UNIVERSITAT DE BARCELONA

English language learning in CLIL and EFL classroom settings: a look at two primary education schools

Anna Marsol Jornet

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN CLIL AND EFL CLASSROOM SETTINGS: A LOOK AT TWO PRIMARY EDUCATION SCHOOLS

Tesi doctoral presentada per

Anna Marsol Jornet

com a requeriment per a l'obtenció del títol de

Doctora en Filologia Anglesa

Programa de doctorat: *Lingüística Aplicada*

(Bienni 2006-2008)

Departament de Filologia Anglesa i Alemanya

Directora: **Dra. Elsa Tragant Mestres**

Universitat de Barcelona

2015

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn."

— Benjamin Franklin

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the help, advice and support I have received from a number of people, to whom I would like to express my most sincere gratitude. These few paragraphs are dedicated to all of them.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Elsa Tragant, who first introduced me to the world of research and academic life when I was just an undergraduate student. She believed in me from the very beginning, transmitted me her enthusiasm and has definitely accompanied me during the whole process. She not only has guided my research with invaluable knowledge, but she has been supportive and patient all along the way. It has been a real privilege to work with her all these years.

I am indebted to Dr. Tarja Nikula for her warm welcome to cold Finland back in 2009 when this dissertation was just beginning to take shape. I am particularly grateful for her dedication and extremely insightful comments during my research stay in the Centre for Applied Language Studies at the University of Jyväskylä (Finland).

My heartfelt thanks to Dr. Carme Muñoz for giving me the opportunity to grow as a researcher and for being a source of motivation at all times. I would also like to thank all the members of the GRAL research team who have also contributed, in one way or another, to my development as a researcher all these years. I am especially grateful to Dr. M. Luz Celaya and Dr. Imma Miralpeix for their constant encouragement and readiness to help. Thanks to Dr. Roger Gilabert for sharing his knowledge about task-based learning and for his willingness to help whenever necessary. I would also like to thank Dr. Teresa Navés for sharing her expertise in CLIL and for providing valuable feedback during the first stages. I am thankful to Dr. Raquel Serrano and Dr. Àngels Llanes for having shared their knowledge while working together on a number of projects all these years and for their friendly encouragement. Special thanks to Dr. Mia Victori for all I learnt about CLIL from her when I was just embarking on this journey. I would also like to thank Dr. Joan Carles Mora, Eva Cerviño, Dr. Mar Suárez, Dr. Sara Feijoo, Dr. Laura Sánchez and Dr. Natalia Fullana for their support.

Many thanks to Mireia Ortega and Dr. Mayya Levkina for having shared their professional and personal life on countless cups of coffee. Also thanks to former research assistants and now colleagues Cristina Aliaga and Dr. Aleksandra Malicka.

Thanks to my colleagues and friends from the English Department, especially Dr. Joe Hilferty for his unceasing support and advice, Dr. Eli Comelles for our office chats about thesis updates and Dr. Natàlia Judith Laso for always making things easier when it comes to combining teaching and research.

I will be eternally indebted to the schools, teachers and students who very willingly opened their classroom doors to let me in and to those people who gave me a hand during the process of data collection, data analysis and the editing of this dissertation.

I gratefully acknowledge the financial help of the grant FI (Formació d'Investigadors) from Generalitat de Catalunya, which allowed me to work as a research assistant for four years and to spend three months abroad fully devoted to this work. This research has also been partly supported by the grants from the Ministry of Education and Science (HUM2004-05167/FILO; HUM2007-64302) and the Ministry of Science and Innovation (FFI2010-18006).

Special thanks to my sweet "soul sister", Dr. Júlia Barón, for *always* being there to take good care of me and for loving me so much. And a hundred thank-yous to all my friends for their never-ending encouragement and for raising my spirits with their love and laughs. They *still* keep asking me "What's your PhD about?" and it's *still* impossible for me not to giggle at their puzzlement when I introduce them to "*Mr. CLIL*".

Gràcies a tota la meva família pel seu suport i molt especialment al meu avi Albert que, tot i que se'n va anar just a l'inici d'aquest viatge, sempre m'ha acompanyat i sé que sempre estarà orgullós de mi. Mil gràcies als meus pares per la seva paciència i ajuda incansable i per estimar-me tant i tant. M'ho han donat tot en aquesta vida i, sense cap mena de dubte, no els hi podré agraïr mai prou. Nomes us puc dir: moltes gràcies.

Finalment, gràcies al Guillem que m'ha donat l'alegria i l'empenta per récorrer els últims quilòmetres d'aquest llarg viatge. Ha estat al meu costat quan la llum al final del túnel s'esvaïa per moments, però sempre m'ha fet creure en la llum brillant que m'esperava al final del camí. I ara ens esperen mil-i-un projectes junts! No em cansaré mai de donar-te les gràcies per estimar-me i cuidar-me tant.

Als meus pares, Pili i Florenci

ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the English language learning experience of primary school learners in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom settings. It focuses, on the one hand, on learners' oral language production during whole class and pair/group work and, on the other hand, it also explores the amount and type of teacher corrective feedback to address language form in each instructional setting.

One of the potential benefits of CLIL instruction is considered to be the increasing quality time offered to learners who are expected to use the second/foreign language in a wide range of communicative situations to suit higher cognitive and linguistic task demands than do learners in regular EFL instruction. Although previous research has pointed towards the positive boost of CLIL on some aspects of learners' foreign language proficiency level, little classroom-based evidence is available to show how learners actually use the language in productive ways and how this compares to their language output in the EFL context. In addition, the quantity and quality of attention to language form in the CLIL context with its dual-focused approach has also been of growing concern in the CLIL research landscape. Previous research has generally indicated that attention to form is scarce in CLIL lessons due to the more content-led nature of CLIL tasks, whereas EFL lessons tend to concentrate on a number of target forms and structures which are systematically analysed and practised.

Thus, the present study is based on two classes of 5th year primary education students who receive CLIL instruction in addition to regular EFL instruction with the same teacher teaching both subjects in each of the two participating schools. The data consist of audio and video recordings of a whole teaching unit in each context, that is, 3 CLIL lessons and 4 EFL lessons in one school and 4 CLIL lessons and 4 EFL lessons in the other school (12 hours and 52 minutes of class time).

The main findings show there is not a big gap between the oral production of learners in the CLIL context and the EFL context in the two schools, but there is a subtle tendency for learners in the CLIL context to produce longer strings of language in both schools. Additionally, learner production is predominantly based on the pre-defined model sentences presented by the teacher in the two instructional contexts in both schools. Therefore, there is little room for spontaneous student-created L2 production in the two learning contexts. It has also been shown that L1 production is more numerous in the CLIL context than in the EFL context in the two schools but the role of the L1 is rather different. Furthermore, contrary to what most previous research on CLIL has shown, the present results indicate that there is space to focus on form not only in the EFL context but also in the CLIL context in the two schools under analysis. Different types of teacher corrective feedback have been identified throughout the implementation of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units. Recasts have been shown to outnumber prompts in the two contexts though the number of prompts is greater in the EFL context than in the CLIL context. Differences across instructional settings have been carefully looked at by bearing in mind contextual variables like teaching approach, context familiarity and teacher profile, among others.

This investigation sheds some new light on what is actually going on in CLIL and EFL classes with evidence to be used in teacher training schemes to make the most

of the two instructional contexts in order to provide a rich English language learning experience.

RESUM

Aquesta tesi estudia l'experiència d'aprenentatge de l'anglès d'aprenents en l'etapa d'educació primària en contextos d'aprenentatge integrat de continguts curriculars i llengua estrangera (AICLE; en anglès *Content and Language Integrated Learning*, CLIL) i en contextos d'aprenentatge de l'anglès com a assignatura de llengua (en anglès *English as a Foreign Langauge*, EFL). La investigació se centra, per una banda, en la producció oral dels aprenents en els intercanvis mestre/a-alumne/a durant el treball com a grup-classe o per parelles/grups; d'altra banda, també explora la quantitat i la tipologia de la retroalimentació proporcionada per la mestra, és a dir, la informació sobre la correcció de la pròpia producció en cadascun dels contextos d'aprenentatge.

Un dels beneficis potencials del contextos AICLE és la millora qualitativa del temps dedicat a la llengua estrangera donat que s'espera que els alumnes utilitzin la segona llengua o llengua estrangera en una àmplia varietat de situacions comunicatives que són més exigents des del punt de vista cognitiu i lingüístic en comparació als contextos d'aprenentatge formal de la llengua estrangera. Tot i que la recerca actual sobre AICLE apunta a un efecte positiu d'aquest tipus d'aprenentatge vers el nivell de domini de la llengua estrangera, molts pocs estudis s'han centrat en com els aprenents utilitzen la llengua de manera productiva i també com es diferencia de la producció oral en una classe on l'anglès és únicament objecte d'estudi. A més, la quantitat i la qualitat de l'atenció a la forma en els contextos AICLE –tenint en compte la doble atenció als continguts i a la llengua estrangera de forma integrada– també ha estat un dels temes tractats dins de la literatura existent. Estudis anteriors han indicat que l'atenció a la forma és molt limitada a les classes AICE donada la naturalesa de les tasques, que se centren majoritàriament en el contingut. D'altra banda, les classes amb un enfocament més tradicional centren l'atenció en una sèrie de formes i estructures lingüístiques que s'analitzen i practiquen de forma sistemàtica.

Per tant, aquest estudi es basa en dos grups d'aprenents de 5è d'educació primària que aprenen l'anglès a través de l'aprenentatge integrat de continguts i llengua estrangera i també mitjançant l'aprenentatge de l'anglès com a llengua estrangera amb la mateixa professora en ambdós contextos a les dues escoles que han participat en la investigació. La base de dades de l'estudi inclou una sèrie d'enregistraments en format àudio i vídeo d'una unitat didàctica completa en cadascun dels contextos d'aprenentatge, és a dir, 3 sessions AICLE i 4 sessions d'anglès tradicional en una escola i 4 sessions AICLE més 4 sessions d'anglès tradicional a l'altra escola (12 hores i 52 minuts d'enregistraments).

Els resultats indiquen que no hi ha una gran diferència entre la producció oral dels aprenents en el context AICLE vers el context d'aprenentatge tradicional en les dues escoles, però sí que s'observa certa tendència per part dels alumnes en el primer cas a generar produccions més llargues a les dues escoles. Tanmateix, la producció dels aprenents es basa majoritàriament en les frases model definides per la mestra en els dos contextos d'aprenentatge a les dues escoles. Per tant, hi ha molt poca cabuda per a

les produccions més espontànies creades pels propis aprenents en els dos contextos d'aprenentatge. Els resultats també indiquen que les produccions orals en la llengua materna són més nombroses en el context AICLE a les dues escoles però el rol és també força diferent. Altrament, a diferència del que han evidenciat la majoria dels estudis realitzats en contextos AICLE, els resultats d'aquest estudi indiquen que hi han oportunitats per parar atenció a la forma lingüística no només en el context d'aprenentatge tradicional sinó també en el context d'aprenentatge integrat en les dues escoles que han estat objecte d'estudi. S'han identificat diferents tipus de correccions retroactives de la mestra pel que fa a l'ús correcte de la llengua al llarg de l'anàlisi de les unitats didàctiques investigades en ambdós contextos. Pel que fa a l'ús de les reformulacions (*recasts*), aquestes són més nombroses que les indicacions (*prompts*) per part de la mestra per iniciar una negociació de la forma tot i que aquest últim tipus és més freqüent en el context tradicional d'aprenentatge a les dues escoles. Les diferències entre els dos contextos d'aprenentatge s'han examinat tenint en compte variables contextuals com la metodologia d'ensenyament, el grau de familiaritat amb el context d'aprenentatge i el perfil de la mestra, entre d'altres.

