, 2008; Llinares & Whittaker, 2010). As Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2010, p. 436) described, CLIL teaching appeared as “a European solution to a European need”. Since the mid-nineties CLIL has been gaining prominence throughout Europe and is increasingly acknowledged as a “change agent” to turn traditional monolingual learning environments into bilingual ones (Coyle, 2013, p. 244).

What makes CLIL so attractive in current foreign language pedagogy is that the curricula of the content subjects is expected to give the foreign language (FL) a communicative purpose so “in this sense CLIL is the ultimate dream of Communicative Language Teaching (e.g. Brumfit & Johnson, 1979) and Task-Based Learning (e.g. Willis, 1996) rolled into one: there is no need to design individual tasks in order to foster goal-directed linguistic activity with a focus on meaning above form, since CLIL itself is one huge task which ensures the use of the foreign language for authentic communication” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 3).

In Spain, where students’ performance in English has remained far below expectation, as the literature has amply demonstrated (González Gándara, 2015; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015; Ruiz Gómez, 2015; Trujillo, 2013), CLIL has been welcome by the educational authorities in all the Autonomous Communities. This paper, focused on The Canary Islands Autonomous Community, aims at presenting relevant information regarding: (a) the differences in performance in the English test in the University Admission Examination between students who have received CLIL instruction and students who have not, (b) the content subjects which are actually taught in primary and compulsory secondary education, and (c) the average number of academic courses within the CLIL programme that the first and second generation of CLIL students have had.

In order to analyze the foregoing issues, the present chapter will review the existing literature and afterwards will describe the research conducted. This chapter is organized in five main sections, in addition to the present introduction. Section 20.2 focuses on the evidence provided by studies carried out in different contexts of the benefits the CLIL format has shown to have in the different dimensions of the target language. Section 20.3 explores the complex issue of the heterogeneity of CLIL programmes and puts forward the relevance of having a picture of what actually happens in the constantly changing bilingual contexts. Section 20.4 presents the empirical study and, finally, Section 20.5 offers the discussion and conclusion.

20.2. CLIL Instruction: Target Language Gains

CLIL has become a fundamental part of modern language teaching. As Heindler (1998, p. 8) explained almost two decades ago, although language is not the “designated subject” in the interplay of the CLIL classroom, there are indeed language-related objectives apart from the content-related ones. Bearing in mind that CLIL learners carry on with their regular foreign language programme alongside their CLIL sessions and thus the amount of exposure to the FL is higher than their mainstream peers’ (Muñoz, 2015), it is to be assumed that they will achieve higher levels of proficiency in English (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Evidence of the superiority of students under CLIL provision in the different language skills is included in a large number of studies that have examined the comparison between CLIL and non-CLIL formats.

In accordance with the available empirical data, and as Ruiz de Zarobe (2015) points out in her comprehensive overview of CLIL-related research outcomes, reading comprehension comes first in the list. The dominance of this skill over the others may be due to the fact that the CLIL setting gives learners “additional reasons for reading” (Dalton-Puffer, 2008, p. 6) and consequently more opportunities to enhance this skill. Specifically, vocabulary seems to be the language aspect which receives most attention, and therefore CLIL learners usually develop a larger passive lexicon than their non-CLIL counterparts. In the longitudinal study conducted with a total of 1,305 compulsory secondary education students in The Netherlands, Admiraal,

Westhoff & de Bot (2006) showed that CLIL students obtained a significantly higher score for the reading comprehension skill, measured using the 50-multiple choice question national final examinations for English for intermediate general secondary education. Jiménez-Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009), for their part, focused on receptive vocabulary size and, although with a more reduced sample and a different participant profile –sixth grade primary education students from two northern regions in Spain–, also observed more favourable results for CIL instruction than for the traditional one. In the same vein, the study conducted by Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafat-Ripoll and Catrain-González (2015) with 87 compulsory secondary education Spanish-Catalan students, offered evidence of a better performance by CLIL students in the reading comprehension tests.

The consistency characteristic of results concerning the reading skill is not present in those corresponding to the listening skill. Lasagabaster (2008) investigated 198 secondary education students in the Basque Country who were divided into three groups: those who had had English as a subject, those who had received CLIL instruction for a year and those who had received it for two years. He discovered that the latter group outstripped the other two in the listening test. Conversely, in the study undertaken by Prieto-Arranz et al. (2015), CLIL students performed better when tested by means of a piece of news-based exercise, but not when tested by means of a picture-based activity. Likewise, Pérez Vidal and Roquet (2015) provided evidence in their longitudinal research conducted with 100 of Catalan/Spanish bilingual EFL learners against the supremacy of the CLIL cohort in the listening skill, specifically, in a dictation test.

Concerning the productive skills, the speaking skill has been more often the focus of attention than the writing skill. Strong support has been lent to the ameliorating effect of CLIL methodology on particular features. The data obtained by Admiraal et al. (2006) in their study –mentioned above– demonstrated that CLIL students made greater gains in oral proficiency and pronunciation than the non-CLIL group. Likewise, Lasagabaster (2008) –referred to above– discovered that the group who had received CLIL instruction for longer outstripped the other two in the five scales of the speaking test they completed: pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, fluency and content. However, the findings of other studies have not been so conclusive concerning fluency and pronunciation. In the study by Rallo Fabra and Juan Garau (2015), undertaken with 43 secondary school learners in a bilingual Spanish-Catalan context, no differences either in fluency or in the pronunciation of English vowels between the CLIL and the non-CLIL strand were noted. Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex and García Lecumberri (2009) detected in their study with 28 Basque–Spanish bilingual secondary school learners that there were no statistically meaningful differences in the degree of foreign accent between CLIL and non-CLIL participants.

Research examining the development of the writing skill in CLIL settings is not as abundant. Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) administered a free writing to two groups of students, CLIL (39) and non-CLIL (47), registered in two Austrian upper-secondary engineering colleges and found that the CLIL cohort surpassed the non-CLIL cohort particularly in grammar, vocabulary and pragmatic awareness. The study by Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) corroborated these findings. The participants, 161 secondary education students from the Basque country, were enrolled in three different English programmes, namely, a conventional EFL programme, a programme in which students started to receive Social Science in English at the age of 14, and a third one which students had Social Science and Modern English Literature in English also from the age of 14. The written competence was examined through a given topic and results of the analysis showed that the students in the more intensive CLIL modality obtained significantly higher scores than their non-CLIL counterparts in vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics (punctuation, spelling and the use of capitalisation). However, in the two studies described, there is also evidence of less positive results for the CLIL cohort for aspects that go beyond the sentence level (i.e., cohesion and coherence, paragraphing or genre). This mixture of results was also identified by Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau and Salazar-Noguera (2015) in their longitudinal study with 45 Spanish-Catalan bilingual secondary education students. Their data, corresponding to a timed composition on a

set topic elaborated by students at different times, revealed overall higher written competence (complexity, accuracy and fluency) for CLIL learners over the three year-period under study, but the results in the holistic assessment (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics) were not exceptionally good at any research time, with all the items receiving scores within the fair-to-poor range. These deficiencies may be the consequence of the usual lack of writing practice opportunities in content lessons (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015).

As observed in this section, despite the undoubtedly positive outcomes in the language development of CLIL students, the issue of exactly which differences can be noticed in the performance of students under CLIL provision and students under traditional learning requires further investigation.

20.3. The Heterogeneity of CLIL Implementation

CLIL can take diverse forms in a wide variety of contexts across different educational levels (Coleman, 2006; Marsh, 2002; Nikula, Dalton-Puffer & Llinares, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2016). The flexibility of its implementation regarding length of programmes, age of learners, type and amount of target language use, the choice of content subjects as well as the degree and depth of content (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Rimmer, 2009; Smit, 2007; Wolff, 2005) has led to the existence of a broad spectrum of programme alternatives even within the same country (Coyle 2015, p. 86). This is the case of Spain, where a decentralized educational system has allowed the adoption of region-specific policies.

Any non-language related subject can be taught through the medium of English in Primary and Secondary Education, and the choice of curriculum subjects varies across contexts and across schools. The general tendency has been to offer 1 or 2 subjects per academic year, but the description of the most common subjects actually taught in schools varies depending on the authors that make the statement. Ruiz de Zarobe (2008), for example, refers to Social Sciences, Science, Music and Technology as the most common ones for compulsory secondary education; Fernández-Costales and Lahuerta (2014) list Science, Arts, History and Maths for primary and secondary education. In one particular sample with students of 4th year secondary from four different schools in the Basque country, the subjects studied in English were History, Sciences, Computer Science, Religion, Classical Culture, or Modern English Literature (Lasagabaster, 2008). In another secondary school also in the Basque country, the range of subjects taught covered English literature, Classical Culture, RE, Science, Biology, Geography, History and Drawing (Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex & García Lecumberri, 2009). The justification for such arbitrariness lies in the availability of teachers with a suitable command of the English language (Gierlinger, 2007).

But the inherent heterogeneity of CLIL instruction also has its drawbacks. The lack of a shared framework “makes it a challenge to draw generalized conclusions about CLIL” (Nikula, Dalton-Puffer & Llinares, 2013, p. 73) and several researchers have referred to its diversity with a negative connotation using expressions like “convenient vagueness” (Bruton, 2013, p. 588), and “ambiguity of the scope of CLIL” (Cenoz, 2013, p. 392). Besides, it is not still clear to what extent foreign language learners’ competence will benefit from dealing with the academic genre of particular subjects (Bruton, 2013).

Another relevant aspect which derives from CLIL flexibility is the non-continuity of the same content-subjects throughout the curriculum, which has led to (a) different subjects being taught in English in different academic years and (b) students getting in contact with particular genres in English that they will probably never see again. An important question is raised: Is it really worthwhile incorporating genres in the CLIL programme that will disappear the following year? The answer to this question still needs to be found by the research community.

In this paper I will look at two of the factors of this distinctive feature: the choice of content subjects and the length of the programmes.

20.4. The Study

As shown in the preceding sections, research on CLIL has been on the rise in the last 15 years in Europe. Spain in particular has invested a great deal in CLIL implementation, development and research. However, the need for more research has been noted by several scholars (Breidbach & Viebrock, 2012; Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter, 2014; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015), since many questions remain unanswered and some groups of learners are hardly represented in the literature. Learners in the Canary Islands Autonomous Community are a case in point. The current study, framed in a broader research endeavor, intends to make a contribution in this direction by addressing three of the lacunae identified and presenting data corresponding to learners of the Canary Islands Autonomous Community.

The first issue this chapter will pay attention to is CLIL learners' performance in the English test in the Spanish University Admission Examination. In light of the relevant role of this examination in students' academic life (see e.g. Amengual-Pizarro & Méndez García, 2012; Arnaiz-Castro (in press); Bueno Alastuey & Luque Agulló, 2012) I consider it fundamental to have data that confirm or reject the influence that CLIL instruction can have on their marks. Overlooking this matter entails neglecting an essential part of the Spanish education system. If CLIL has arrived to help students in their English learning process, it makes sense to expect that the positive effects are manifested in the scores they achieve in this examination.