Aquesta tesi aporta noves evidències a la recerca sobre el que realment passa a les classes que segueixen cadascun dels enfocaments. Aquesta informació pot ser útil en el disseny de programes de formació del professorat amb l'objectiu d'aprofitar al màxim el que ofereix cada context d'aprenentatge i poder així oferir una experiència d'aprenentatge de la llengua anglesa rica.

CONTENTS

INDEX OF TABLES

INDEX OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

In the era of globalisation and internationalisation, it is undeniably true that the command of foreign languages –English being the lingua franca par excellence– is at the forefront of education agendas across the globe. Since the early 1990s, the European Union has shown a growing interest in the adoption of an educational model to enhance the value of European linguistic diversity as well as to ensure sustainable levels of foreign language proficiency. The White Paper "Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning Society" (Commission of the European Communities, 1995) proposed the "2 + 1" formula, which advocated that European citizens should be able to use their own language as well as two other languages. With this objective in mind, the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners working under the remit of the European Commission funding coined the term "Content and Language Integrated Learning", well-known by the acronym *CLIL*. This was defined as "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: 1). CLIL was then used as an umbrella term to subsume different types of emerging

bilingual education, immersion experiences and content-based instruction across a range of European countries. These were basically inspired by the overall successful results obtained by Canadian immersion education, in which English-speaking students received subject-matter instruction via French, and bilingual language teaching programs in North America back in the 1960s.

In the case of Spain, CLIL programmes have been embraced by the educational authorities in many Spanish Autonomous Communities as a way to enhance the levels of English as a foreign language –or French in some cases– by offering added exposure to the foreign language through the integration of language and non-linguistic content. Even though children in Spain are in contact with English for at least 10 years before compulsory education finishes, results do not match such investment of time and effort. In fact, at the end of compulsory education when aged 15, Spanish teenagers have been reported to lag behind their European peers in their English language proficiency yet having received instruction for a greater number of years.[1]

The starting age for foreign language learning has been progressively moved forward –being at 6 years old by law– supported by the once alleged superiority of young starters at implicit language learning. However, it has been empirically proven that instructed language learners do not have access to the amount and type of input that learners have in a naturalistic language learning setting. Thus, it is older learners the ones who benefit the most from explicit language learning in an instructed language learning setting because of their greater cognitive maturity (Celaya, Torras

[1] Estudio Europeo de Competencia Lingüística (EECL). Sistema estatal de indicadores de la educación (edición 2012). Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte (MEC).

and Pérez-Vidal, 2001; Cenoz, 2002; García Mayo and García Lecumberri, 2003; Miralpeix, 2008; Muñoz 2006, Navés, 2006). All these research findings have led to argue that the earlier may be better but provided it is associated with enough significant exposure and, more specifically, such exposure needs to be intensively distributed (Serrano, 2007, 2011; Serrano and Muñoz, 2007) and learners should be given opportunities to participate in a variety of L2 social contexts. This is where CLIL comes in addition to regular EFL learning.

There are four components have been considered key in the acquisition of a second/foreign language: exposure to input, processing of meaning, processing of form and language production. According to Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis, abundant and comprehensible input that is slightly beyond the learners' current level (i+1) is a must. Apart from quantity and comprehensibility, such input also needs to be qualitatively powerful, that is, it needs to be presented in a range of communicative situations that are meaningful to the learners. In this respect, traditional EFL programmes have been reported as offering limited exposure to input only some hours per week during school time. Input is not always authentic and the language is basically treated as an object to be analysed from the viewpoint of grammar structures, vocabulary, etc. Besides, input is functionally restricted since it is limited to that provided by the textbook and it is not used communicatively to reach a particular objective. On the other hand, CLIL has been embraced as providing plenty of input which is real and meaningful at the same time because it relates to the content (History, Maths, P.E., Science, etc.) presented and the language is used for communicative purposes.

Secondly, comprehensible input needs to be processed for meaning (Skehan, 1998), but only real and communicative will be perceived as necessary to process. Thus, if EFL input does not motivate learners because it is textbook-based and it has nothing to do with communicative language use, EFL learners are not really compelled to process it for meaning. On the contrary, if content is attractive in itself to get to know about a historical event or a scientific procedure, learners will feel motivated to process meaning.

Thirdly, learners need to be encouraged to process linguistic form as well in order to incorporate it to their linguistic system. In the EFL context, the processing of form is encouraged when the teacher explicitly draws the learners' attention to certain formal aspects of the language. However, bearing in mind that language forms are often decontextualized and devoid of meaning, more often than not learners might not feel the need to remain alert and pay attention to such forms (Schmidt, 1990). In the CLIL context, if the learners are motivated by the communication itself, it is more likely that they engage in form-function analysis because they feel the urge to attend to form if they are to understand the content at hand. Nevertheless, a lesson in which content is taught through the medium of a second or foreign language does not always guarantee a focus on form.

Lastly, according to Swain's Output Hypothesis, complex verbal production is necessary as evidence of correct language processing. Learners should have numerous and varied opportunities to speak and write in different contexts and with different aims (Swain, 1995), and this has not traditionally been the case in EFL instruction. Linguistic production is limited, it does not generally require deep processing and is

not based on real communication, which leads to demotivation on the part of the learner. On the other hand, the challenge of working on the oral production of learners can be easily taken on in CLIL by including tasks that involve different forms of language production in order to achieve a real communicative goal. Like this, the learners will feel the urge to use the language productively in order to communicate. Furthermore, once articulated, the learners can be made aware of their errors and receive corrective feedback in the classroom setting (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2004).

All things considered, EFL instruction presents a number of limitations or shortcomings which do not really contribute to enhance the learning of English as a foreign language. CLIL instruction has been embraced as an alternative in the current educational system that could overcome the deficiencies of a more traditional approach to language learning. Although a number of studies have already pointed to the benefits of engaging in CLIL instruction in terms of language gains, there is a need for more research on the actual learning conditions of CLIL lessons and the learning experience of CLIL students that would help establish what makes it different from traditional EFL instruction.

Chapter 2 presents the theoretical background that supports the present study and provides an overview of the research conducted in CLIL within the last two decades. The first section provides an overview of studies with a focus on pedagogical aspects of CLIL. The second section deals with SLA-based research studies touching upon a number of aspects which have been considered key in the acquisition of a foreign language as well as pragmatic studies which deal with the appropriate use of

the language. The last section reviews more recent studies that seek to integrate content and language learning by drawing the model provided by Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth, SFL).

Chapter 3 presents the research questions that motivated the present study and provides a thorough description of methodology employed including a description of the participating schools, the teachers and the learners as well as the design of the study and procedures followed for data analysis. The chapter finishes with a snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL instructional contexts including a general overview of CLIL and EFL lessons and of the teaching units under analysis, in particular, with an account of learners' perceptions of what they enjoyed the most and the least of each of the two instructional contexts.

Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 present the results obtained in relation to the research questions presented in the previous chapter. A quantitative overview of the findings precedes a qualitative account of the results by means of a range of classroom excerpts. Each section ends with a summary of commonalities between the CLIL context and the EFL context. At the end of the chapter, a list of the common points found in the two schools concerning CLIL and EFL classroom settings is also presented. The findings presented in these two chapters are discussed in Chapter 6 in the light of previous research.

Finally, Chapter 7 offers some final conclusions, in which the results from this dissertation are summarised. Then, limitations are pointed out and some ideas are suggested for further research. The references and the appendices are provided after this concluding chapter.

CHAPTER 2

An overview of classroom-based CLIL research

2.1. Introduction

The introduction of CLIL into the educational systems across Europe and its progressive development during the last decades have encouraged the production of research studies in different directions giving rise to a varied CLIL research landscape. Dalton-Puffer & Smit's (2007) and Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit (2010) have described the wide CLIL research space by drawing on the dimensions macro vs. micro and product vs. process. According to such classification, CLIL research involving both product-oriented and process-oriented macro studies take the form of reports on the implementation of CLIL programmes (Badertscher & Bieri, 2009; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009, for instance) and descriptions of general guidelines (Breidbach, Bach & Wolff, 2002; Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Marsh, 2002; Marsh & Langé, 2000). At the micro-level, concern has been shown from the origins of CLIL research towards product-oriented studies which aimed at examining CLIL results in terms of language learning outcomes. In fact, three different large-scale studies conducted in The Netherlands, Spain and Germany, accordingly, have already dealt with overall language gains (Admiral, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Lasagabaster, 2008, Zydatiß, 2007)

and other studies have particularly addressed discrete linguistic aspects like vocabulary, pronunciation and morphosyntax (Sylvén, 2004; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán, 2009). In fact, this has been the main source of CLIL research for a number of years up until quite recently when interest in the process in relation to the product has been increasing. Therefore, process-oriented micro studies aim at exploring CLIL lessons in terms of their pedagogical design and the local interactive experience that learners have in CLIL lessons as learning environments, often providing a comparative account of CLIL and L1 subject-matter or CLIL and regular EFL classes. The present study seeks to contribute to this last strand within the ample CLIL research scene.

Although process-oriented research in CLIL classrooms has mostly concentrated around secondary education research, studies conducted in primary education and tertiary education are also reviewed in this chapter. Furthermore, bearing in mind that there exists a long research tradition in discourse analysis that has drawn on a variety of theoretical models coming from different disciplines and used a variety of descriptive frameworks to approach classroom data, the studies presented in this chapter also reflect such varied landscape in line with Dalton-Puffer's (2007: 42) claim that "the complexity which characterizes classroom discourse as an object of research interest makes it difficult to envisage a theoretical and/or descriptive framework which will do equal justice to all aspects of the event". Thus, following Nikula, Dalton-Puffer and Llinares' (2013) recent classification of CLIL classroom interaction, the following pages will be devoted to the review of CLIL studies from three different perspectives, based on whether they are primarily oriented to (a) CLIL classroom interaction as evidence of second/foreign language learning, (b) foreign

language use and social-interactional aspects and (c) knowledge construction processes. What is more, methodological frameworks for data analysis also include a range of theoretical constructs from the field of SLA, from discourse analytic and pragmatic frameworks and, finally, from an SFL standpoint (Halliday, 1993) that considers language as a social semiotic system. It needs to be highlighted that the overlapping of perspectives and approaches across these three strands is evident at some points in this literature review, but far from being an obstacle, such combination is considered to make research findings more robust. The table at the end of these chapter (Table 1) contains a list of some of the main research studies reviewed in each of these strands together with information on the object of study, whether it is a comparative study of CLIL and EFL or L1 subject matter or not, the country where the study took place, the educational level, the number of classroom participants and the non-linguistic subjects covered. It must be noted that the terms "second language" (L2) and "foreign language" (FL) have been used interchangeably –unless when it is explicitly stated– throughout this dissertation and the same holds true for the distinction between "language acquisition" and "language learning".

2.2. Second/foreign language learning: pedagogical practice and interactional features of CLIL classroom settings

Questions of second/foreign language learning in terms of CLIL pedagogical design and opportunities for classroom interaction have featured prominently in CLIL research. This section includes interaction-based studies that draw on constructs deriving from SLA research (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lantolf, 2000; Long, 1996; Swain, 1995), including those studies grounded in a more sociocultural and/or social-

constructivist learning theory (Bruner, 1990; Vygotsky, 1978). In particular, aspects related the negotiation of meaning, the provision of corrective feedback and attention to form, output production and task-based learning will be looked at throughout the chapter.

Negotiation of meaning has been considered to play an essential role in interaction as a guarantee of mutual understanding among the interlocutors. Such is the importance of negotiation while interacting that speakers tend to make use of different strategies in order to overcome the communicative obstacles or difficulties they encounter and avoid communication breakdowns or misunderstandings (Mariotti 2006, 2007; Foster & Ohta, 2005). Paralleling negotiation of meaning studies in naturalistic L2 classroom contexts (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Musumeci, 1996), studies on the negotiation of meaning (henceforth, NoM) in CLIL have pursued two different lines of research. On the one hand, CLIL lessons have been compared to regular EFL classrooms in order to check whether the former afford more opportunities for negotiation due to their double focus on content and language and, therefore, provide a richer language learning environment than the traditional EFL classrooms where the language is the object of study. On the other hand, other CLIL studies have concentrated on the study of negotiation episodes to compare the construction of subject specific concepts in CLIL and L1 subject matter classrooms.

Studies like Badertscher & Bieri (2009) found the number of NoMs was twice as high in the CLIL lessons as in the L1 lessons, which was also supported by Lochtman (2007) when comparing CLIL and EFL classes. When examining the initiator of such sequences, Mariotti (2006) reported a high share of student clarification requests when

examining CLIL classrooms, while Badertscher & Bieri (2009) did not provide evidence of such high rate of student-initiated negotiation sequences in both CLIL and L1 lessons. As pointed out by Mariotti (2006), results need to be examined with caution taking into account that the interactional space available for negotiation episodes might be influenced by the pedagogical design of the lessons. In fact, although student-initiated NoMs were frequent in Mariotti's study, the fact that there were two teachers in the classroom might have somehow discouraged an even greater incidence of learner-initiated negotiations. Furthermore, the learners' degree of familiarity with CLIL and their negotiation behaviour over time might also have an impact on the number of learner-initiated negotiations, which is evidenced by Smit's (2010a) longitudinal study of a tertiary level group of students who take an active student negotiation behaviour as they appear to be cognitively mature and gain familiarity with CLIL instruction.

What is more, the provision of corrective feedback in response to learner language errors has also been a core topic in SLA research (Basturkmen, Lowen & Ellis, 2004; Mackey, 2007). With regard to CLIL, the question remains as to if and how content and language are attended to given the dual-focused nature of CLIL as compared to regular EFL contexts. A number of comparative studies targeting CLIL and EFL contexts have provided evidence of the higher rate of error treatment in EFL than in CLIL (Hampl, 2011; Lochtman, 2007; Schuitemaker-King, 2012). Nevertheless, Hampl (2011) showed that, even though errors were more readily treated in EFL, students made more language errors in CLIL, which was attributed to the fact that CLIL learners talked more and monitored less due to their greater focus on the

meaning than on the language form. As for the type of learner errors, Dalton-Puffer (2007) and Llinares, Morton & Whittaker (2012), this latter study extending the traditional focus-on-form approach in SLA to a focus on language functions in academic registers and genres, showed similar results indicating that corrective feedback in CLIL tends to focus on lexical errors as well as on pronunciation errors. In the case of morphosyntactic errors, they were less frequently corrected in both studies. Nevertheless, such order of preference does not match Lyster's (2007) study on Canadian immersion, where pronunciation errors received the least amount of attention.

When CLIL and EFL are compared, Hampl (2011) contends that grammatical errors prevailed over other error types in both contexts, followed by pronunciation and lexical errors. Therefore, all these research results yield inconclusive results, which point towards the influential role of teacher style and preferences when it comes to error correction. In interviews conducted with Austrian CLIL teachers, Dalton-Puffer (2007) could identify differences related to the teachers' profile. Subject teachers who had no EFL qualifications professed they were very much concerned about correcting errors that were repeated –like missing 3rd person –s in verb forms. Quite differently, EFL teachers who were teaching CLIL were less concerned about correcting language mistakes and, in fact, they transmitted this message to the learners. Nevertheless, such teacher reflections did not really map onto what happened during classroom interaction since EFL teachers tended to correct more language errors than their non-EFL counterparts. Along these lines, more research is needed in a wide variety of CLIL

classrooms, especially comparative studies addressing CLIL and EFL, with a variety of teacher styles and preferences for error correction.

Turning to the way student errors are treated in classroom interaction, recasts have been observed to be by far the most frequently used feedback type, as has also been reported by studies conducted in immersion contexts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2000; Lee, 2006) EFL/ESL contexts (Ellis et al. 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002) and CLIL and immersion contexts (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). In the context of CLIL side by side EFL, Hampl (2011) demonstrated that more than 50% of errors were met with recasts in both settings. In regard to prompts, metalinguistic feedback was preferred by EFL teachers (16.5%), whereas only a small number of this feedback type was found in CLIL (3%). Clarification requests elicitations and repetitions under the category of prompts were hardly identified in both contexts. In a similar vein, Schuitemaker-King's (2012) found extremely few examples of metalinguistic feedback in CLIL, whereas it was the most frequent feedback type in EFL. In Perez-Vidal's preliminary study (2007), no instances of corrective feedback to address learners' inaccurate language use in CLIL were identified. As Lotchman (2007) argued, corrective feedback that pushes learners to correct form would be a desirable addition to CLIL classrooms, very much in line with Lyster's (2007) "counterbalanced" approach that aims at integrating both content-based and form-focused instructional options as complementary ways of intervening to develop learners' interlanguage system. As pointed out by Llinares & Lyster (2014), the majority of learner repair moves in their CLIL classrooms followed recasts, whereas their variety of immersion classrooms showed learner repair following both recasts and prompts. However, different types of recasts –didactic and

conversational recasts– were identified in related to a number of context-specific influences that might help explain such findings.

An aspect that has received growing attention in CLIL research is the quantity and quality of student output by focusing on teacher question as triggering students' language production. Previous research both within the field of SLA and general education (Long & Sato, 1983; Mehan, 1979) have traditionally worked with a number of question types (display/referential, open/close, convergent/divergent) indicating an overall lack of question types –referential/open/divergent questions–which lead to longer and more complex learner answers (Musumeci, 1996). In the context of CLIL, some studies have provided evidence of the preponderance of display questions (Dalton-Puffer, 2006, 2007; Pascual, 2010) and lower order convergent questions (Menegale, 2011; Schuitemaker-King, 2012) and the limited number of referential question when directly talking about the topic of the activities at hand. Nevertheless, the share of referential questions was greater when questions related to classroom management and the well-being of the teacher and the students was included (Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Pascual, 2010). In Dalton-Puffer's (2007) seminal work on discourse in CLIL classrooms, another classification is provided to account for learner answers based on the type of information that teacher questions seek to elicit. Such classification was operationalized based on the observation that minimal learner answers appeared not to be dependent of the type of question formulated by the teacher. Thus, according to Dalton-Puffer (2007), factual questions look for objective facts and events, which are matched with brief answers of a low linguistic complexity on the part of the learners. On the other hand, non-factual questions aimed at eliciting explanations, reasons,

opinions or metacognitive information are considered to encourage longer learner responses of a greater linguistic complexity.

Dalton-Puffer's (2007) findings indicated a clear predominance of factual questions over non-factual questions, which indicated that the potential of the latter group of questions in enhancing the learners' foreign language competence was not being fully exploited. In fact, the teachers' profile and their foreign language proficiency level were pinpointed as contributing to the teachers' reluctance to formulate non-factual questions which are more likely to lead to unplanned directions beyond the well-defined Initiation/Response/Follow-up interactional pattern (henceforth, IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Along these lines, Pascual's (2010) comparison of two CLIL teachers with different profiles indicated that, despite the fact that the content teacher with EFL training was aware of the importance of complex student output, she did not deploy a variety of question types to elicit such production. On the contrary, the content-only teacher was more inclined to use a wide variety of questions that elicited questions that needed to be verbalized in more complex ways. Apart from teacher questions eliciting learner output, questions formulated by the learners themselves have not received much attention except for one another study by Dalton-Puffer (2007) which showed that these are minimal and only uttered when asking about either the meaning of new target concepts or about classroom procedures and, additionally, there is strong tendency for such questions to be formulated in the L1 rather than in the foreign language. This goes hand in hand with observations made by other authors (Lim Falk, 2008; Mewald, 2004) about CLIL learners' relatively little practice in taking an active speaking role in the target language. When CLIL and EFL

contexts are compared, though, discourse practices in CLIL settings are reported to offer students more opportunities for active participation than those in EFL classrooms (Nikula 2005, 2007a), as will be further explored in the following section when addressing studies addressing discourse-pragmatic features of classroom language use.

What is more, apart from the study of teacher questions to encourage the provision of output, other studies have particularly examined the teacher's provision of input. Schuitemaker-King (2012) found that 40% of the 38 CLIL teachers observed in the study never modified the input provided in order to make it more comprehensible and, those who did, employed such strategy very rarely. In the EFL classes investigated as part of the same study, input modification was neither a common features of teacher behaviour, but it was observed that language was so carefully preselected that online modifications were unnecessary. In fact, one of the scaffolding strategies used by these teachers was to switch to the L1 to anticipate lexical problems at the expense of foreign language modified input. Other studies (Kovacs, 2009; Schuitemaker-King, 2012) also support CLIL teachers' wide range of scaffolding strategies, which also include the use of the L1 to address lexical gaps. Nevertheless, both studies pointed to differences in favour of the didactic repertoire of teachers with double qualifications –language and content experts– as compared to content experts only.

The pedagogical design of CLIL lessons in terms of classroom organization and activity types has also received growing attention over the years, especially in relation to Task-Based Learning (henceforth, TBL). Although the role of tasks in CLIL has been highlighted (Gilabert, 2009) in the sense that it allows for genuine meaning-focused

interaction and attention to form, how CLIL lessons can integrate the insights gained from vast research on TBL (Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 1998b, 2003; Willis, 1996) is still an unexplored area of study. Research studies carried out in CLIL contexts so far have particularly addressed learners' performance while having different interactional arrangements: whole class discussions, pair work and group work. Studies like Badertscher and Bieri (2009) and Dalton-Puffer (2007) have demonstrated that teacher-led whole class discussions are dominant if compared to teacher presentations, group work or pair work in the CLIL lessons analysed. According to Dalton-Puffer (2007), such whole class discussions follow loops of IRF sequences predominantly dominated by the teacher, which in fact runs counter to general claims about CLIL per se leading to more student-centered learning (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008). However, as reported by Badertscher and Bieri (2009), such interactional mode was as common in CLIL as in L1 content lessons, which calls for further research in this direction.