The second and third issues this chapter will center on are closely interrelated. The second one concerns the content-subjects taught under CLIL provision. Until now no account has been provided about the subjects which actually get taught in English either in primary or compulsory secondary education in a particular region. I find it important to explore this line of inquiry as I believe bridges should be built between the point of departure of the CLIL approach and the present time. The need to address the heterogeneity of CLIL is well documented (Bruton, 2013; Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter 2014; Dalton-Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo, & Nikula, 2014; Lasagabaster, 2008), as well as the importance of having data which shed light on what CLIL "looks like" in practice (Bruton, 2011 p. 524). The third issue is related to the number of courses in which the participants in this study have received CLIL instruction. Schools have been asked by the Administrations to guarantee the continuity of the content-subjects taught, but to date there is no evidence available of this continuity.

The three specific questions this preliminary study sought to answer were: (a) do learners who have received CLIL instruction perform better in English in the University Admission Examination than learners who have not?; (b) which content subjects do students report to have been taught through the medium of English in both primary and secondary education?; and (d) what is the number of academic courses in which learners report to have received CLIL instruction?

20.4.1. The Research Context

The Canarian autonomous government set up an experimental programme (Active Foreign Language Learning) in the academic year 2004-2005 through which nine state primary schools incorporated immersion methods in English under the CLIL methodology umbrella and they have grown exponentially since then (Frigols Martín & Marsh, 2014). In 2005-2006 the programme expanded to secondary schools and currently involves 353 primary schools and 104 secondary schools. As regards programme characteristics, according to Order of 11 June 2010 and Order of

7 February 2011 (Consejería de Educación y Universidades. Gobierno de Canarias), in Primary Education, learners need to have at least one hour per week of non-linguistic subject content delivered through English. The Administration recommends initiating the implementation of this dual focused educational approach from year 1 (ages 6 and 7), although each school will decide when to do it according to its characteristics and resources. Likewise, in Secondary Education, learners need to have at least one hour per week of non-linguistic subject content delivered through English in the years the school establishes, although again the Administration recommends starting in year 1 (ages 12 and 13).

The degree of voluntariness regarding the participation of students in this type of instruction has varied. In Primary Education, all students have always been included; in some Secondary Schools there has been pre-selection, in others students have had the possibility of deciding whether to get involved in the programme or not, and in others it has reached all learners. From academic year 2016-2017 onwards, however, CLIL instruction is for all learners without exception in those secondary schools where it is incorporated (Resolution 31/08/2016, Consejería de Educación y Universidades. Gobierno de Canarias).

20.4.2. The Sample

For the purpose of this study I considered two sets of data. The first set corresponds to a group of 178 university students enrolled in the first year of the Primary Education degree and the second set, to 173 university students enrolled in the first year of either the Translation or the Modern Languages degree. In both cases, students completed a survey on their anxiety and their motivation to learn English. The results of that part of the research can be found in Arnaiz-Castro (2016) and Arnaiz-Castro and Medina Suarez (in press). Part of the information gathered through the accompanying background questionnaires has been used to answer the questions formulated in this research.

In the first sample set, 30 of the students had received CLIL instruction in either primary or compulsory secondary education; and in the second set, the number of CLIL learners increased to 59. The relevance of this preliminary research lies in the fact that the participants were the first and the second generations of CLIL students to arrive at university. It was when these participants were doing year 5 in primary education that the pilot CLIL programmes were launched. With the aim of trying to reduce the number of differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups, those learners with a greater than average exposure to the English language were excluded from the sample.

20.4.3. Research Instruments

As described above, the instrument used with both sample sets was the background questionnaire that students completed in two previous studies on affective factors and which was comprised of 18 items. In the present study, I will focus only on those items which enquired into participants' marks in English in the Spanish University Admission Examination and into participants' contact with CLIL, which made a total of seven.

20.4.4. Procedure

The same procedure was followed in the three Faculties participating in the study. Permission was requested from the corresponding deans before administering the questionnaires to participants, who completed them in their own classrooms.

20.4.5. Data Analysis

In order to find out the difference in students' scores in the English test in the Spanish University Admission Examination, two independent-sample t-tests were run. As the other section of the questionnaires contained open-ended questions in which CLIL students were asked about some characteristics of the CLIL instruction received, the researcher extracted and classified the information accordingly.

20.5. Results

Students' performance in the English test in the Spanish University Admission Examination

The first research question examined the difference in the marks obtained by CLIL and non-CLIL students in the English test in the Spanish University Admission Examination. Significant differences were found in the two sets of learners analysed. CLIL learners had the highest marks in both cases, as shown in Table 20.1.

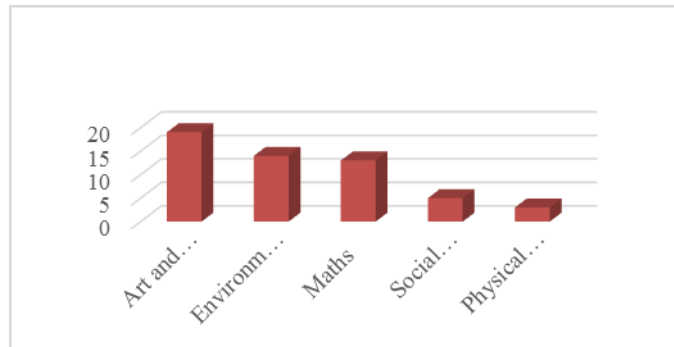
TABLE 20.1. Student's t- test. Marks in the English test for both sample sets: CLIL vs. non-CLIL. (**) $p < .01$.

	<i>M(SD)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Set 1 CLIL (n= 29)	7.20(1.58)	2.43	.009**
Non-CLIL (n = 141)	6.28 (1.91)		
Set 2 CLIL (n= 59)	8.90 (1.03)	2.68	.005**
Non-CLIL (n = 104)	8.45(1.21)		

Content-subjects taught through the medium of English

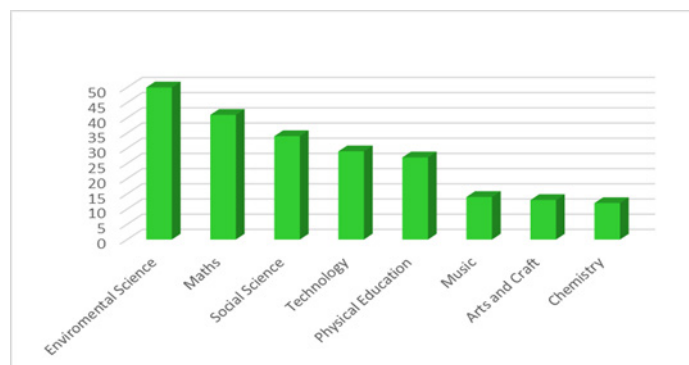
The next research question investigated the content-subjects which had become part of the CLIL programmes in the different schools. The three most usually taught subjects in the initial phase of CLIL implementation in primary education were Environmental Art and Design, Environmental Science and Maths. These results are reported in Figure 20.1.

FIGURE 20.1. Distribution of content-subjects by frequency of appearance in primary education



The most usually taught subjects in the initial phase of CLIL implementation in compulsory secondary education were Environmental Science, Maths and Social Science. These results are reported in Figure 20.2.

FIGURE 20.2. Distribution of content-subjects by frequency of appearance in secondary education

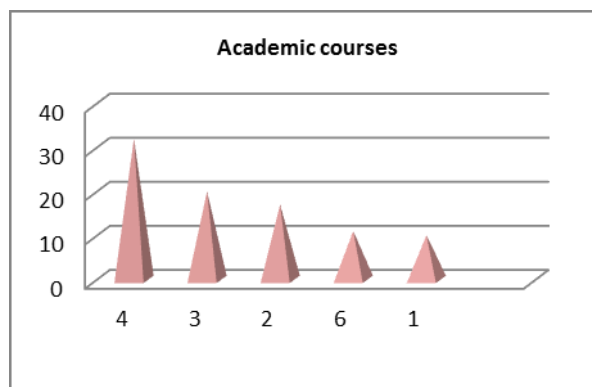


Academic courses with CLIL instruction

Data from the two sets included in the research were used to calculate the number of courses in which students had received CLIL instruction along their studies. Out of the total of 89 CLIL students, only 10 of them had received some type of CLIL instruction in the last two courses of primary education and in the four courses of secondary education. Most of them (32) had been part of the CLIL programme in four of the courses.

There is wide variation in this regard, as appreciated in Figure 20.3.

FIGURE 20.3. Distribution of students by the number of academic courses with CLIL instruction



20.6. Discussion and Conclusions

The primary aim of the present chapter was to gain insights into the implementation of CLIL in an underexplored context. With respect to the first question, the results add further evidence to the existing literature suggesting that CLIL programmes may prove beneficial to the learners' language competence (see sections 20.1 and 20.2). More specifically, they coincide with the results obtained by the research carried out by Madrid Autonomous Community, the only data available to date regarding students' performance in the Spanish University Admission Examination. The report published (2016) shows a very significant difference between the marks of the 1.148 CLIL students and that of the 670 non-CLIL students (7.58 and 6.94 respectively).

But the findings presented in the current study, although apparently predictable and of easy interpretation, require careful consideration. For a start, we must take into account that the participants of the study came from different schools and therefore had experienced very different types of instruction, both under the "CLIL methodology" and under the "traditional methodology" umbrella. This implies, among other things, that no data regarding the number of hours or the actual use of the foreign language have been compiled. Consequently, what must be emphasized is that the CLIL format, with different degrees of intensity, has succeeded in situating these learners' language competence above traditional learners'. In the second place, we need to bear in mind that the English test in the Spanish University Admission Examination does not include either speaking and spoken interaction or the listening skill, which implies that three relevant domains when measuring language competence are left out. My question is: "If CLIL methodology has been embraced by the Spanish education system as the best option to enhance students' communicative competence, how is it possible that this interest in providing a more effective foreign language teaching is not reflected in the University Admission Examination?" As Coyle (2013, p. 246) explains, effective learning "is usually measured by testing how far the desired learning outcomes of any programme have been achieved". In other words, what I want to underscore is that at present for the subject of English the pattern of the University Admission Examination is more in accordance with traditional settings than with the new one. My claim, then, is that reframing the Spanish education system as "partially bilingual" should result in the reconceptualization not only of the part of the foreign language learning process that takes place in the classroom, but also of the part related to the University Admission Examination.

Researchers have consistently reported the inherently flexible nature of CLIL, which has allowed schools with very different resources to adopt this new way of teaching, as described in the literature review. Nevertheless, that flexibility has led to having such a wide variety of

CLIL programmes that it is difficult to specify what they imply. As a result, I considered that an account of how some of the elements of CLIL had been dealt with at schools was needed. Such an account was felt to be necessary because it would, among other things, help to settle two matters: (1) the variety of content subjects present in CLIL instruction and, in the case of Primary Education, the coincidence with what the Administration had initially recommended; (2) the degree of continuity schools had been able to provide so far. I would like to emphasize that this study has by no means attempted to inspect the way things have been done. Instead, the purpose has been to offer a picture of an emerging new reality.

Concerning the choice of content subjects, the data revealed the great variety of options taken by schools. In Primary Education, the three content subjects most commonly taught through English were Art and Design, Environmental Science and Maths. The selection differs slightly from what the Administration initially recommended: Environmental and Social Science and Art and Design. In the data presented in the current study, Social Science appears in the fourth place. Later, however, the Administration added Physical Education (PE) to the initial list and left the door open for any subject the class teacher chose, provided he/she had the required English language competence. In this case, PE, which in the literature has been regarded as one of the content subjects most commonly taught through English (Coral & Lleixá, 2016), appears in the last place. In secondary education, the subjects were Environmental Science, Maths and Social Science. In this case, the Administration only established that the choice of subjects would depend on the availability of teachers with the appropriate command of English (B2 level). Previous research had mentioned a wide array of content subjects taught in this context, as seen in 20.3. As some scholars have suggested (see section 20.3. in this chapter), the selection of the content subject is a crucial matter that merits researchers' attention. I concur with Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) in the opinion that an interesting line of research could address the effect of the school subjects taught within the CLIL programme and discover, for instance, if learning Maths through CLIL is as beneficial for students' language proficiency as learning History. Each CLIL subject has its own content-obligatory language and inevitably determines the use of the FL made by in class, on the part of the teacher and the students (Maillat, 2010). The discursive framework is not the same in a history class as in a PE class. Although in CLIL foreign language competence is a "non-focal" learning objective Maillat (2010, p. 52), if the aim of CLIL is to improve that competence, as outlined above, it is inevitable that some control or register of the subjects being taught should exist.

As for the degree of continuity of the CLIL programme, the results obtained reflect the instability of the initial stages of the programme. Many of the students had received CLIL instruction intermittently. Two issues arise here. The first one is related to the impossibility until now of measuring the amount of extra exposure to the target language that is required for the different language dimensions to improve or, by the same token, the number of hours necessary for the CLIL program to succeed. This issue takes us directly to the second one: the choice of the best academic course to initiate a CLIL program. Some studies have already indicated that CLIL exerts a bigger influence on older learners than on younger ones (Bret, 2011; Lorenzo et al., 2010), hence it might be more reasonable to start at later stages. The explanation for this may lie in the application to the CLIL context of the cognitive and metacognitive abilities already developed for the mother tongue. This is without doubt an area of inquiry worth expanding.

The main limitations of the current study are interrelated, since they are the result of its particular characteristics. As it was my purpose to have the first and second generation of CLIL learners as participants, I inevitably had to deal with the weaknesses of the program in the early stage (which were basically concerned with the inconsistency of its implementation and the reduced sample size), which have in turn become the weaknesses of the study. Thus, it would be interesting to do a follow-up study in some years' time including a larger sample, and collect evidence of the development of CLIL methodology over time in this region. In addition, I am aware of the fact that the information I have used has been collected from students'

questionnaires and that students may have forgotten some of the aspects they were asked to report on or distorted others. It is indeed a disadvantage of this type of research that I assume. Nonetheless, and in spite of these limitations, I am certain that this study is of interest to the education authorities and to the research community for three reasons. In the first place, it sheds light on the implementation of CLIL in the Canary Islands Autonomous community, a community with very little presence on research pages to date. Secondly, it reinforces the results of previous studies. Finally, it utilized data from a non-bilingual context, while the vast majority of studies in Spain have been undertaken in bilingual communities.

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Bilingualism, Intercultural Education and Early Childhood Education: Theories and Practice

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Abstract

Early Childhood Education (ECE) is one of the key topics for most international educational institutions which claim for quality in school curricula in the 21st century. Intercultural education in the school curriculum as a means to educate children to avoid prejudices and cultural misunderstandings; the role of multilingualism to contribute to communication among peoples; and the unquestionable importance of play as a construct for the building of children's emotions and physical evolvment, and cognitive development are the most important issues to be discussed in this chapter.

21.1. Introduction

Early Childhood Education (ECE) is one of the key topics for most international educational institutions which claim for quality in school curricula in the 21st century. Among others, Truszczyński & Radermacher (European Commission, 2014) stated: 'At a time of unprecedented changes, the importance of giving all our children a solid start by providing quality early childhood education is central to the European strategy for smart and sustainable growth, the EU 2020 strategy' (p. 3). Furthermore, the Education 2030 Framework for Action highlighted: 'Beginning at birth, early childhood care and education (ECCE) lays the foundation for children's long-term development, well-being and health. ECCE builds the competencies and skills that enable people to learn throughout life and to earn a livelihood. Investments in young children, particularly those from marginalised groups, yield the greatest long-term impact in terms of developmental and educational outcomes' (UNESCO, 2016, p. 14). The impact of culture on

education in general, and on early childhood education and child development in particular, has always been an interesting area for research, the power of Intercultural Education (IE) must be taken into account as teaching and learning processes are inextricably contextualised (Gómez & Pérez, 2016).

21.2. Theoretical Background

Culture can be defined as the set of beliefs, traditions, values, customs and norms specific to a group of people (Macionis & Plummer, 2008). Moreover, culture is learned through the socialization process, at the same time that socialization is the process by which human beings incorporate the social norms pertaining to a certain culture or cultural group, and it occurs throughout the life course (Molu, 2014). It is the process whereby societies have structural continuity over time; the values and norms specific to a culture are transmitted from one generation to another and hence endure over time.

Cultural awareness refers to the sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behaviour in social interaction and communication (Tomalin & Stempleski, 2013).

Cultural diversity is the manifold ways in which the culture of groups and societies find expression." It is also "a manifestation of the diversity of life on Earth."

Developing an insight to cultural awareness includes having a firm grasp of what culture is and what it is not and an insight into intracultural variation, at the same time, understanding how people acquire their cultures and culture's important role in personal identities, life ways, and mental and physical health of individuals and communities and being conscious of one's own culturally shaped values, beliefs, perceptions, and biases while observing one's reactions to people whose cultures differ from one's own and reflecting upon these responses hence seeking and participating in meaningful interactions with people of differing cultural backgrounds (UNESCO, 2006).

Concepts of culture and education are intertwined. Culture forges educational content, operational modes and contexts because it shapes our frames of reference, our ways of thinking and acting, our beliefs and even our feelings. All actors involved in education –teachers and learners, curriculum developers, policy makers and community members– invest their cultural perspectives and cultural aspirations into what is taught, and how it is conveyed. Yet education is also vital to the survival of culture. As a collective and historical phenomenon, culture cannot exist without continual transmission and enrichment through education, and organised education often aims to achieve this very purpose (UNESCO, 2006).

Interculturalism is a new concept, though the notion is pretty old. Intercultural education has emerged as a reflection of 21st century society and has become one of the subjects to be prioritised as a result of the globalised world. Thus, intercultural education can be defined as the process whereby students learn about and interact with different cultures in the educational setting. In a world experiencing rapid change, and where cultural, political, economic and social upheaval challenges traditional ways of life, education has a major role to play in promoting social cohesion and peaceful coexistence. Through programs that encourage dialogue between students of different cultures, beliefs and religions, education can make an important and meaningful contribution to sustainable and tolerant societies (Race, 2011). It is needed to ensure an education concept to meet all educational needs of all different cultures living in a society and to make these different groups learn to live together in harmony and this viewpoint should be secured starting from preschool period.

Infants learn languages with remarkable speed, but how they do it remains a mystery. Social interaction with other human beings definitely affects speech learning, and the brain's commitment to the statistical and prosodic patterns that are experienced early in life might help to explain why in supportive conditions infants are remarkably successful in acquiring languages intuitively in ways that are different from adults.

Bilingual children are better able to focus their attention on relevant information and ignore distractions (Council on Learning, 2008. Parlez-vous français? The advantages of bilingualism in Canada. (<http://www.ccl-cca.ca/pdfs/LessonsInLearning/Oct-16-08-The-advantages-of-bilingualism.pdf>))

Bilingual individuals have been shown to be more creative and better at planning and solving complex problems than monolinguals (Paradis, Genesee & Crago, 2011).

The effects of ageing on the brain are diminished among bilingual adults. Bilingual individuals have greater access to people and resources. Individuals who speak and read more than one language have the ability to communicate with more people, read more literature, and benefit more fully from travel to other countries. (<http://www.cal.org/earlylang/benefits/marcos.html>) Bilingualism and multilingualism have beneficial consequences at the societal level as well. Bilingual people enhance a country's economic competitiveness abroad and help to promote an increasing understanding of cultural diversities. They also have a positive impact on their community through their tolerance to and appreciation of diversities and cross-cultural adaptability.

21.3. Intercultural Education in Early Childhood Education (ECE)

Major aims of intercultural education in ECE can be summarised as follows:

- Know, respect, and set high expectations for each child in the group.
- Foster and support children's development and sense of identity within their own cultural group, and their home languages.
- Help children become aware of similarities and differences between themselves and others.
- Promote the development of the ability to respectfully ask about and comfortably adapt to differences
- In line with these aims, major benefits can be named as;
- Expose children to other cultures.
- Foster children's critical thinking and countering stereotypes and biases.
- Organise a learning environment that shows people from many different places doing many different things.
- Work with parents, learn about their family cultures, traditions, practices and involve them to support the implementation of some of those practices in the learning environment.

21.4. Early Childhood Education Pedagogical Models

The High Scope Curriculum is a constructivist pedagogical approach, which roots on Piaget theory and elicits active learning as the key element for curriculum development. The pedagogical approach was designed for children with or without special needs and from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds and ethnicities, and aims to enhance children's cognitive, socio-emotional, and physical development, imparting skills that will help children succeed in school and be more productive and responsible throughout their lives. The curriculum is based on the view that

children are active learners who learn from what they do as well as what they hear and see (Hohmann & Weikart, 1995). The High Scope Curriculum emphasises adult-child interaction, a carefully designed learning environment, and a plan-do-review process that strengthens initiative and self-reliance in children and young people. Children are encouraged to make choices within a learning environment that promotes autonomy and freedom and have many opportunities to learn about differences.

The Modern School Movement (MEM) is a social constructivist pedagogical approach for ECE rooted on the pedagogy of Freinet and the theories of Vygotsky, Leontiev, Bruner and Rogoff. MEM is a Portuguese pedagogical approach developed by Sérgio Niza (2013), and its socio centric perspective of education focuses on the personal and social dimensions of individuals, and therefore seeks the development of the person as part of a social group (Niza, 2013; González, 2002). Learning is understood as a cooperative process mediated by social interaction within the group – children and adults. Thus, children are encouraged to learn about their own culture, and the culture of others. This educational approach is based on cooperation and mutual support, and seeks to foster the child's intellectual, civic, moral and ethical development with a strong connection to their everyday lives (Folque, 2012). The connection with everyday life allows the construction of a school community (children and adults), strongly rooted in the social and cultural context, where learning occurs through problem solving and the development of projects that emerge from the learning environment and the social group.