As for small group and pair work interaction in CLIL lessons while working around tasks, research conducted by Gassner & Maillat (2006), Horillo Godino (2011), Llinares, Morton & Whittaker (2012), Llinares & Morton (2010), Maillat (2010), Nikula (2012) Pastrana (2010) and Tapias Nadales (2011) all agree on the potential of small group interaction –performing role plays, for instance– to maximize learners' involvement and language production mainly in the context of secondary education. As underscored by Nikula, Dalton-Puffer & Llinares (2013), contextual features like educational traditions across different countries and aspects like class size inevitably come into play when defining the pedagogical designs of lessons and the actual classroom practices as reflected in interaction.

All the research studies reviewed so far have drawn upon the pedagogical design of CLIL lesson –sometimes in comparison to EFL lessons and L1 subject matter lessons– and, more specifically, have addressed a number of questions which have been relevant in classroom-based SLA research. The review of all these studies has generally indicated that negotiation of meaning sequences occurred in the CLIL lessons analysed, though they appeared to be dependent on different aspects of the pedagogical design of CLIL lessons. Besides, the provision of corrective feedback has also been identified as a feature of some but not all CLIL lessons. The incidence of errors, their linguistic focus and the way they are dealt with in interaction varies across different studies. In addition, studies focusing on teacher questions and learner answers have shown that learners' output tends to be limited in terms of quantity and quality and that there is a need to reconsider how teachers formulate questions to enhance learners' language production. Finally, form the perspective of pedagogical design, the integration of content and language in the creation of CLIL materials as well as the effect of different classroom arrangements has also received some degree of attention in the study of CLIL instructional settings.

The following section now presents those CLIL studies which delve into the features of the CLIL classroom as a place for language use and social conduct leading to language development.

2.3. Discourse-pragmatic features of language use in CLIL classroom settings

Identifying the conditions in CLIL classroom discourse to engage participants' in talk so as to boost foreign language development has been the major concern for another strand of research ascribing to sociocultural views towards the learning process (Lantolf, 2000). All the studies presented in this section are concerned with social-interpersonal dimensions of classroom discourse, which basically translates into how polite or pragmatically appropriate foreign language use is. As will be noted, social and contextual approaches to language learning based on SFL and Pragmatics are key for the understanding of language use and language learning in CLIL educational contexts; therefore, a combination of theoretical models will be recognized as well as different discourse analytical approaches like Discourse Analysis model by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), Speech Act Analysis based on Searle's (1969) Speech Act Theory or Conversation Analysis (henceforth, CA) (Mehan, 1979; Van Lier, 1988; Ohta, 1999; Markee, 2000).

To begin with, Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) IRF tripartite structure has been adopted by studies like Nikula (2007b) to compare CLIL and EFL lessons. The results obtained indicated that such pattern was common in both contexts, but even more so in the EFL setting. From a qualitative viewpoint, such IRF exchanges were considered to be more loosely structured in the CLIL setting in the sense that student-initiated IRFs were more common in CLIL and the CLIL teacher quite often used the follow-up move to elaborate on the learners' answers by providing extra teacher input in the form of explanations, reasons or justifications (Marsol, 2008). In addition, such teacher

feedback in CLIL was also considered to afford more space for student reactions, leading to IRFF exchange patterns including the students' reactions to the teacher's follow-up move.

As for the study of turn allocation, the role of repetition in interaction has also been one of the research interests of conversational analysts in the study of social patterns of interaction in conversations. Based on the distinction proposed by Tannen (1989) and Johnstone et al. (1994) between "self-repetitions" (i.e. repeating what one said) and allo-/other-repetition (i.e. repeating what is uttered by another speaker), the analysis of repetitions in foreign language learning contexts has demonstrated that they fulfil a dual function in enhancing comprehension while at the same time facilitating learners' awareness of L2 features. In bilingual/low-immersion contexts, Llinares (2003) acknowledged the importance of self-repetitions as one of the three most common functions in the language of the teacher since messages need to be reinforced all the time to ensure learner comprehension. In the CLIL classroom, Dafouz & Llinares (2008) demonstrated that self-repetitions are widely used by secondary and university teachers when wishing to reinforce comprehension of subject content and make it accessible for all the students. In addition, teacher repetitions after the learners' utterances or "allo-repetitions" are used to confirm or disconfirm the validity of the learners' words from the point of view of content and/or language (pedagogic feedback) as well as to further enhance the learners' production (interactional feedback). Differences in the function of these repetitions are shown to be dependent on the teachers' profile and the classroom methodology employed. The content/language expert teacher in secondary education favoured the use of pedagogic

feedback more than the content expert teacher. These findings are in line with Nikula's (2007b) claiming that the IRF structure is more rigid in the EFL classes than in the CLIL classes. Conversely, the content expert teacher displayed more instances of interactional feedback to encourage the learners' active participation in the construction of knowledge through the foreign language. At the tertiary level, the content and EFL teacher favoured allo-repetitions in the form of pedagogic feedback over self-repetitions because the teacher presented the content in an inductive way and used prompts for the learners to participate. On the contrary, the content teacher in this context adopted a lecturing style and self-repetitions were used to frame the speech and so make it easier for the students to follow. Though with less frequency, when allo-repetitions were employed, their aim was to clarify problems of content comprehension by echoing the students' difficulties and providing an answer. Finally, from a CA perspective as well, other research studies have drawn their attention to the kinds of embodied actions (gaze, pointing gestures, body orientation, etc.) and other semiotic resources teachers draw on when allocating turns to speakers and when projecting repair actions in activities structured according to the IRF instructional sequence of (Kääntä, 2010; Moore & Nussbaum, 2011).

What is more, pragmatically-based studies on CLIL classroom discourse have concentrated around the use of speech acts to examine the interpersonal meanings created during classroom interaction by particularly focusing on the use of directives whose objective is to cause the hearer to react and take a particular action. Besides, other indicators of pragmatic awareness such as hedges, pronouns, discourse markers and verb forms have also received some attention as well as repair sequences where

communication breakdowns or misunderstandings need to be negotiated. In fact, all the studies have particularly focused on the teachers' use rather than the students' use of speech acts in order to characterize CLIL contexts as input-rich in developing learners' pragmatic awareness.

As for the study of directives, Dalton-Puffer (2005, 2007) and Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006) both reported on the close relationship between the level of directness in the formal realization of teacher directives and the goal of the directive and the moment when it is uttered. On the one hand, a clear distinction was made between directives that aim at eliciting curricular contents, also referred to as "instructional register" (Christie, 2002), or those that require learners to perform an action mainly related to classroom management or discipline, often called "regulative register" (Christie, 2002). More specifically, the CLIL teachers analysed used directives in the instructional register, which took the form of requests for information mostly initiated by wh-questions ("Which organisms do have that type of cell?"). Otherwise, directives within the regulative register displayed a much wider range of realizations and were considered less direct since they were modified or mitigated by means of a number of strategies: modal verbs ("May I interrupt you?"), need-statements ("I need two volunteers"), like-statements and politeness markers ("So can you do it please?") or inclusive "we" ("Can we get started now?). As reported by the authors, more direct realizations included the use of imperatives ("Sit down, you will continue next lesson") and the form "let's" ("Let's look at the social structure"). One possible reason provided by the authors to account for these findings is that directives concerning curricular information hold central stage in educational contexts; therefore, they carry a low

imposition value and so less interpersonal negotiation and mitigation is perceived to be necessary.

Apart from teacher directives, studies such as Nikula (2002) delved into other indicators of pragmatic awareness (hedging devices, pronouns, discourse markers of politeness and verbal tense/mood) in a comparative case study about one CLIL lesson and one EFL lesson in primary education taught by one content teacher and one language teacher, respectively. The results obtained revealed that, in the EFL context, there was almost no need to negotiate interpersonal meanings since there was little room to express personal views and opinions. Classroom discourse was rather materials-dependent and based on fictional characters that contributed to create a feeling of detachment rather than involvement in EFL learners. However, the teacher displayed more sensitivity to pragmatic aspects of the language when switching to the L1, mostly to deal with language-related talk, classroom management and discipline. In the CLIL lesson, the fact that teacher-fronted monologic discourse occupied most of the classroom time resulted in the complete lack of face-to-face teacher-learner(s) encounters and, consequently, there was little need to mitigate the messages encoded. Furthermore, contrary to the EFL lessons, English was the language used all through the lesson, so it became impossible to check whether the teacher's pragmatic behaviour differed when code-switching, as in the case of the EFL context.

Considering that in the above reported case study (Nikula, 2002) the CLIL and EFL data were not totally comparable due to the predominance of monologic teacher talk in the former, Nikula (2005) examined pragmatic awareness both in teachers and learners' behaviour by drawing on a larger corpus of EFL lessons and CLIL lessons in

secondary education. As in the previous study, EFL classroom talk was identified as being very often materials-dependent and learner contributions mainly took the form of replies to teacher's display questions about textbook materials or grammar points. Furthermore, EFL students were supposed to talk about fictitious matters that often remained quite detached from their personal concerns. As a consequence, the adoption of a "they-there-then" deictic perspective instead of a more "I/we-you-here-now" viewpoint reduced the need to mitigate the face-threatening impact of the messages. Unlike Nikula's (2002) results pointing to the predominance of monologic teacher talk in CLIL, Nikula (2005) claimed a greater number of student-centred CLIL activities that called for the display of a wider range of pragmatic functions (e.g. express opinions, indicate agreement and disagreement and make suggestions). However, even if classroom discourse in these CLIL classrooms proved to be of a more dialogic nature as compared to the CLIL classrooms in Nikula (2002), directness still predominated not only in the teachers' talk but also in the learners' contributions. All in all, these findings help reinforce the notion that the interpersonal relationship forged in the classroom context is far removed from the face-to-face interaction that one might encounter in a naturalistic setting outside the classroom context.

Along these lines, the alternation between the foreign language and the mother tongue –English and Finnish, in this case– reported by Nikula (2002, 2005) in the EFL context and the lack of such alternation in the CLIL contexts might well reflect the learners' orientation towards classroom discourse as learners and/or users of English in the classroom context. Both Nikula (2002) and Wannagat (2007) highlighted the learners' commitment to learn and use the foreign language in order to acquire the skills necessary to succeed in their future professional careers in the Finnish and the

German context, respectively. Nevertheless, these observations run counter with Nikula's (2007b) study in which she acknowledged an emerging bilingualism in the Finnish CLIL classrooms analysed since the L1 was not exclusively associated with the learners' limited command of the target language. Instead, resorting to the L1 was regarded as a powerful tool to accomplish various interactional goals like signalling different types of addressee –the teacher or the peers– or displaying a greater emotional force (Dooly & Moore, 2009).