The João de Deus is a Portuguese pedagogical method developed by João de Deus, a Portuguese poet and educational reformer. This pedagogical method is a direct instruction approach, and it is focused on reading, writing, literature and mathematics. The approach is teacher driven, and one of the main goals is to prepare children for the following level of education. The curriculum is structured into a set of lessons presented in a manual called "*Cartilha Maternal*" that should be followed in the same way in all classrooms. Through the use of "*Cartilha maternal*" children are introduced to learn how to read and to write following a pedagogical approach based on academic tasks that evolve from simple to complex.

21.5. Methodology

This qualitative case study research (Stake, 2012) allowed understanding the role of three pedagogical models, namely High Scope, Modern School Movement (MEM) and João de Deus on the development of intercultural education in early childhood education.

21.5.1. Participants and Contexts

Data were collected in two phases through ECE classroom observations and semi-structured interviews to preschool teachers.

The observation contexts are 30 Portuguese preschool classrooms attending children from 3 to 6 years and working with the High Scope curriculum (10 classrooms), the MEM (10 classrooms) and João de Deus (10 classrooms).

The participants of the study are 6 preschool teachers working with children from 3 to 6 years, in public, private and private non-profit Portuguese institutions. The preschool teachers work with different pedagogical models, 2 adopt the High Scope curriculum, 2 the MEM and 2 the João de Deus.

21.5.2. Data Collection and Analysis

Data resulted from classroom observation were analysed following the qualitative method of content analysis (Bardin, 2015) and organised in two major themes: i) activities that enhance the development of intercultural education; ii) materials that promote intercultural education. Classroom observations were carried out by one of the researchers that stayed for one day in each classroom taking field notes of materials and activities available to children during the daily routine.

Qualitative data resulted from semi-structured interviews was collected over a 2-month period. All the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed in full by researchers, and checked for accuracy by the participants. The data collection was done in two phases. The first was the development of a preliminary interview script that was used with two early childhood teachers in order to identify limitations of questions. The second phase was the development of the final script, and interviewing process. The data were analysed according to the method of qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis described by Bardin (2015). An inductive approach allowed the identification of key major themes, namely: i) recognition of the relevance of intercultural education in ECE; ii) lack of knowledge how to integrate intercultural education in ECE curriculum development; iii) lack of knowledge and training to promote intercultural education in ECE practices.

Participants were assured that all efforts would be made to respect the privacy of data from interviews, and they couldn't be identified as participants in the research.

The limitations of the study are related with a small sample (classrooms observed and participants), and the inclusion of only 3 pedagogical models.

21.5.3. Analyses and Interpretation of the Data

21.5.3.1. *Activities that Enhance the Development of Intercultural Education*

The content analysis of the field notes reveals that intercultural education is promoted through four types of activities:

- Celebration of traditional and other festivities.
- Stories.
- Music and songs.
- Project work.

Documentation of celebration of traditional festivities, such as Christmas, Easter, Halloween, Carnival, Mother's and Fathers' Day, were observed in all classrooms regardless of the pedagogical model adopted. These festivities, except Halloween, are celebrated in the Portuguese culture and there is a tradition of celebrating them in schools for many years. Although, in some classrooms, 6 of MEM and 7 of High Scope, the observation of documentation revealed moments of celebration of festivities traditional from other cultures besides the Portuguese. Some examples are masks of Angola, photos of children dancing with traditional clothes from Mozambique, and celebration of Chinese New Year. In those classrooms there are children from diverse countries in the group.

The observation of classrooms revealed that reading or telling a story is part of High Scope and MEM daily routines, and it was also observed in 4 João de Deus classrooms. Some of these stories integrate habits, food, clothes of diverse cultures. Children were encouraged after the story to think and discuss cultural diversity reflected in each story. To expose children to

cultural diversity and support them to describe similarities and differences in rules for behaviour among various cultural groups facilitates the acquisition of linguistic and intercultural abilities (Bredekamp, 2014).

Music is one of the vehicles used to transmit culture. The use of music from diverse cultures to listen was observed in MEM, High Scope and João de Deus classrooms. Children had opportunities to listen, dance or do other movement activities while listening to song and music from diverse cultures.

Project work is an active learning methodology used in MEM and High Scope curriculum, as well as it is in other ECE curricula. Through classroom observation was possible to understand the power of using projects to involve children in learning about diverse cultures and develop an intercultural competence. Four of the 30 classrooms observed were developing projects that in some way promote the construction knowledge of diverse cultures, places, people and animals. The projects observed were developed in 3 MEM and 1 High Scope classrooms. Through involvement in these projects children were researching about diverse topics, such as: Indian tribes of North America; Houses of the world; why people have different skin colour; Animals from Africa. These projects support children's construction of knowledge about differences and similarities in the world, and therefore promote the development of tolerance, sensitivity to others' needs and habits, respect and accept different culture rules from their own.

21.5.3.2. Materials that Promote Intercultural Education

Classroom observation allows the identification of several materials and instruments that expose children to diversity that exists in the world. Table 1 shows the objects identified in High Scope, MEM and João de Deus classrooms.

TABLE 21.1. Materials that promote intercultural education

Materials	High Scope	MEM	João de Deus
Books	8	9	4
Games (Puzzles)	6	6	4
Globe	6	5	4
Maps	6	5	4
CDs	4	6	0
Dolls	10	10	8
Kitchen utensils	5	7	0
Clothes	6	8	4
Musical instruments	5	7	0
Photos	5	7	0

The analysis of Table 21.1 shows that High Scope and MEM classrooms have more materials and instruments that promote intercultural education than in João de Deus classrooms.

Dolls and books are the most common materials in classrooms of the three pedagogical models, followed by games, globes, maps and clothes. The High Scope and the MEM classrooms also have a diversity of clothes from diverse cultures, such as African, Chinese, and Brazilian. It can be observed in these classrooms displayed on the walls or in albums photos that reflect a culturally and linguistically diverse world.

The materials presented in Table 1 are organised in different areas of classrooms observed, and available for children to choose and play with them at free play moments and also to be used by teachers during structured activities that occur at small and large group moments.

21.5.3.3. *Preschool Teachers' Perception about Intercultural Education*

Through data content analysis three major themes were identified:

- Recognition of the relevance of intercultural education in ECE.
- Assumption that intercultural education is incorporated in ECE curriculum development.
- Lack of knowledge and training to promote intercultural education in ECE practices.

21.5.3.4. *Recognition of the Relevance of Intercultural Education in ECE*

All the respondents agree that intercultural education should be integrated in ECE curriculum.

To learn about our own culture and the others' culture is very important for personal development of young children. (A)

More attention should be paid to multicultural education. We have more and more children from other nationalities, other cultures, and speaking a language that it is not Portuguese in our classrooms. So we need to know how to work with this diverse population that is attending our preschools. (D)

I think that it is a key issue in ECE. Children should learn, from a very early age, to accept differences and value those differences. This is very important for a society that is more and more global. It is also very important, in my opinion, to promote peace in the world. (E)

Culture shapes and influences every child's development and learning. It is through culture that children learn social rules and become competent to behave in their own as well as in other's culture groups. Teachers should know the culture of their students. Knowledge of culture is important because without it teachers can misunderstand children, inaccurately assess children's competence, and fail to promote children's learning.

21.5.3.5. *Assumption that Intercultural Education is Incorporated in ECE Curriculum Development*

The participants of this study assume that intercultural education is a transversal area of ECE curriculum.

I think that I promote multicultural education in my classroom. Children have dolls from different races, and they also have books about other cultures. Every day they have a moment of free play and they can choose to play with those materials and become familiar with differences of races, clothes, foods... We also celebrate some traditional festivities of children from other nationalities that we have in our classroom groups. (G)

As I'm working in a MEM classroom, I know that I need to promote multicultural education. The MEM curriculum includes moments at daily and weekly routines to promote children's learning about their own culture. We invite parents or other relatives to come to school, to participate in projects and to share things that are from their own culture. (D)

The voices of these two teachers show different strategies to enhance the development of multicultural and intercultural competence in early childhood classrooms. The MEM curriculum has integrated, in daily and weekly routines, activities that invite children to learn about their own culture and the culture of others in order to develop a sense of culture identity within a social and cultural group. Involving parents and other relatives in daily classroom activities related with cultural rules, traditions promotes to support children to learn about both explicit and implicit values, beliefs, and patterns that are passed on from generation to generation.

21.5.3.6. Lack of Knowledge and Training to Promote Intercultural Education in ECE Practices

Four of the six preschool teachers interviewed said that multicultural or intercultural education was not part of the curriculum of the ECE pre-service programme they have attended at university. Two preschool teachers said that the ECE pre-service programme they have attended at university has an elective course on multicultural education and diversity. All the respondents affirm that they had never taken an in-service course on multicultural or intercultural education for ECE. They recognize the importance of knowing more about this dimension of early childhood education, but at the same time it is clear from their voices that it has not been a training need for them.

Well, I know that it is important to include multicultural education in ECE curriculum, in our daily practices, but I never felt that I needed to do a course, or training in that area (multicultural education). Probably because I don't work with many children from other countries, from other cultures. I have always worked in a private preschool and most children are Portuguese. (A)

At university, when I was taking my degree in ECE I didn't have a course on multicultural education. Then I came to work in this preschool (MEM) and I have learned, from my colleagues, that we should create opportunities for children to learn about their own culture. I'm working in a preschool in community with a diverse and multicultural population, and we have children from various countries in our school. I know that I need to support them to learn and to value their culture, as well as I should support the Portuguese children to learn about their own culture and the others' culture, but this is very difficult. I feel that I should have learned how to work with this dimension when I took my degree. (E)

In order to create a learning environment that promotes the development of intercultural competence in young children, teachers need to have training that support them to become aware of what multicultural and intercultural education is and how to promote the development of those competences in early childhood education.

21.6. Conclusions

The definition of intercultural learning involves the development of cultural awareness into intercultural sensitivity and competence. The term 'intercultural sensitivity' refers to the complexity of perception of cultural difference, so that higher sensitivity refers to more complex perceptual discriminations of such differences (Bennett 1993, 2004, as cited in Bennett, 2009). The term 'competence' refers to the potential for enactment of culturally sensitive feeling into appropriate and effective behaviour in another cultural context (Bennett and Castiglioni 2004, as cited in Bennett, 2009). According to the developmental theory underlying these definitions, intercultural learning is transferable to other cultural contexts; for example, a student who develops intercultural sensitivity on an exchange programme in France can apply that sensitivity in Korea, or Nigeria, or with different domestic ethnic groups. Of course, the student may know more about French culture than about Korean culture, so he or she will have more ways

of expressing competence in France than in Korea. But since intercultural learning includes how to learn about culture, someone going to a new culture can relatively quickly acquire the knowledge that will allow them to turn sensitivity into competence there as well.

Intercultural learning can be both an immediate and a long-term effect of exchange. In the short term, intercultural learning involves the acquisition of intercultural sensitivity and the ability to exercise intercultural competence in the exchange culture. A middle-term effect is the transfer of intercultural sensitivity and potential competence from the exchange culture to other cultural contexts. The longer-term effects involve the development of global citizenship and/or other manifestations of a permanently heightened awareness and appreciation of cultural difference (Bennet, 2009).

The results of the study developed on Portuguese preschool classrooms reveal that practices to promote intercultural education in ECE classrooms have been incorporated in constructivists' curriculum, High Scope and Socio-constructivists, Modern School Movement (MEM). The data also show that intercultural education is less valued in traditional pedagogical approaches, such as João de Deus.

The analysis of data resulting from teacher interviews highlight that preschool teacher education programmes need to review their curriculum in order to create opportunities for prospective teachers learn how to promote intercultural education in their pedagogical practices (Bredekamp, 2014).

It is important to develop further studies that involve other pedagogical models to understand the role of different pedagogical approaches on the development of intercultural and bilingual education on early childhood education. It would also be relevant to analyse the curriculum of preschool teacher education programmes to know if multicultural, intercultural and bilingual education in ECE is incorporated in their curriculum plan.

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The Intercultural Approach in the Teaching of Communication in Business English

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Abstract

The major aim of the present chapter is to focus on the application of the intercultural approach in the development of communicative skills in Business English. It seems that intercultural language education has redefined the agenda of modern teaching all over the world and it has touched upon various types of English. The author intends to discuss the skills relevant in the process of communication in Business English, which prove enormously different from those worked on in everyday communication. The intercultural component is particularly essential in Business English as learners should not only have a chance to become familiar with the cultural information related to the language they are studying, but also possess and develop a certain degree of intercultural awareness and sensitivity since they are demanded from any business persons communicating at the criss-cross of cultures.

22.1. The Intercultural Approach in Foreign Language Teaching

In recent years a growing body of research has been observed in the area of the intercultural approach in language teaching. In line with the findings, it has been implied that language learners must be developed into intercultural speakers who are able to engage with complex and multiple identities. In addition, it is imperative to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity (Byram et al., 2004). The intercultural dimension in language teaching is concerned with: (1) helping learners to understand how intercultural interactions take place, (2) how social identities become part of all interaction, (3) how their perceptions of other people and other people's perceptions of them influence the success of communication,

(4) how they can find out for themselves more about the people they are communicating with. Therefore, it needs to be postulated that intercultural training in language education requires the application of three different approaches: experiential learning, ethnographic approach and comparative approach.

According to Kohonen et al. (2001) experiential learning is an educational orientation which focuses on integrating theoretical as well as practical elements of learning and emphasising the significance of experience for learning. The approach is well-known in various settings of informal learning, such as internships in business and service organisations, work and study assignments, clinical experience, international exchange and volunteer programmes and many more. However, the principles and practices can be used both in formal learning (institutional) contexts and in informal learning. Experiential learning techniques include a rich variety of interactive practices whereby the participants have opportunities to learn from their own and each others' experiences, being actively and personally engaged in the process. For the purpose of developing communicative skills in Business English, the following activities might seem appropriate: role plays, drama activities, games and simulations, personal stories and case studies, empathy-taking activities, discussions and reflection in cooperative groups. They include a rich variety of interactive practices whereby the participants have opportunities to learn from their own and each others' experiences, being actively and personally engaged in the process. For the purpose of developing communicative skills in Business English, these activities might seem appropriate.

By contrast, the ethnographic approach concentrates on observation and description of behaviours among representatives of a particular culture. From the point of view of foreign language teaching the most interesting aspect to be investigated refers to human communication. Corbett (2003) points out that a communicated meaning is constantly negotiated and constructed by the participants of an interaction embedded within a context. The role of ethnographic methods in foreign language teaching was also indicated by Damen (1987, p. 53) who emphasised using them in integrated culture and language teaching and developing mediating competences. A learner who is showing ethnographic skills can talk about their own experiences; observe culture phenomena; be a participant-observer of their own and the other's culture; question in order to obtain information about culture; search for the most useful sources of information; take notes during field trips; collect, analyse, present, evaluate and distinguish qualitative from quantitative data; restrain from assessing the other's culture.

The proponents of the comparative approach, Zawadzka (2004) and Pulverness (1999) notice that learning about the other's culture provokes drawing similarities and differences to our own culture. Thus, we tend to understand and compare new phenomena with the application of categories employed by our language and culture community. The comparative approach should be applied in teaching only with the presence of a teacher made responsible for preserving an objective glance at the new phenomena so as not to falsify the newly-learnt reality. Unfortunately, comparing two cultures does not always lead to the development of intercultural awareness or empathy. Byram and Zarate (1997) claim that only critical cultural awareness achieved through the critical analysis of cultural phenomena and their deconstruction contributes to general education and development among learners. A constant comparative analysis remains undoubtedly a crucial element of action conducted by intercultural mediators. The comparative approach in teaching culture helps to: make learners reflect on how their own language, linguistic and cultural identity are perceived by others; analyse stereotypes and distinguish individual traits; discuss tolerance, xenophobia, acculturation and sustaining one's identity; distance from one's own cultural norms; shape one's curiosity and critical attitude instead of developing prejudices.

By highlighting the role of the comparative approach in intercultural training, Kramsch (1998) recommends various tasks, which require accepting worldviews different than one's own. Similarly, analysing things from a different perspective allows learners to compare those aspects of

their culture, which they are unaware of. To fulfill the expectations of the comparative approach, they need to engage their knowledge and experience indispensable for making comparisons. As a result students will be able to strengthen their cultural identity (Bandura, 2007, p. 78). This, in many instances, can be achieved through open communication with the representatives of other cultures.

22.2. Techniques Relevant in the Teaching of Communication in Business Contexts

As indicated earlier simulation games, case studies, critical incidents, role-plays and culture assimilators belong to the group of techniques used by language teachers to help their students acquire intercultural skills in more active and authentic ways. Their value consists in enabling the students to experience, although in the classroom, the challenges, pitfalls, opportunities and rewards of intercultural communication as they engage their participants intellectually, emotionally and also somatically in the interactions. Since the techniques differ in their impact on the development of intercultural communicative competence, they should be combined together and carefully tailored to their participants' actual knowledge, skills and needs (Romanowski, 2017, p. 96).

Simulation games have proven to be an extremely valuable technique for foreign language learning as they prepare learners for a successful participation in intercultural communication. They encourage thinking and creativity, help students develop and practise new language and behavioural skills in a relatively non-threatening setting, and create the motivation and involvement necessary for learning to occur (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Sisk, 1995).

A basic role play (McCaffery, 1995) is a training activity where at least two participants take on characteristics of people other than themselves in order to attain a clearly defined objective. Their roles are usually fictitious, although they must be completely believable in the eyes of the trainees for the role play to work. If they are not actively involved in the role play, they function as observers. Although a role-play session may run up to an hour, which includes preparation and debriefing, the actual role-play runs from five to seven minutes. The most appropriate use of role-plays is to build skills. Therefore, role plays should be used in training programs that are aimed at building interpersonal skills, such as a management-training course that includes sessions on delegating, negotiating, managing conflict, giving and receiving feedback, and so on. There are many ways in which intercultural training (and language training) can include role plays, for example, by exploring such topics as meeting people from another culture for the first time; trying to persuade a culturally different interlocutor; carrying out international negotiations; and being assertive. In addition to skill development, there are other reasons for using role-plays: creating attitudinal change (asking a manager to play the role of a secretary) or generating a sense of empathy for a person from another culture. In general, the objectives are met through a role reversal (i.e. inviting a Thai to play the role of a Canadian). Its biggest advantage is that the technique teaches by means of acting and experiencing, which allows the students for an active use of the theoretical knowledge they have acquired. They can intellectualize a lot about, for example, international negotiations, but they will only begin to improve when they actually practice the skills that it takes to be competent.

The culture assimilator (also called intercultural sensitizer) is another popular technique of intercultural training. It uses a series of scenarios that involve some elements of culture clash or misunderstanding to prepare people for interacting effectively with culturally different others. A participant is asked to read a scenario and then select the best explanation for the incident under discussion. A feedback on the appropriateness of the choice is then received. The reasoning behind a culture assimilator is that through repeated exposure to a situation or a scenario, the trainee will learn to make attributions similar to those made by members of the culture involved (Paige, 2004).

The use of case studies in intercultural training in preparing the learner for interaction with cultures other than his/her own is of vital importance. In an article published in 1960, the anthropologist Edward Hall describes a case in which a business deal fails because of cultural differences in the use of time and space (Leeds-Hurwitz, 1990). Today case studies comparable to Hall's are used successfully with learners from many different types of business, government, and academic institutions, including foreign service personnel and family members, Peace Corps volunteers, corporate employees, university staff, and students. They provide participants with concrete examples of problems caused by cultural differences in communication and other behaviour patterns.

Last but not least, critical incidents constitute brief descriptions of situations which cause a misunderstanding, a problem or a conflict due to cultural differences between interacting parties. They may also deal with difficulties of intercultural adaptation. Each incident gives only enough information to set the stage, describe what happened, and possibly provide the feelings and reactions of the parties involved. It does not explain the culture that the parties bring to the situation as it has to be discovered in the course of the exercise. It is highly unlikely to use only one incident in training as its effectiveness will be low. CIE usually consists of a number of incidents, dealing with different situations and revealing different aspects of their underlying culture. Critical incidents have been used in a variety of settings to prepare persons to live and work in other cultures, e.g. in business settings to train managers and their families (Lacy and Trowbridge, 1995).

22.3. Intercultural Communicative Competence as a Prerequisite for the Intercultural Approach

Many researchers postulate that the aim of the intercultural approach in language teaching is to develop intercultural communicative competence since it is vital for language instructors to create an efficient intercultural speaker who would exhibit certain skills, competences and knowledge (Risager, 1998; Byram and Fleming, 1998; Kramsch, 1998). The most comprehensive model of what intercultural communicative competence comprises was presented by Chen and Starosta (2000). It integrates the following three features: awareness, adroitness and sensitivity. Each dimension involves a set of components. For example, intercultural awareness is the cognitive dimension of intercultural communicative competence, which concerns a person's ability to understand similarities and differences of other cultures. It includes self-awareness and cultural awareness. Intercultural sensitivity, being the affective dimension, refers to the emotional desire of a person to acknowledge, appreciate and accept cultural differences. The six components, such as: self-esteem, self-monitoring, empathy, open-mindedness, non-judgementalness and social relaxation are involved in the dimension. Ultimately, intercultural adroitness as a behavioural dimension is understood as an individual's ability to reach communication goals while interacting with people from other cultures. It consists of four elements, namely: message skills, appropriate self-disclosure, behavioural flexibility and interaction management.

In foreign language instruction, teachers should focus on subjective culture which includes beliefs, values, assumptions and patterns without which it is impossible to understand the impact of culture on communication (Bennett, 2004, p. 64). This is particularly observable in lifelike communicative situations regardless of the context or topic. The abovementioned factors are the most difficult aspects to be taught and learnt as they account in particular for the speaker's intercultural awareness to be clearly distinguished from intercultural know-how. Whereas intercultural awareness refers generally to the learner's awareness of him-/herself as a member of a global community, intercultural skills and know-how are rather related to an individual's way of dealing with cultural differences.