Upon noticing that all these studies had yielded positive evidence about the relationship between the levels of pragmatic sensitivity and code switching in the EFL and CLIL classrooms, Nikula (2010) embarked on the comparison of CLIL classrooms and L1 subject-matter classrooms in order to prove whether differences in the command of the target language had an effect on the indicators of pragmatic awareness in each classroom context. The same teacher was observed in one CLIL classroom and one L1 content classroom. The results showed that the teacher adopted a dialogic style when instructing by means of English and a rather monologic style when instructing in the L1, which was explained by the added difficulty of producing sustained monologues in the foreign language. Therefore, teachers' proficiency level in the foreign language is another factor that comes out as intervening in the teachers' ability to use a wide range of expressions to convey interpersonal meanings appropriately.

Lastly, another indicator of pragmatic awareness addressed is that of how repair sequences are handled from the students' perspective (Nikula, 2008; Moore, 2011) in secondary education CLIL classrooms. According to the former study, when

dealing with subject content (i.e. writing up the results of an experiment or when organizing how to perform a task), the learners expressed direct disagreement by using the particle "no", for example, without any need to mitigate the encoded message. Quite differently, when approaching the teacher and expressing disagreement in situations involving classroom management or decision making, these CLIL students sometimes modulated their different contributions with pragmatic markers such as "well" and "then", hedges like "just like" or vagueness markers "and stuff". Despite the fact that these CLIL learners' overall pragmatic repertoire remained fairly limited, they were considered to be sensitive to the pragmatic impact of their messages when expressing disagreement. Even though the author argued that it is not possible to determine whether such pragmatic awareness is the result of regular participation in CLIL classes, she argued that the image of the students' pragmatic skills is more positive than has been suggested by studies which have tested students' pragmatic skills in traditional EFL classrooms (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose & Kasper, 2001). The author further held that it might well be the case that, generally speaking, CLIL students find it easier to establish links between CLIL tasks with a strong content-based component and out-of-class communicative situations, which might lead them to perceive the need to use the target language appropriately as in real-life communication.

Along the same lines, a study by Moore (2011) also contributed to define the learners' performance from a pragmatic viewpoint though the study was not conducted in the classroom, but random pairs of secondary education CLIL learners and EFL learners were interviewed in their second year of participation in bilingual

sections set up in Andalusia. Collaborative turns such as "embedded turns" (i.e. one speaker contributes to another speaker's main turn) and "cooperative turns" (i.e. two or more speakers jointly construct the message) were more frequent among CLIL secondary education students. As a matter of fact, they produced four times more cooperative turns than their mainstream counterparts and they were embedding nearly twice as often. What is more, only more gifted CLIL learners were able to use modulation to soften the other's message and expansion in other to complement each other's input. All in all, CLIL might give learners an advantage in terms of foreign language development, but also in becoming better communicators all-round. Possible reasons to account for these greater interactive skills might be attributed to the higher presence of group work and pair work in the CLIL classrooms, as indicated in the questionnaires administered to both teachers and students in this study.

As mentioned in the previous section about pedagogical CLIL practices, particular task types have also been considered to contribute to the display of certain pragmatic functions. Gassner & Maillat (2006) Nikula (2008) observed that the implementation of role-plays enhanced the students' foreign language production, but the same did not happen in the L1 subject-based classroom (Gassner & Maillat, 2006). This is explained by the potential masking effect of the foreign language due to the fact that acting out one's part in the foreign language might lower the affective filter and help to assume a representing position that one might feel a bit reluctant to share. This statement runs counter to Harder's (1980) claim that speaking a foreign language may lead to what he calls "reduced personality", that is, speakers' inability to use the foreign language in its full potential to express all the nuances of personality. In fact,

this last point is also made evident in Nikula & Marsh's (1997) report about teachers and students demonstrating their uneasiness when expressing themselves as non-native speakers of the foreign language.

All in all, these pragmatically-based studies have revealed an overall tendency towards directness in the teachers' directives and the limited use of other pragmatic devices to negotiate interpersonal meanings in interaction. Both the institutional nature of the context and the resulting asymmetrical power relationship between the teachers and the students and the teachers' status as non-native speakers of English have been mentioned as having an effect on their performance. Drawing on earlier research in the field of interlanguage pragmatics, it has been contented that while displaying pragmatic concerns through modifiers may take place almost automatically for native speakers of a language, making strategic use of modifiers is often much more difficult for foreign language speakers who easily appear overly direct (Bergman and Kasper, 1993). In addition, the fact that both the teachers and, especially the learners, performed differently within the instructional register and the regulative register perfectly matches Nikula's (2007a) claims about the learners' enacting different roles as learners and/or users of English as a foreign language. Besides, when a comparative account of these two instructional settings is targeted (CLIL vs. EFL), research findings have shown that CLIL and EFL lessons share their being educational events with asymmetrical distribution of knowledge, power and speaking rights. Despite the fact that CLIL classrooms are considered to provide more naturalistic conditions for foreign language learning, the present studies yield inconclusive evidence since many contextual factors need to be taken into account. Generally speaking, CLIL and EFL

classroom are very much alike and far removed, at least from a pragmatic viewpoint, from mitigated language use in other settings outside the classroom. One of the future lines of action suggested by many of these studies is to reflect upon which pedagogical options would best ensure learners' access to input which is more sensitive to pragmatic aspects of the language (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

To conclude, the research studies reviewed in this section have addressed discourse-pragmatic aspects of foreign language use in CLIL classrooms –often compared to EFL classrooms by drawing– in order to shed some light on the way both the teachers and the learners orient themselves to the construction of interpersonal meanings and how this influences discourse patterns and the development of their pragmatic behaviour. The following section tackles the relationship of language and content in CLIL classrooms in the construction of knowledge, one of the major topics in CLIL classroom discourse.

2.4. Knowledge construction in CLIL classroom contexts

Language has been approached from the perspective of how it helps organize and orient the social world of the CLIL classrooms, but it can also be considered to represent the meanings which are crucial to any academic subject. In both cases, language and content are inseparable since language is always enacted in concrete social contexts of use. In terms of the social organization of the CLIL classroom, the previously reviewed studies all look at discourse and pragmatic aspects of CLIL lessons. In order to examine how language and learning are related a range of studies on CLIL have relied on Halliday's (1993) SFL framework. In fact, the systemic

functional approach is very compatible with the sociocultural theory of learning developed by Vygotsky (1978) given that language and learning are seen as social processes, that is, using language to participate in relevant educational experiences with more competent interlocutors contributes to the development of cognitive abilities.

The concept of scaffolding is central to sociocultural perspectives in the sense that CLIL teachers need to design learning activities by sequencing the kinds of texts learners need to use –commonly referred to as "genres"– and aspects of the language they need to express subject knowledge or "registers". A number of studies by Whittaker & Llinares (2009, 2010) employed such framework to analyse the spoken and written production of secondary CLIL learners in social science classrooms in terms of the linguistic realizations (semantic and lexico-grammatical structures) of their oral and written texts taking into account that curricular disciplines such as history, geography and science are considered to possess their own subject-specific genres. In addition, when undergoing the transition from primary education to secondary education, learners are required to deal with more specialized language and structures which better fit the academic disciplines they get involved in. By particularly focusing on verb types, clause types and the expression of modality, the findings generally point towards a rather poor performance. First, verbs expressing actions outnumbered those concerning states, thoughts or feelings. Second, the use of circumstances of place, time and manner to expand clauses appeared to be quite limited in frequency and range. As for the way clauses are assembled together, there appeared to be an overuse of the conjunction "and" as a clause linker at the expense of subordination, for instance.

Lastly, there was also a clear overgeneralization of "can" to express verbal modality, which is considered to reduce the shades of meaning that can be possibly expressed. One of the reasons provided by the authors to account for these findings is that the classroom context has traditionally been perceived as a social context in which knowledge is displayed, and where personal thoughts or feelings have been relegated to a secondary or even marginal position and, broadly speaking, little concern is shown for interpersonal aspects in such an instructional context. This explanation together with the students' limited foreign language competence might account for the limited range of lexical and grammatical structures present in the CLIL learners' oral and written production. Finally, when comparing the oral and the written texts, no distinctions could be identified, which also led the authors to conclude that these learners also showed little register sensitivity.

Apart from the fact that the learners' foreign language competence might somehow be a barrier in the construction of appropriate discipline-based genres, their poor performance has also been related to the developmental stages all learners go through when climbing up the educational ladder. In other words, it might be the case that both CLIL learners and learners learning content by means of the L1 go through different stages during their schooling period, especially more so when moving on to secondary education. In this respect, Llinares & Whittaker (2010) presented a comparative analysis of the language used by CLIL secondary school students of history and that of students following the same syllabus in the L1 (Spanish). Focusing on a whole class end-of-topic summary session, they reported on the CLIL learners' wider range of linguistic resources but little awareness of the forms, structures and

conventions of the subject discipline. Otherwise, the L1 subject matter students displayed less linguistic variety, but they showed a more developed awareness of the register required in the history class. These findings run counter with those reported by Vollmer (2008) when pointing towards the lack of command over or sensitivity for the requirements of academic language use both in the L2 and in the L1. In addition, the wide range of linguistic resources in the CLIL content, as reported by Llinares & Whittaker (2010), has been interpreted in the light of how the teachers manage interaction in each classroom context: while the L1 teacher required historical recounts and explanations based on factual information, the CLIL teacher was more willing to open up the space for interaction and s/he was more inclined to welcome in other possible interpretations, often bringing in the CLIL learners' personal experience and reactions. Consequently, in this case, more opportunities were offered to these students to use the foreign language for purposes other than recounting and explaining already known facts and events.

Nevertheless, the fact that the CLIL learners fall short of applying the discipline-based conventions of the register leads to the question of whether or not they are explicitly taught and made aware of the purposes, components and linguistic features of textual genres such as those found in any argumentation, exposition or report. Along these lines, Morton's (2010) shed light on the overall lack of explicit instruction on the stages or linguistic features of history genres after analysis a number of teachers giving history classes at the secondary education level. It appeared the learners were only exposed to academic language through the teachers' scaffolding in relation to the learners' inappropriate productions. Therefore, Morton (2010) has

openly advocated for the urgent need to take steps in the establishment of a genre-based pedagogy to inform CLIL instruction so that CLIL learners develop declarative knowledge of the appropriate characteristics of textual genres.

Moving beyond the analysis of CLIL learners' oral and written texts, the SFL framework has also been employed to identify the features of university teachers' talk. Dafouz (2006) focused on the linguistic and structural choices of three non-native university teachers in the delivery of CLIL lectures in a number of academic disciplines such as aeronautical engineering. Focusing on the interpersonal function of language employed to enact social relationships through the text, it can be stated that the lecturer managed to create a bond with the students by resorting to the inclusive pronoun "we" and avoiding verbal modality expressing obligation in order to overcome asymmetrical roles typical of university communities. At the macro or structural level, the lectures under analysis appeared to conform to the different phases of the lecturing style identified by Young (1994), that is, the phases of structuring upcoming discourse (discourse structuring phase), summarizing the main points covered (conclusion phase), evaluating information which is about to be or has already been transmitted (evaluation phase), establishing contact with students and ensuring comprehensibility (interaction phase), presenting theories, models and definitions (content phase) and, finally, illustrating theoretical concepts through exemplification (examples phase). These same phases that structure the discourse event of lectures were also identified by Dafouz and Núñez (2010) when comparing CLIL and L1 subject matter lectures. Therefore, there seemed to be a transferring of lecturing styles form the L1 to the foreign language when university teachers engaged in CLIL instruction. Nevertheless,

an in-depth contrastive analysis also pointed towards differences in favour of the L1 context in the degree of explicitness when signalling shifts from one phase to the other by means of connectors and a greater stylistic variety and degree of specificity in the choice of lexical terms. In this respect, the teachers' foreign language proficiency level when instructing in English or in the L1 emerges again as an intervening factor in defining their performance. All in all, these results suggest that teaching academic content by means of the foreign language does not entail a complete change in methodology, but the teachers' L1 style and methodology are directly transferred to the CLIL context. Although CLIL studies at the university level are minimal if compared to those at secondary level, research so far proved that there is not a CLIL methodology developed in such context, but a transferring of L1 subject content methodology takes place. Taking into account that CLIL is not teaching content in English instead of the L1, more studies are necessary in order to gain a better understanding of how content and language get integrated at this particular education level.