Furthermore, both knowledge and skills develop in students a special kind of sensitivity manifested as their own need to sustain certain self-conceptions and self-image, their degree of anxiety and their avoidance tendencies engendered by strangers. The role of the teacher consists

in making students understand who they are, reinforcing their self-confidence and overcoming their anxiety (Gudykunst and Kim, 2002, p. 338). When communicators are threatened, they often become defensive and can no longer think clearly or access the knowledge and skills needed to communicate effectively. Their sensitivity, experienced as anxiety, hinders the ability to gather information that could reduce uncertainty and the sense of alienation from other cultural groups. All the factors decrease their motivation to communicate further and make them avoid intercultural interactions in the future (Brislin, 1999, p. 152).

22.4. From Linguistic Competence to Intercultural Competence in Business English

As one of the aims of the present paper is to consider specific skills demanded from competent Business English users, one must understand the term of communicative competence. Hence, it seems natural to revisit Chomsky's distinction into competence and performance where the former was defined as the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Since this definition was unsatisfactory, because in the opinion of prominent linguists it did not exhaust the topic and occurred somehow incomprehensible, Dell Hymes, a linguist and ethnographer, introduced a new notion, namely communicative competence. Communicative competence can be described as the learner's ability to understand and use language appropriately to communicate in authentic (rather than simulated) social and school environments (Hymes, 1972, p. 277). In Business English this type of communication frequently occurs and thus attention will be paid to it in the paper. The term comprises not only a good command of the language but also the knowledge of the language use. This pragmatic approach seems to reflect the reality very well, for it assumes that the language is not only a set of strict grammar rules but also a tool to communicate and co-exist in a human society.

The notion of communicative competence was further re-defined by Canale who proposed a much more extensive analysis assuming that the underlying systems of knowledge and skill are both required for efficient communication (Canale, 1983, p. 5). In addition, Canale together with Swain, a specialist in the field of second language education, identified three basic components that form communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980): (1) grammatical competence – the ability to use words and rules; (2) sociolinguistic competence – the ability to be appropriate in a given context; (3) strategic competence – the ability to use communication strategies. It must be asserted that the notion of communicative competence plays a major role in modern linguistics as well as language teaching. This applies especially to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which forms communication-oriented foreign language teaching. Perhaps, it is worth implying that communicative competence is a central concept of the communicative approach to language teaching involving the development of language proficiency through interactions embedded in meaningful contexts, often encountered in the teaching and using Business English. According to Savignon (2007, p. 207-208) this approach to teaching provides authentic opportunities for learning that go beyond repetition and memorisation of grammatical patterns in isolation, and hence remain the focus of the whole process of communication, including communication in Business English classes where most activities evolve around building negotiation skills.

As communicative competence plays such a significant role in Business English, it seems obvious to highlight that Frenco (2005, p. 8-12) distinguishes three key components that are indispensable in Business English and that should be emphasised by a Business English teacher in the process of teaching: (1) linguistic competence, (2) discourse competence and (3) intercultural competence.

The first term of linguistic competence can be divided into the knowledge of lexis and the knowledge of grammar, together with the relationships between the two. Vocabulary involves

not only 'regular' words and terms but also multi-word units (e.g. *How do you do?*), idioms (e.g. *We've missed the boat*), phrasal verbs (e.g. *carry out*) and collocations (e.g. *small print* rather than *little print*). Moreover, lexical units tend to occur in certain grammatical patterns (e.g. *letter of complaint* rather than *complaint letter*). Grammar, on the other hand, can be divided into written grammar and spoken grammar. Spoken grammar, as opposed to written grammar, can be characterised by the presence of contractions (e.g. *he won't, I can't*), hesitations (e.g. *ehm, uhm*), repetitions and ellipsis. Moreover, discourse markers (e.g. *OK, ehm, let's move to...*) and backchannels (signalling feedback) are also very common and form a natural part of any oral texts. All of the presented elements constitute the linguistic competence which is related to the language at its most basic level and as such is context-independent.

The discourse competence, in turn, enables to interact in a given context. As stressed by Canale and Swain (1980) while linguistic competence deals with the formal approach to a language, discourse competence focuses on the use of language. Business discourse involves presentations, negotiations, business meetings, correspondence, and many more. The importance of discourse competence is clear, since the appropriate use of language is essential, especially in business context where the wrong use of a given structure may offend the listener and result in failure in negotiations. One of the elements that plays a major role is register, which may be defined as a degree of formality. Business English involves colloquial speech (small talk) as well as very formal language (negotiations, contracts). Therefore, the proper use of register is central to any Business English communication exchanges. Moreover, any conversation has a certain structure, which is governed by specific rules. The turn-taking competence is another key element, which seems to be of high importance. The knowledge of opening and closing sentences as well as certain standard structures enables proper communication and gives the discourse its smoothness and natural tone.

Last but not least, Sobkowiak (2008, p. 132-133) points out that the intercultural competence remains the most general item related to Business English. Since the business environment is culturally diversified and numerous business meetings very often involve people from different countries, the intercultural competence is indispensable for proper communication. The lack of knowledge in this field may lead to misunderstandings and unpleasant situations. Therefore, a Business English course should develop the intercultural competence, so that students become sensitive to the differences that are an inseparable part of the business world. It should be noted that culture may refer not only to ethnicity or national culture but also corporate culture and culture of a given profession. The intercultural competence may help utilise these differences and distinct features to add a certain value to the business relations with customers or between employees.

22.5. Types of Communication in Business English

In order to better understand the concept of communication in Business English, we need to take account of the classification of communication types proposed by Sehgal (2008, p. 6) and conducted according to the number of receivers in the following manner:

- (1) intrapersonal communication: within one's own mind;
- (2) interpersonal communication: communication between two people (dialogue);
- (3) group communication: an exchange of messages within a group such as a classroom or a team at work;
- (4) mass communication: a message is received by large numbers of people and is sent by mass media such as newspapers or TV.

For the purpose of teaching, the most important type seems to be group communication and interpersonal communication depending obviously on the chosen activity. With regards to

oral communication, it must be noted that it is an essential element of the command of Business English. Business meetings, negotiations, presentations and even a simple small-talk with business partners are an inseparable part of business activities. Therefore, Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. 35) concentrate on the value of performance in teaching Business English and they affirm that the ability to speak fluently remains the most essential skill developed by learners. Business people need to convey the message which should be properly understood by receivers. The nuances of correct grammar and sophisticated vocabulary are welcome but less essential. In addition, Panja (2011, p. 14-15) sees oral communication as often preferred to written communication for a number of reasons. First of all, it is spontaneous and instantaneous and takes place at a relatively high speed. Moreover, if the message is not clear, a receiver may ask for immediate clarification, which certainly facilitates mutual understanding of interlocutors. Furthermore, the non-verbal aspect of oral communication (body language, proximity etc.) renders an effective tool of persuasion. Last but not least, oral communication has a social function and as such helps strengthen the bonds between employees and business partners.

On the other hand, oral communication is characterised by certain drawbacks, which may constitute a barrier for learners. First of all, any oral utterance is constrained by time and requires hurried planning. Moreover, receivers must be attentive and focused, since the oral message is usually not recorded. Another drawback is the lack of legal validity of oral messages and a high likelihood of such a message being distorted – a listener may not remember all the details or a speaker may express ideas in an inappropriate manner.

Oral communication is beneficial in the business world, since it is fast, persuasive and serves as a tool of social bonding. The nature of oral communication and the difficulties that learners may encounter require a good preparation and development of certain skills. Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. 35) enumerate some skills and abilities that are essential for oral communication in Business English: (1) confidence and fluency; (2) skills for organising and structuring information; (3) an ability to communicate ideas without ambiguity; (4) strategies for following the main points of fast, imperfect and complex speech; (5) an ability to ask for clarification; (6) speed of reaction to utterances; (7) clear pronunciation and delivery; (8) awareness of appropriate behaviour and language specific to different cultures.

There is one important conclusion to be drawn from the aforementioned considerations. The above skills are central to Business English in general, thus maintaining that oral communication plays a key role in business relations. Reading and writing skills are additional assets, but it is the ability to communicate without difficulties in the intercultural encounters that constitutes the main focus in teaching Business English.

22.6. Types of Intercultural Interaction in Business English

The teaching of oral communication skills in Business English employs a wide array of techniques and communication types. Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. 36) enlist two crucial subtypes, i.e. speaking and interaction. Speaking includes monologue-type communication, while the interaction consists in conducting a dialogue with another person. Among the most popular types of Business English skills are the following:

- (1) speaking: formal and informal presentation, instructing, description and explanation;
- (2) interaction: visiting or receiving representatives of other cultures, showing visitors around, entertaining, discussions and informal meetings, formal meetings, chairing meetings, interviewing, negotiating, telephoning.

It is also imperative to consider another distinction of communication types that constitute a mainstay of Business English, namely negotiations and presentations. Hence, they should be

discussed in a more detailed way, for they form a basic part of any Business English class. Frendo (2005, p. 75-76) rightly emphasises that presentations are particularly interesting from the standpoint of teaching because they require a number of skills: both linguistic and non-linguistic or culture bound in some cases. A presentation needs to draw attention of audience and serves as a source of information. Therefore, it is the content that is of high importance and the way it is presented, whereas the linguistic quality takes a secondary place. Thus, teachers should pay attention to the overall impression made by a student during a presentation rather than errors and mistakes, unless they impede communication. Such elements as body language, visual aids and intonation facilitate the reception of the message and play an essential role in the overall outcome. Although the main purpose of any presentation is to deliver a message and persuade something to the audience interested in the topic, which lends less importance to the correct use of language, some issues regarding the very linguistic competence are of high importance. The most crucial components are the following:

- (1) signposting – the use of expressions typical for presentations such as *let's start* or *to conclude*;
- (2) rhetorical language – the use of metaphors, triplets, rhetorical questions and emphasis renders the text more persuasive and more attractive to the audience;
- (3) intonation – one of the key aspects of any presentation. Good intonation is necessary for keeping audience interested and concentrated;
- (4) stress – some words need to be stressed by the speaker so that the audience pays special attention to a given idea;
- (5) chunking – it is the general ability to group words of a given utterance and pause in specific places so that the whole text is coherent and pleasant to listen to.

Teachers should therefore put emphasis on these elements. The main point of interest is the ability to deliver a text which is interesting and compelling. Such skills can be acquired by listening to speeches performed by professionals e.g. politicians or lecturers.

The second variant of business communication that deserves careful attention is the discourse of negotiations. This is a complex process that seems to be quite intricate to define. Frendo (2005, p. 76) enlists two negotiation styles:

- (1) competitive negotiations, which include a conflict between the two parties' goals and usually price bargaining or sharing limited resources are involved;
- (2) integrative negotiations, which involve mutual or partially mutual goals and as such are not competitive although the aim is not to achieve a win-win situation.