What is more, Coyle's functions of "language for learning" and "language through learning" have been fully explored in Dalton-Puffer's (2007) seminal work on academic language functions such as defining, hypothesizing or explaining in the context of secondary schools dealing with a variety of disciplines like history, physics and geography. The results showed that definitions are by no means frequent in the CLIL classrooms analysed neither in the teachers' input nor in the learners' output. When the teachers were asked for the meaning of new lexical items, the learners mostly reacted by providing a paraphrase. Otherwise, when the learners were asked about the

meaning of new words, they always reacted with a translation instead of a definition. Likewise, hypothesizing was proved to be minimal on the part of the learners, but could be identified in the teachers' feedback move when the students failed to produce proper hypotheses on their own. Finally, teacher explanations were not a regular feature of classroom talk either, which was mainly attributed to the absence of teacher monologues. However, some teacher explanations occurred as a follow-up to the learners' fragmented explanations, thus giving rise to co-constructed explanations, that is to say, the teacher was the one who put together the isolated items supplied by the learners. Examples of co-co-constructed explanatory exchanges have also been documented by Smit (2010b) at the university level, typically following lexical problems and authored by both teachers and learners. Nevertheless, different discursive constructions were spotted on the basis of the type of lexical item on focus: technical and semi-technical terms, on the one hand, and non-technical terms that refer to general English, on the other. When it concerned technical and semi-technical items, explanatory exchanges were led by the teachers in their roles as classroom managers and subject experts. Nevertheless, when more general lexical items were targeted, interactive explanations were jointly constructed.

The need to move from everyday knowledge to more scientific knowledge and from context-embedded speaking and written modes has been extensively researched by Llinares, Morton & Whittaker (2012) recent work on the roles of language and interaction as a tool for language and content learning by drawing on extensive classroom data from different European contexts. The shift from every day to academic discourse is considered to be possible if a dialogic-interactive model is pursued, which

might provide opportunities for language "through" learning as well. This relates to Moate's (2010) concept of "exploratory talk" following a sociocultural approach to CLIL in the sense that thought is co-constructed and in progress in the context of the classroom. Other studies following socially-situated learning models like Evnitskaya & Morton (2011), Kupetz (2011) and Morton (2012), Evnitskaya (2012), Escobar & Evnitskaya (2013, 2014), Evnitskaya & Escobar (2013) all employed a multimodal conversation analysis methodology to provide detailed analyses of how teachers and students use talk-in-interaction and other semiotic resources to construct subject-related and language-related meanings.

Futhermore, Llinares & Pastrana (2013) examined primary and secondary school students' performance of communicative functions in whole class and group work discussions. Contrary to previous results reported at pre-school level (Llinares, 2007), in which students' functional performance was richer in whole class interactions framed by the teacher's use of elicitation techniques, this study showed a wider variety of functions during group work than in whole class discussions. In addition, it is also worth highlighting the different types of functions displayed by learners across educational levels due to the lack of studies addressing primary education and comparing it with secondary school students. While primary school learners spent more time on the organization of the activity and controlling peers' actions (regulatory function), older learners communicated more around the task itself. Possible reasons to account for this are related to the their cognitive developmental stage, as this has been identified as one of the first functions to appear in the first language of the child (Halliday, 1993), to the mastery of the of the linguistic resources to perform this

function in the L2 or, more likely, their reliance on repeated chunks the learners get from the teachers' input.

This study is line with other studies that advocate for providing opportunities beyond the display of academic knowledge, that is to say, giving learners enough interactional space to use the foreign language to perform different functions. Following Llinares & Morton (2010: 62), "CLIL students might be able to do more than we think, if we provide them with the interactional space to articulate their understandings". The need to design more student-centred activities so as to encourage interactional (Dalton-Puffer, 2005, 2007) and personal involvement is central in the sense that different activities require students' participation in different ways. A wider spectrum of communicative functions will contribute to improve learners' pragmatic performance.

All in all, what can be inferred from the reviewing of all these research studies dealing with language use to express subject knowledge is that CLIL learners get little access to the characteristics of textual genres, register differences and specific academic language functions. Consequently, learner output is often also devoid of such features and, therefore, is described as being of a reduced linguistic variety and stylistically inappropriate. In the analysis of teacher talk in CLIL university classrooms, studies pointed towards a transfer of the teacher's style in the L1 to the CLIL context; one intervening factor being the teachers' status as non-native speakers with a rather limited command of the target language. Taking into account the varying demands of subject-specific content across educational levels, more research is needed in this direction to delve into which pedagogical designs allow the learners' to have access to

and use the language that is necessary for the construction of knowledge in each academic discipline at primary, secondary and tertiary level CLIL classrooms.

The table that follows (Table 1) contains a list of the main research studies reviewed in this chapter. First, it includes the author(s), the year of publication and the research focus. In addition, the design of the study is identified in terms of whether it targets only a CLIL context or it is a comparative study between CLIL and EFL/L1 teaching, the level of education addressed (pre-school, primary, secondary or tertiary) and the amount of participants (number of schools, lessons, classes, teachers and/or learners). Finally, the country in which the study was conducted and the subject matter or discipline(s) covered in CLIL are also presented.

Table 1. Main research studies

Author/s	Year	Main focus	Type of study	Level	Design	Country	Topic
Badertscher & Bieri	2009	Negotiation of meaning	CLIL/L1	SEC	6 LES	CH	NAT
Dafouz & Llinares	2008	Teacher discourse	CLIL	SEC TER	4 LES, 4 Ts	ES	SOC HUM
Dalton-Puffer	2005	Directives	CLIL	SEC	6 LES, 6 Ts	AT	SOC HUM
Dalton-Puffer	2006	Teacher questions	CLIL	SEC	40 LES	AT	SOC NAT
Dalton-Puffer & Nikula	2006	Directives	CLIL	SEC	17 LES, 13 Ts	AT FI	SOC NAT FOR
Dalton-Puffer	2007	Questions, language functions, repair, etc.	CLIL	SEC	7 SC, 14 LES	AT	NAT SOC
De Graaff et al.	2007	Language pedagogy	CLIL	SEC	3 SC, 9 LES	NL	SOC NAT FOR
Escobar & Evnitskaya	2013	Explanations	CLIL	SEC	1 LES	ES	NAT
Escobar & Evnitskaya	2014	Conversational strategies and participation	CLIL	SEC	1 LES, 1 T, 16 Ls	ES	NAT
Gassner & Maillat	2006	Role-plays in language production	CLIL	SEC	--	CH	SOC NAT FOR
Gené, Juan Garau & Salazar	2012	L1 and TL use	CLIL/EFL	SEC	60 Ls, 3 Ts	ES	OTH
Hampl	2011	Error correction	CLIL/EFL	SEC	12 LES, 6 Ts	AT	SOC NAT
Kovacs	2009	T strategies: vocab. presentation	CLIL	SEC	2 LES	AT	SOC
Llinares, Morton & Whittaker	2012	Roles of language	CLIL	PS, PRI, SEC	500,000 words	ES AT FI NL	SOC NAT FOR
Llinares & Pastrana	2013	Communicative functions	CLIL	PRI, SEC	14 LES, 6 Ts, 156 Ls	ES	SOC

Llinares & Whittaker	2009	Spoken and written production	CLIL	SEC	2 SC, 2 CL	ES	SOC
Llinares & Whittaker	2010	Spoken and written production	CLIL/L1	SEC	4 LES	ES	SOC
Llinares & Lyster	2014	Corrective feedback and learner uptake	IM/CLIL	PRI	9 CL	ES CA JA	SOC
Lochtman	2007	Error correction	IM/EFL	SEC	--	CA BE	--
Mariotti	2006	Negotiation of meaning	CLIL	SEC	2 SC, 22 LES	IT	SOC NAT
Marsol	2008	Discourse patterns	CLIL/EFL	PRI	1 SC, 2 LES	ES	NAT
Menegale	2011	Questions	CLIL	SEC	16 LES	IT	SOC NAT OTH
Moore	2011	Collaborative turn-taking	CLIL/EFL	SEC	15 LES, 158 Ls	ES	
Morton	2010	Genre-based pedagogy	CLIL	SEC	2 SC, 3 LES, 5 Ts	ES	SOC
Musumeci	1996	Input and negotiation of meaning	CLIL	SEC	3 LES, 3 Ts	IT	SOC
Nikula	2002	Teacher talk and pragmatic awareness	CLIL/EFL	SEC	2 LES	FI	FOR
Nikula	2005	Discourse patterns and pragmatics	CLIL/EFL	SEC	13 LES	FI	SOC NAT
Nikula	2007 a	Discourse patterns	CLIL/EFL	SEC	10 LES	FI	NAT
Nikula	2007 b	FL use	CLIL	SEC	4 LES	FI	NAT
Nikula	2008	Negotiation of meaning	CLIL	SEC	6 LES	FI	NAT
Nikula	2010	TL language use	CLIL/L1	SEC	6 LES	FI	NAT
Nikula	2012	Subject-specific language use	CLIL	SEC	2 LES, 14 Ls	FI	SOC

Pascual	2010	T questions	CLIL	SEC	8 LES, 2 Ts	ES	SOC
Pastrana	2010	Learners' oral language use	CLIL	PRI, SEC	--	ES	--
Pérez-Vidal	2007	Focus-on-form episodes	CLIL	PRI, SEC	3 SC, 3 LES	ES	NAT FOR
Schuitemaker -King	2012	Corrective feedback	CLIL/EFL	SEC	5 SC, 94 LES	NL	SOC, NAT FOR
Smit	2010 b	Explanations	CLIL	TER	12 LES	AT	SOC
Wannagat	2007	Classroom talk codeswitching	CLIL	SEC	2 LES	DE HK	SOC
Whittaker & Llinares	2009	Spoken and written productions	CLIL	SEC	2 SC, 2 CL	ES	SOC

Type of study: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL); English as a Foreign Language (EFL); subject-matter lessons conducted in the mother tongue (L1); immersion (IM). **Level**: pre-school (PS); primary level education (PRI); secondary level education (SEC); tertiary level education (TER). **Design**: number of school/s (SC); number of lessons (LES); number of classes (CL); number of teachers (Ts); number of learners (Ls). **Country**: Austria (AT); Belgium (BE); Canada (CA); Finland (FI); Germany (DE); Netherlands (NL); Spain (SP); Switzerland (CH); Hong Kong (HK); Japan (JA). **CLIL topic**: Natural sciences including Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Geology, etc. (NAT); Social sciences including History, Geography, Economics, Business, etc. (SOC); Formal sciences including Mathematics, Geometry, Statistics, etc. (FOR); Humanities including Music, Philosophy, Arts, etc. (HUM); Others including Electronics, Technology, etc. (OTH).