Another crucial aspect of negotiations is a set of strategies that can be followed by either of the parties. Lewicki and Hiam (2006, p. 31-33) distinguish five categories:

- (1) avoiding – it consists in withdrawing from active negotiations, neither the goal nor the long-term relationship are important for the parties;
- (2) accommodating – in this case one party deems a long-term relationship more crucial than the outcome and adapts to the conditions set by another party;
- (3) competing – it should be implemented if a party wants to win at all costs i.e. the long-term relationship with another party is of low importance;
- (4) collaborating – here both parties try to find a solution that would be satisfying for both of them and the outcome as well as the relationship are equally important, hence collaborating usually results in a win-win situation;
- (5) compromising – it may be defined as a substitute for collaborating and occurs when full collaboration is not possible or when there is a time pressure.

As noted earlier there are different types of negotiations and various stages they go through. It may be hard to identify the key language to teach, but the functions to be considered

are: clarifying, summarising, asking questions, proposing, agreeing and disagreeing together with the relation-building skills. Probably, the most effective way to practise negotiating will be adopting a task-based approach where role-plays and simulations, the typical techniques used in intercultural training, are extensively utilised. Following Frenco (2005, p. 77-79) they allow for the improvement of non-linguistic negotiating skills as well as give a chance to practise the adequate language. It seems obvious that negotiations involve strategies and relationship-building skills that are of high importance for the outcome of any meeting. Our students should be aware of them if they want their negotiations to be successful. Moreover, they should master body language and the ability to present and express their ideas. Therefore, a teacher needs to pay attention to the general outcome of activity. The art of negotiating is a complex ability that should be practiced throughout the whole course of Business English.

Last but not least, it should be affirmed after Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 109) that there are many spoken interactions in Business English that involve just two people. These are telephone conversations and other social situations, which, even if there are more people, revolve around dialogues. In this case what matters mostly is 'socialising', which is of particular importance, especially when interlocutors have met for the first time. Briefly speaking, it encompasses those spoken interactions that introduce somehow the actual discussion about business matters. Socialising may be crucial in establishing good relationships with business partners, that is why it is important to cover them in any Business English classroom. The language connected with socialising may include meeting and greeting people, conventional phrases, dining out, visiting other people's homes as well as those language items that may be useful for maintaining the conversation, encouraging the participant to talk, asking polite and unobtrusive questions or telling anecdotes.

Because it is natural for business people to attend meetings on daily basis, learners need to be trained for them. Business meetings range from most formal ones, where there is a chairperson and a clerk responsible for taking the minutes to those informal ones over a cup of tea or coffee. The language of such meetings is also varied and thus it has to be brought to the attention of learners. As such it is hard to be taught thoroughly without first obtaining some information from the learners who are job-experienced. In many instances, people in meetings enter discussions, pass on information, persuade, justify, defend one's position, argue, clarify and summarise, and these functions should make up the focus of a Business English teacher. Role-plays and simulations, which resemble the meetings that the learners usually participate in, will probably be the most useful. Donna (2000, p. 126) suggests considering the following points when designing the meeting simulations:

- (1) Who is to chair the meeting, if anybody?
- (2) What is the chair's role?
- (3) What contributions are to be made by participants?
- (4) What is the function of the meeting?
- (5) How formal will it be?
- (6) Will there be a tight structure?
- (7) Will the minutes be produced?

Learners can also be asked to take minutes of meetings held in their Business English classes or bring authentic minutes into the class and use them to explain what happened in the meeting to the other learners. It may also be a way to review the language and start a discussion.

Ultimately, it is also worth analysing the issue of socialising from the point of view of the so-called 'small talk'. One must remember, however, that it requires the learner to engage in a polite conversation without warning and involves talking about things having little to do with business. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 140) imply that it has different functions such as time-filling, easing the transition from one business topic to another or easing the tension. It may be

simply practised during a lesson as an interaction between the learner and the teacher, or two learners talking about their weekend, the film they have watched recently, a football match or the weather. A lot of small talk takes place over the telephone, however this type of communication can cause a lot of stress and may be difficult to handle mainly because of the fact that there is no time to prepare and no body language, which usually facilitates conversations and enables better understanding. The training of talking on the telephone during a business class focuses on two basic points: teaching standard lexical phrases used in such situations which will not be met elsewhere, e.g. *X speaking, Who's calling, I'll just put you through, Hold on, please, etc.*, and some so-called 'survival strategies' which allow the learner to control conversations and deal with numerous situations, e.g. *I didn't catch that, could you repeat?, Could you spell that?, Could you confirm that in writing?* Following Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 109) one might notice that teaching how to make telephone calls involves a lot of role-play activities and listening, which if carried out successfully, may result in learners' being more confident, which is crucial in managing telephone conversations.

The last phenomenon that should concern us and has already been commented upon in the present paper, corresponds with the awareness of cultural factors, which as Brieger (1997, p. 83), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 66) notice, seems vital in any business interaction. Both teachers and students need to be sensitive to cultural issues as well as it is mandatory for them to try to understand their interlocutor's values and behaviours. The awareness of cultural issues may help the learners avoid misunderstandings and conflicts that may arise from an unintentional but inappropriate use of linguistic or even non-verbal communication. As a result interlocutors will function more successfully in a foreign environment or with partners from different cultures.

In conclusion, there are a few salient points that emerge from the above discussion. Firstly, teaching Business English skills differs from teaching the communicative skills in General English courses enormously. There is a clear distinction observed due to the fact that the stakeholders are always taken into account and their needs require proper assessment prior to the start of any Business English course. Secondly, teaching negotiations in a foreign language, which remain the most vital ability of any business person, has to be done thoroughly and real conditions must be preserved. Thirdly, the intercultural component is essential and our students should not only have a chance to become familiar with cultural beliefs and practices related to the language they are studying and its cultural context, but also possess and develop a certain degree of awareness regarding their own beliefs and values. Lastly, we should see the teaching of Business English as a process of working creatively with the business content supplied by the students that we as teachers of English then shape in terms of its language.

22.7. References

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Intercultural Dialogue and Multilingual Education

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This final chapter mirrors chapter number 10 (entitled Multilingual Education and Intercultural Dialogue) of the present volume. This time the questions are asked by Richard Johnstone and the responses are offered by Michael Byram. Where 'you' is used, this refers to one or other of the two interlocutors as appropriate.

Q1: 'You have been doing research on intercultural matters for a number of decades now, so what was it that first attracted you to this area?'

It came out of my experience as secondary school teacher, teaching French and German to 13-18 year olds in the 1970s. Their motivation to learn languages was not high and I was often asked 'Why do we have to learn French, sir?' The sense of a satisfied insularity was strong, even though I was working in Kent and we could easily take our pupils to France. As a busy teacher I hoped that my language teaching and our day trips to France would have some positive effect and reduce some of the insularity, but I had no evidence. So this idea remained in the background as I concentrated like other teachers on preparing my pupils for examinations. I was nonetheless convinced that the instrumental rationale for teaching and learning French – 'when you go to France, you will need it' or 'when you are looking for a job it will be useful' – did not cut much ice with most of my pupils, or indeed with me.

When I moved to the University of Durham in 1980 and started training teachers, I found when I interviewed them for the course that, almost always, they held the same hope – usually formulated in terms of 'I want to broaden children's horizons' – and I began to use the research time I was allocated to think about our shared hope more thoroughly, with the intention of finding some concrete evidence.

Having done my previous research in literary critical studies, I needed to learn how to do a new kind of research. I read research methodology and talked to people and eventually with colleagues carried out a substantial empirical project which addressed the question whether learning a foreign language in school leads to increased and improved attitudes to and knowledge of other people – what today would be referred to as ‘Otherness’. The short answer to the question was ‘No, there’s no observable or measurable impact of language teaching’ despite the fact that the teachers we observed shared the same ‘hope’, that language teaching is not just instrumental but educational. Since then I have been trying to find ways of helping teachers to realise their hope in systematic ways which would have impact.

Q2: ‘In what ways has the field developed during this time – are you still attracted by the same things as in the early days, or does the field offer you a different sort of attraction now?’

At the beginning I saw ‘the field’ as being within foreign language education i.e. research and development would be focused on how to improve teaching and learning in the foreign language classroom and activities connected to it, especially visits and exchanges in other countries. This has remained my main focus but I think the field has developed, and so have my interests.

What I found initially was that there was very little research –either conceptual or empirical– on what I original called ‘cultural studies in foreign language education’. This had the advantage that I need not spend a lot of time reading and could just get on with my own research. On the other hand, I only gradually became aware of ‘cross-cultural communication’, referring to the work in the world of international business and commerce and the very active training scene that existed. In a sense this extended the field but there was almost total absence in this work of an interest in language and language learning, one reason why I had not become aware of it earlier. This meant there was – and still is – little common ground. On the other hand it was a good reminder that non-verbal communication is extremely important in all communication, but is (still) not handled in the foreign language classroom.

A couple of years ago I was invited to write a ‘25-years on’ article. It was to start from an article I had written in 1989 for the journal *Language, Culture and Curriculum*. Doing that made me realise that my interests have not diverged from the original focus on the educational value, the pedagogy, the methodology and the assessment of what I would now call ‘intercultural communicative competence’. My latest publications have been concerned with the first three, and with trying to offer teachers concrete help with their ambitions. The question of assessment –in a form which would be useful in schools– remains largely unexplored by myself or others, even though there is much written about assessment in that other field: training for international business and commerce.

The main change or widening of my focus in the meantime has been to look at the relationships between foreign language education and education for citizenship, and how each can enrich the other. This has been the subject of my theoretical writing as well as curriculum research and development projects.

Q3: At the Second International Conference on Bilingual Education in Cordoba we were asked to do a joint plenary on intercultural dialogue and multilingual learning, where we considered the potential links and relationships, can you explain how you see this now?

I just mentioned that I am now very much interested in the relationship between foreign language education and citizenship education. In my part of our joint presentation I presented an example

of how pupils in foreign language classes cooperate with their counterparts in another country – through the internet and using the language they are learning– to develop projects which involve learning about an aspect of societal life and then determining how they can take action in their community to change things for the better. The example I gave was focused on pupils aged about 12 working on environmental issues. Other examples I could have given include university students working together on historical events and their impact on contemporary society.

The teachers involved have learnt from ideas in citizenship education and the key idea of ‘action in the community’. The pupils do project work together on a topic of shared interest such as caring for the environment, and the teachers encourage their pupils to use the target language as a means for learning with and from their counterparts in another country, and then taking action in their own local community.

Although we have not paid much attention to the theory of CLIL or Bilingual Education, the teachers and I have often thought that we are in fact implementing the idea that content can be taught in the language classroom, content which might otherwise be assigned to other subjects or disciplines e.g. social studies or history.

I was struck then by one of the points you made in your part of our presentation on a slide, which I reproduce here (The quote is by an unnamed author and the ‘T’ is Richard Johnstone who was giving the presentation):

Quote:

“One method which is used in an increasing number of Member States, according to the comparative country analysis, is the CLIL method (a teaching method in which the foreign language is used for the teaching of non-language school subjects).”