2.5. Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of classroom research in CLIL mostly published within the last decade with a focus on the processes and relations operating between teachers and students in CLIL classrooms –often compared to regular EFL classrooms or L1 subject matter lessons– to enhance the learning of a second/foreign language. The three different sections have presented three different branches of CLIL research based on different theoretical orientations and following a range of methodological framings. From the interactionist SLA perspective, the research studies reviewed in the first section all focused on different aspects of the CLIL classroom environment mainly in terms of input, output, negotiation of meaning and focus on form. From this perspective, CLIL's potential as a language learning environment has been examined in relation the students' interactive performance and language mastery. Another branch of CLIL research can be distinguished by its focus on language use rather than language learning in CLIL. The theoretical constructs at the core of such research derive from discourse analysis and pragmatics, sometimes in combination with SLA. Most studies within such research orientation are comparative accounts have undergone a comparative account of CLIL learners' performance in the classroom and in regular EFL teaching, which has in fact made it possible to assess the opportunities afforded in these contexts for language use and development. Finally, the strand of research reviewed in the last section has provided an account of how content and language are actually integrated in every day classroom practice. By drawing on the framework of SFL, different classroom language functions have been explored as well as how students master subject and genre-specific ways of

representing content knowledge. All in all, such a range of theoretical and descriptive frameworks to examine classroom interaction in CLIL has made it possible to obtain a broad grasp of a number of aspects that come into play within the complex reality of classroom interaction. As many studies have already pointed out, future CLIL classroom research would enormously benefit from the combination of linguistically and socioculturally-oriented perspectives so that a better understanding of CLIL classrooms can be achieved.

CHAPTER 3

Research questions, method and context

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research questions that guided the present study and describes the methodology employed. This chapter also includes a description of the two participating schools and the way CLIL and EFL are actually implemented as well as the teacher's and the students' profile in each school. A description of the design of the study and the procedures followed for data collection and subsequent data analysis are also provided. The last section of this chapter shows a snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL instructional contexts in the two schools, that is, an overview of the CLIL and the EFL lessons, in general, and teaching units implemented under analysis, in particular, together with a brief account of the learners' experience and their level of enjoyment in each instructional context.

3.2. Research questions

The objective of the present dissertation is to shed some light on the way CLIL is implemented in two primary education schools by paying attention to the language learning experience afforded to learners in CLIL lessons, where there is a dual focus on content and language, as well as in regular EFL lessons where English is the only object of study. These two different types of instruction altogether are seen to contribute to enhance learners' foreign language development in the school context.

A range of studies focusing on the linguistic outcomes of CLIL programmes are positive since learners involved in CLIL instruction have a greater proficiency and communicative competence in the L2 than non-CLIL learners (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Ruiz de Zarobe et al., 2009; Alonso et al., 2008; Admiraal, 2006; Airey, 2009). More specifically and similarly to the results obtained in Canadian immersion studies, CLIL students largely outperform their non-CLIL peers in listening and reading comprehension, fluency and range of vocabulary, but less often so in pronunciation, accuracy and complexity of written and spoken language (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 2008; Lasagabaster, 2008: Alonso et al., 2008; Navés, 2009 and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008). Compared to the results obtained by such outcome studies, less is known about the current implementation of CLIL –and how it compares to regular EFL instruction– and the actual classroom conditions under which learners move on in their learning of English as a second/foreign language.

As reviewed in the previous chapter, teacher questioning techniques to elicit learner output was the research topic that gathered some initial interest within CLIL classroom-based research. In addition, SLA and general education research have traditionally reported on the poor quantity and quality of student output in response to teacher questions of a limited range (Long & Sato, 1983; Mehan, 1979; Musumeci, 1996). Thus, CLIL has been welcome as representing a boost in L2 production since it presents more meaningful communication contexts where the second/foreign language becomes a tool to communicate. Nevertheless, the results obtained so far do not indicate a marked difference with those studies previously reported in traditional EFL contexts (Dalton-Puffer, 2006, 2007; Pascual, 2010; Menegale, 2011; Schuitemaker-King, 2012). As operationalized by Dalton-Puffer (2006, 2007), learner output in CLIL appears to be very much dependent on the type of information teacher questions are addressing with respect to the linguistic demands associated with the imposed cognitive demands. Along this line, the language support provided –oral and/or written– appears to be crucial in ensuring language production on the part of the learners (Clegg, 2007; Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). Therefore, the first research question and sub-questions address learners' oral language production in the CLIL context and the EFL context:

Research Question 1:

What is the nature of learners' oral language production in the CLIL context as compared to the EFL context?

a) How long are learners' productions and how does length relate to the context where such productions occur?

b) To what extent are learners' long productions based on their own L2 resources?

c) How much do learners resort to their L1 and in which context?

What is more, another venue of classroom-based CLIL research has approached the issue of to what extent and how language form is addressed when dealing with content and language in an integrated way. As reviewed in the previous chapter, research studies conducted so far generally agree on the little focus on form in CLIL contexts (Pérez-Vidal, 2007; Schuitemaeker-King, 2012) and a lower rate of error treatment in favour of CLIL settings in comparison to EFL ones (Hampl, 2011; Lotchmann, 2007; Schuitemaker-King, 2012). As for the type of teacher feedback, recasts have been shown to predominate in CLIL contexts (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Hampl, 2011) over other feedback types, as has also been the case in immersion studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Therefore, learners are not often pushed to move from a semantic to a syntactic processing of their output, which is considered to be crucial to improve accuracy and complexity in the short and the long term (Long et al., 1987, Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Considering all these findings, the second research question and sub-

questions delve into the provision of teacher corrective feedback during focus-on-form (FonF) episodes in the CLIL context and the EFL context:

Research Question 2:

What is the nature of teacher corrective feedback during focus-on-form (FonF) episodes in the CLIL context as compared to the EFL context?

a) How much teacher corrective feedback is provided to address learners' non-target or incomplete oral language production in the classroom context?

b) What type of teacher corrective feedback is provided and in which context?

In sum, the present dissertation aims at comparing the CLIL and EFL instructional contexts by answering two research questions. The first research question deals with the learners' language production –including both the L2 and the L1– in terms of its length and the amount of language support provided. The second research question seeks to examine the amount and type/context of teacher corrective feedback. The examination of the two learning contexts under these two different lenses is meant to provide us with a good idea of what the CLIL lessons under analysis are about and how different or similar they are from regular EFL lessons.

3.3. Method

3.3.1. Participants

Our initial concern in the selection of participants was to get in contact with schools and teachers with a certain amount experience in CLIL instruction. The Catalan Department of Education gave us access to a list of teachers who had already received CLIL training and had created their own CLIL materials as part of a scheme set up by the Catalan government to boast the teaching/learning of foreign languages. Additionally, in accordance with the design of this study, we were looking for primary education teachers giving both CLIL and EFL to the same group learners. As will be further examined later when addressing the design of the study itself, this is considered to be one of the strong points of the present study since comparative classroom-based studies focusing on CLIL and EFL so far have included different teachers in each learning context. Although three teachers working in three different schools were selected and agreed to participate in the study, only two of these schools ended up collaborating since one of them did not really meet the design requirements of this study. Therefore, two state-funded primary education schools (henceforth referred to as "School A" and "School B") finally took part in the present study.

These two schools had been granted a PELE project (*Pla Experimental de Llengües Estrangeres*) for the school period 2005-2008 by the Catalan Department of Education for the teaching of non-linguistic contents through the medium of English in the 3rd cycle of primary education with a minimum of one hour per week. Besides, the two schools had received economic support, methodological training and tuition during the

first three years of its implementation so that they could fully integrate it in the school curriculum and implement it appropriately in the years to come. The following sections describe the characteristics of each participating school and the way CLIL and EFL are implemented in primary education, in general, and in the 5th year of primary education, in particular, as well as the profile of the participating CLIL/EFL teacher and the target group of learners.

3.3.1.1. School A

3.3.1.1.1. The school and the implementation of CLIL and EFL

School A was a state-funded school located in a middle-class neighbourhood in Lleida (Catalonia). This small school had been created in the eighties in a rather isolated area in the outskirts of the city, but had progressively grown and gained popularity because it was then located in a flourishing neighbourhood inhabited by young couples with children.

The school covered from pre-school education (3-5 years of age) to primary education (6-11 years of age), with two groups per grade totalling a sum of 400 students, approximately. English was introduced at the age of 3 at pre-school level and continued all through primary education. In addition, CLIL was introduced in the form of "thematic blocks" related to the subject matter areas of Natural and Social Sciences in the 2nd cycle (8-9 years of age) and the 3rd cycle (10-11 years of age) of primary education. A second foreign language (German) was also offered to high achievers in English as an optional subject in the last cycle of primary education. Finally, this school

had previously taken part in number of projects related to the teaching/learning of foreign languages like "Science across Europe" (1995-1996) or a Comenius Project "How the seasons work" (1998-2000).

3.3.1.1.2. The implementation of CLIL and EFL in the 5th year of primary education

One of the 5th year groups was selected as the target group for the present study based on the teacher's comments on their greater degree of familiarity with CLIL as compared to other grades –their 3rd year at the moment of data collection. In addition, the fact that the teacher giving CLIL and EFL was also the tutor of this group of students also contributed to the teacher's willingness to participate because she claimed to know these students very well. As for the number of hours of contact with English, at the moment of data collection these learners had received EFL instruction for 6 years and CLIL instruction for 3 years. On average, they had received a minimum of 175 contact hours in the 1st and 2nd cycle and they would receive a minimum of 140 hours in the 3rd cycle. This amounts to a minimum of 315 hours, which can be extended by law up to a maximum of 420 hours all through primary education. As regards the weekly distribution of CLIL and EFL lessons, these learners received 3 hours of regular EFL instruction per week and around one hour of CLIL per week within the overall curricular hours allotted to the learning of English. Such distribution had been the same all through their primary education.

Furthermore, the choice of CLIL topics was based on L1 subject-matter curricular contents at this level. Given that the teacher was responsible for CLIL and L1

subject-matter lessons since she was the tutor of this group of students, CLIL materials revolved around a particular topic or a sub-topic that were covered or had previously been covered in L1 subject matter classes. Those years when she was not the one in charge of CLIL and L1 content classes, she recognized the two teachers did not work cooperatively on a regular basis, but they had informal meetings to keep track of what they were doing. Finally, the teacher had developed her own CLIL materials based on tasks whereas EFL lessons mainly followed a published textbook.[2] Appendix A (p. 208) provides a list of the course topics and Appendix B (p. 209) presents the teaching programmes provided by the teacher. Finally, Appendix C (p. 222) and Appendix D (p. 237) contain an overview of the teaching units on focus and the teaching materials, respectively.