RJ asks the questions, then (in italics) offers his answers:

I find the above definition given in a prestigious publication to be rather strange:

- Does it have to be a foreign language? No
- What are non-language school subjects? I've no idea!
- Can CLIL imply learning curricular ‘content’
 - through the medium of a foreign language? Yes
 - through the medium of an additional but not foreign language? Yes
- Does the curricular content have to be outside the subject called the foreign/additional language? To this question I say ‘No’. It is possible to have top-class Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) within the subject called the ‘foreign/additional language – e.g. literary, cultural, transversal/interdisciplinary.

RJ: Cordoba 2016

It is the last point which I want to focus on:

Does the curricular content have to be outside the subject called the ‘foreign/additional language’?

To [this] question, I say ‘No’. It is possible to have top-class Content & Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) within the subject called the ‘foreign/additional language’
e.g. literary, cultural, transversal/interdisciplinary

This seems to support our view that we are ‘doing CLIL in the FL classroom’ and furthermore, in some projects not mentioned in my presentation, but published in our books, there are also examples of transversal/ interdisciplinary work. Some of the best examples of this are in the primary school where teachers are less subject-oriented and find it easier to work together across the curriculum.

Another of your slides was also particularly striking for me and I copy it here overleaf. It lists the qualities of good teaching as derived from your observation of bilingual education. Not surprisingly there are ‘good general teaching strategies’ as well as those specific to CLIL/ Bilingual Education. The projects which we have developed and published so far have involved a good deal of reflection and self-analysis but I think we also need to examine systematically the strategies we use - and then evaluate them. I think your work provides the basis for doing this. We need to ask ourselves if and to what extent our work exhibits these characteristics:

BILINGUAL EDUCATION: AN EXAMPLE OF ‘QUALITY OF TEACHING’ AND HOW IT WAS DERIVED

<p>Examples of Good Classroom Practice from the BEP (Spain) evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These were not conceived in the abstract but were derived from the systematic observation of successful classroom performance by students (e.g. when attending, initiating, collaborating, displaying appropriate language) and analysis of what their teachers were doing when the students displayed successful learning or participation. <p>GOOD GENERAL TEACHING STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creates relaxed, focused and respectful atmosphere • Adapts material to suit different student need • Requires class to ask probing questions about peers’ presentations • Monitors progress sensitively • Steers students away from the anecdotal and guides towards underlying principles • Provides clear explanations • Checks for understanding • Asks questions which guide thinking but still pose a challenge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prompts students to draw on their own latent knowledge • Encourages peer assessment & evaluation • Encourages students to work things out for themselves • Helps students clarify the consequences of particular processes • Constantly • Requires regular presentations by students to whole class <p>WITH INTEGRATED LANGUAGE FOCUS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps develop initial drafting skills, e.g. What do you need to take into account? • Expects high standards of pronunciation & spelling • Elicits precise use of language • Focuses on spelling distinctions, e.g. flour / flower • Helps students express particular relationships, e.g. The more the more; the less the less • Sensitisation to the types of discourse that go with particular subject areas <p>RJ: Cordoba 2016</p>
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Q4: ‘What are the research topics/is the research agenda which need to be pursued in intercultural language teaching?’

First and foremost – and most obvious and most difficult – is the question of assessment. There are plenty of tests and ‘assessment centres’ for the assessment of cross-cultural communication competence in the world of business and commerce. One only has to go online to find these being offered on a commercial basis but, not surprisingly, they do not include language competences. They focus on whether people might be ready for an assignment in another country and give feedback to employers, for example, on the basis of which they can make decisions. This is clearly important but such assessments would not be appropriate for educational institutions.

We need assessments which are focused on the achievement of learners during a course of study, assessments which take into consideration how intercultural communicative competence is taught in language classrooms, and assessments which are robust enough to meet the exacting demands of examinations, and certification. The backwash effect would, as we know, give a boost to the cultural dimension of language teaching – or languaculture teaching as we might better call what we do, or could and should do.

This is the one big area which is awaiting substantial research and development but which would also require substantial funding. I don't have the institutional basis for this kind of work myself now. I hope someone will pick this up. I have seen for example very good work on 'intercultural communicative language teaching' (iCLT) in New Zealand; perhaps they will take this on.

Q5: 'What are the questions that you think policy deciders will ask about intercultural language teaching?'

The answer to this is partly related to the previous point i.e. policy makers will want to know about assessment if they are to give intercultural language teaching more emphasis. They do already of course pay lip-service. One can find statements about the importance of this aspect of language teaching in policy documents such as the English National Curriculum and the Chinese document on 'College English' to take two contrasting examples.

Here are two slides which I use in workshops.

The first was prepared by Gillian Peiser of Liverpool Hope University, based on the English National Curriculum:

**Department for Education
National Curriculum 2014**

Preamble relating to the 'purpose of study takes up many of the arguments advocated in previous documents for learning languages:

- liberation from insularity
- opening to other cultures
- foster pupils' curiosity
- deepen their understanding of the world
- learn new ways of thinking
- equipping pupils to study and work in other cultures

MB

The second was translated for me by Han Hui of Zhejiang Yuexiu University:

China
College English Teaching Guideline

College English is part of the humanity (liberal arts) education and it represents both instrumental and humanistic features:

4,2,3 Intercultural communication course

Intercultural communication course aims at intercultural education, helps students *understand* the different outlook, values, thinking modes between China and other countries, cultivate the students; *intercultural awareness*, improve their social linguistic *and intercultural communication ability*.

MB

Textbook writers also play their role in policy-making and implementation since it is in textbooks that teachers can find suggestions for methods and materials, and might introduce these into their thinking and their teaching even without the impulse of examinations.

This raises the second thing which I think policy makers might ask. They know that teachers are trained as 'language teachers', that they often identify as language teachers because of the university studies they have followed. They do not see themselves as languaculture teachers

because they feel unsure about the methodology and their own expertise for 'teaching culture'. Policy makers will or should therefore ask about what should happen in teacher training courses. I have tried to give a preliminary answer to this and of course also include some work on this in my own work as a teacher-trainer whenever I am involved these days. What is needed however is a substantial programme integrated into pre-service training and that is still not available as far as I know.

Q6: 'You are also of course interested in language teaching in general, how do you see the relationship of intercultural language teaching to the wider field?'

I am aware as I said above that language teachers see themselves often as teachers of language and this is not wrong. Language teaching in the sense of helping learners to be able to communicate in written and spoken forms of a language is the heart of what we do. There are many questions involved in this from methods used to questions of gender or motivation or process of learning and acquisition. However, I do not think that the cultural dimension is simply an 'add-on' or a 'fifth skill' as someone once called it. Neither is it a matter of learning information about another country as 'background studies' or 'Landeskunde' etc. which imply that the cultural dimension is indeed only an extra to be addressed when there is time, and that it is about 'teaching culture'.

I think the cultural dimension needs to be integrated with the linguistic dimension as a whole – hence the attraction of the term 'languaculture'. That would then mean that all the attention which has hitherto been focused on linguistic competence is also focused on intercultural competence, whether it is languaculture acquisition, vocabulary teaching, motivation and methods or whatever. This is a change which has not yet taken place and will take a long time although there are optimistic signs.

Q7: 'What are you currently writing/researching?'

I am working with colleagues at the University of Connecticut. One is a linguist and the other is a mathematician and, together with teams of students and schoolteachers, they are looking at how a model of intercultural competence can help in the development of both language teaching and mathematics teaching. We have written some articles on this.

I am also still involved with teachers at schools and universities in developing intercultural communicative language teaching in practical ways which can be made accessible to other teachers and this means publishing too.

On a completely different track I am working on a European project on the experience of PhD students and their supervisors, comparing the experience in different European universities; we also have one Chinese university in our project. This interest arises from the fact that for the last decade or so of my full-time work I transferred from language teacher training to being in charge of doctoral studies and had many doctoral students myself. But that is another story for another day.

Finally, whenever I have time, I work on a project about international education in the 1920s. My PhD was focused on the 1920s, albeit on Danish literature, and this 'hobby' allows me to connect with that interest in indirect ways. I seem to be too busy to spend time on this at the moment.

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La educación del alumnado a través de dos (o más) lenguas es uno de los desarrollos más apasionantes de la educación en el mundo hoy día. Esta se encuentra en forma de educación bilingüe en muchos países, ya sea en las etapas pre-escolar, primaria, secundaria o en niveles post-escolares (incluyendo la universidad).

Asimismo, la educación bilingüe ofrece potenciales y considerables beneficios, al tiempo que la experiencia de su implementación sugiere internacionalmente que se necesita una cuidada planificación política y una extensa investigación para identificar y establecer las condiciones necesarias para la consecución de su éxito. España está consiguiendo una merecida reputación por su compromiso a gran escala con la innovación y la investigación en este campo, incluyendo en algunos lugares la educación trilingüe.

Esta publicación se centra, fundamentalmente, en experiencias españolas de educación bilingüe en forma de español + inglés en la escuela y en la universidad, sin menoscabo de las contribuciones de otros países, que también aparecen recogidas en esta obra. Una característica clave de este libro es el papel de la investigación, gran parte de la cual ha sido llevada a cabo por investigadores y grupos de investigación en España (en muchos casos, colaborando con colegas de otros países), para producir un ingente corpus de evidencias al que los padres, profesores y autoridades regionales y nacionales pueden acercarse para ayudar a la educación bilingüe a asegurarse un futuro positivo y sostenible. Mientras que muchos de los capítulos se presentan en forma de informes provenientes de la investigación sobre educación bilingüe, dos de los capítulos se presentan en forma de entrevistas sobre temas más amplios de educación bilingüe y sobre su posible relación con la comunicación intercultural en la compleja sociedad global en la que vivimos hoy día

Multilingualism

The European Commission is very keen to promote language learning and linguistic diversity across Europe so as to improve basic language skills.

(https://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/multilingualism_en)

La política lingüística

Como parte de sus esfuerzos para promover la movilidad y el entendimiento intercultural, la Unión Europea considera el aprendizaje de lenguas como una importante prioridad y financia numerosos programas y proyectos en este ámbito. Para la Unión, el multilingüismo es un elemento importante de la competitividad europea, por lo que uno de los objetivos de la política lingüística de la Unión es que todo ciudadano europeo domine, además de su lengua materna, otros dos idiomas.

(http://www.europarl.europa.eu/atyourservice/es/displayFtu.html?ftuld=FTU_5.13.6.html)

Bilingual education

Bilingual education is an umbrella term for many types of programs in which two languages are used for instruction.

(<http://www.cal.org/areas-of-impact/english-learners/bilingual-and-dual-language-education>)

Programas de inmersión lingüística

El aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras en la educación básica constituye, sin duda ninguna, un objetivo educativo de interés general e indispensable para la mejora del propio sistema educativo. La Ley Orgánica para la mejora de la calidad educativa, apoya decididamente el plurilingüismo, fomentando medidas para conseguir que los estudiantes se desenvuelvan con fluidez al menos en una primera lengua extranjera. (<https://www.mecd.gob.es/educacion-mecd/mc/bilinguismo/ayudas.html>)