3.3.1.1.3. The teacher's profile

The teacher in School A was a female generalist primary teacher with a specialty in English and ample teaching experience –more than 15 years– and 3 years of CLIL experience. During the period when the school set up the PELE project (2005-2008), she was afforded a paid leave of absence by the Catalan Department of Education for a three-month stay (October-December 2006) at the University of Nottingham, where she received vast methodological CLIL training and developed CLIL materials to be subsequently implemented when back in the school. She had a B2

[2]Zanata, T. (2007). *Mega Zoom 5*. Richmond Publishing. (Students' book)

level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) certified by *Escola Oficial d'Idiomes* (EOI). Lastly, it must be highlighted that the teacher in this school and the one in School B knew each other and belonged to one group of CLIL teachers in the area of Lleida that met on a regular basis to reflect on their CLIL experiences and develop new CLIL materials.

3.3.1.1.4. The learners' profile

The group of learners participating in this study consisted of 22 learners, 13 boys and 9 girls, in their 5th year of primary education (10-11 years of age). According to the biodata gathered by means of a questionnaire, they were all born in Spain as the second generation of immigrant families. As for the languages spoken at home, 14 of them (64%) reported to speak Catalan at home, 6 learners (27%) spoke Spanish, 1 of them (4.5%) used Catalan/Spanish indistinctively and another one (4.5%) spoke Rumanian with this family. In addition, there was a native speaker of Catalan/Spanish and English and a special-needs learner who constantly required the teacher's reinforcement or the classmates' support to keep up with the lessons. In this respect, it must be pinpointed that the contributions of these two learners were not included in the analysis of the data since they were not considered to be representative of the whole group.

Turning to their extracurricular contact with English, 5 children (24%) received extracurricular exposure to English through formal instruction and 3 of them (14%) had attended a two-week English summer camp in Catalonia in the past. Finally, as for

the families' sociocultural status, 12 students (55%) claimed that at least one of the parents had a university degree, 6 students (27%) indicated that their parents completed secondary education and 4 of them (18%) stated that their parents attended primary education alone.

3.3.1.2. School B

3.3.1.2.1 The school and the implementation of CLIL and EFL

School B was located in a neighbourhood with a high percentage of immigrant population and people at risk of social exclusion. This school had been built in the 1960s in order to welcome in the children of immigrant families mostly coming from the South of Spain. The school was located next to the city's railway station and surrounded by blocks of flats built at that time to accommodate the incoming influx of immigrant people. The school had been refurbished on various occasions up until the time of data collection. At that point, the school intended to become a "Learning community" (*Comunitat d'aprenentatge*), a project launched by the Catalan Department of Education to overcome social and educational inequalities by promoting dialogic learning at the school level and beyond by involving families as well.

As in School A, schooling ranged from pre-school education (3-5 years old) to primary education (6-11 years old). The learning of English was introduced at the age of 3 at pre-school level and it extended all through primary education. However, unlike School A, CLIL instruction was not introduced until the 3rd cycle when learners

were 10-11 years of age. Lastly, no other foreign language was offered in the last cycle of primary education either.

3.3.1.2.2. The implementation of CLIL and EFL in the 5th year of primary education

The target group in School B was that of primary education learners in their 5th year of primary education and their first year of CLIL instruction. As indicated by the teacher, even though 6th year students might have had a greater degree of familiarity with CLIL, such grade level was discarded because of some behaviour problems. Despite not being the tutor of this group, as was the case in School A, the teacher had a very close relationship with these learners. At the time of data collection, the school was in the second year of a PELE project (2008-2010). During the first year, CLIL had only been implemented in the 6th year of primary education, but it was later extended to the 5th year. As for the amount of English instruction, these students had received a minimum of 175 hours in the 1st and 2nd cycle and they would receive a minimum of 140 hours in the 3rd cycle. As for the distribution of weekly hours for CLIL and EFL, the learners in this school had 1 hour of CLIL and 2 hours of EFL per week. Besides, while EFL lessons were carried out as a whole group in the English classroom, CLIL classes were sometimes carried out in the science lab and from time to time the whole group was divided into two groups. The other half of the group then went to the computers' room with another teacher. However, having split groups was not something usual and all the learners were in the classroom when data collection took place.

Concerning materials and teaching methodology, the teacher elaborated her own CLIL materials which take the form of booklets for each topic she chose. The selection of topics was done in accordance with the curricular contents students should master at the end of the 3rd cycle. That is why the teacher often prepared and adapted materials on the same topic to be employed with 5th year and 6th year students. Cooperative work with the L1 subject teacher was not recurrent, but both teachers kept track of what they are doing in each context. EFL lessons were textbook-based[3], but the teacher also brought in complementary material like fairy tales and short stories from time to time. Appendix A (p. 208) provides a list of the course topics and Appendix B (p. 209) presents the teaching programmes provided by the teacher. Finally, Appendix C (p. 222) and Appendix D (p. 237) contain an overview of the teaching units on focus and the teaching materials, respectively.

3.3.1.2.3. The teacher's profile

The teacher in school B was a female generalist primary teacher with a specialty in English. She had a vast teaching experience –more than 15 years teaching English– and she had been granted a paid leave of absence (*llicència C*) by the Catalan Department of Education during the school year 2006-2007 when she was working in a rural school. She spent some months (October-May) in an English-speaking primary school developing a CLIL project to be implemented when resuming her teaching in Catalonia. At the same time, she played on the role of Spanish language tutor in a

[3] House, Susan. 2003. *Little Detectives 2*. Macmillan Heinemann. (Students' book and workbook)

British school with the aim of promoting the development of Spanish as part of the National Strategy for Languages in England/Scotland. Besides, she had a B2 level certified by the *Escola Oficial d'Idiomes* (EOI). At the time of data collection, there was visiting native English teacher who used to come in every fortnight to conduct some brief whole class activities –retelling of English stories or fairy tales– or to take small group of students outside the classroom to develop their oral skills. Finally, as mentioned in the description of School A, the two teachers knew each other and met with other CLIL teachers to share their concerns about their CLIL teaching practice and develop new CLIL materials.

3.3.1.2.4. The learners' profile

The group of 5th year learners consisted of 22 learners, 13 boys and 9 girls, who were 10-11 years of age. As for their background information, almost 50% of the learners were of foreign origin (Morocco, Africa, South America and the Middle East). Half of them (50%) spoke their native language at home (Mandingo, French, Portuguese or Rumanian, for instance) and resorted to Spanish/Catalan when they were at school or on the street. As for the rest of learners in this group, 5 of them (23%) always spoke Catalan at home, 5 (23%) resort to Spanish and only 1 learner (4%) indistinctively alternated between the two languages. Catalan/Spanish was also the main means of communication at school and on the street for all of them.

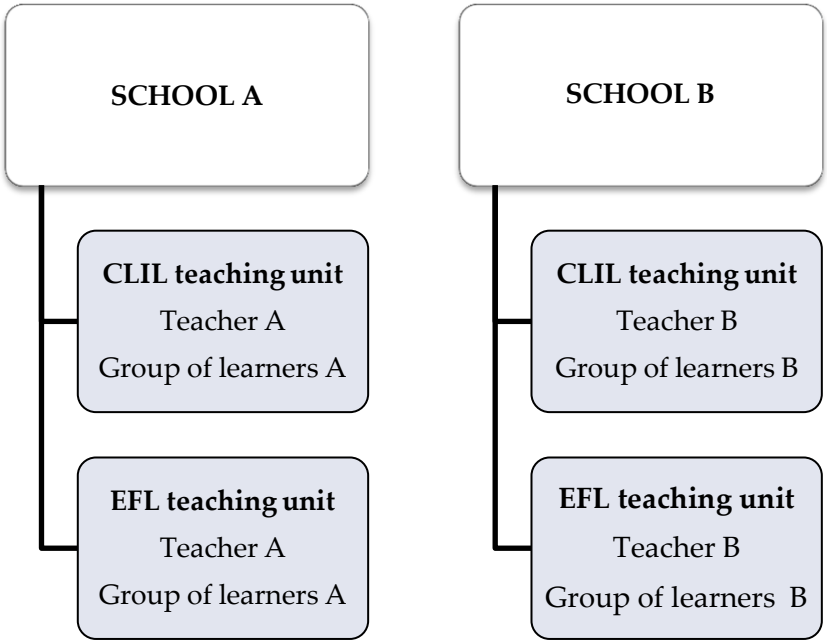
As for the extracurricular contact with English, 8 learners (36%) reported to have extra exposure to English by attending an English school once a week. Lastly, as

for the parents' sociocultural level, 12 students (55%) claimed that their parents or one member of the pair did not succeed in getting the high school graduate or had no access to schooling at all. Lastly, 7 of them (32%) held that at least one member of the pair got the high school graduate and 3 of them (13%) stated that their parents had actually completely their university studies.

3.3.2. Design of the study

Some observations were made as for the interactional features and patterns of CLIL and EFL classes in an exploratory study by Marsol (2008, 2010) whose objective was to compare the implementation of one CLIL and one EFL teaching unit in one primary education school. Therefore, this previous study motivated the research focus of the present dissertation. In each of the two participating schools, a CLIL/EFL teaching unit was taken as the starting point. All the lessons within each teaching unit were audio and video recorded as classroom interaction unfolded. What is more, the same teacher and group of learners doing CLIL and EFL were followed in each school, which is, in fact, one of the strong points of the present study and, to our knowledge, a novelty in the landscape of classroom-based CLIL research. Such research design allowed us to rule out individual differences that might possibly interfere if the CLIL teacher was different from the EFL teacher and if the group of learners was different as well. Introducing variables such as individual teacher style and group dynamics would make it more difficult to establish straightforward comparisons across the two instructional contexts. The research design of the present study is graphically represented in the following figure.

Figure 1. Design of the study



3.3.3. Data analysis

All the lessons making up one teaching unit were audio and video recorded with the presence of one researcher –and, when possible, a research assistant. Data collection took place during the school year 2009-2010 in School A (November-January) and School B (April-May). Furthermore, the school obtained informed consent forms from parents or tutors in order to record audio and image in the classroom.

As for the materials used for data collection, a video camera was placed in one of the corners in the front part of the classroom, but it was sometimes moved to one side of the classroom depending on classroom configuration or technical aspects (i.e. rays of sunlight). Furthermore, four compact digital recorders were placed around the classroom: one at the front, one at the back and two at the sides. In addition, the

teacher wore a lapel microphone wirelessly connected to a digital recorder, which was placed at the back of the classroom, so as to better capture teacher-learner exchanges both during whole class and group work activities. When transcribing the oral data, the teacher's wireless microphone was considered to be the central source and, when inaudible stretches of talk were identified, we resorted to the rest of recordings to faithfully reproduce classroom talk. Once the oral data were transcribed, the video recordings were used as a support to provide general contextual information such as the teacher's and the learners' positioning or non-verbal communication.

The primary data of the study consisted of a number of classroom recordings which include 7 CLIL lessons (3 from School A and 4 from School B) and 8 EFL lessons (4 from School A and 4 from School B) (see Table 2 and Table 3 below). Each recording started when the teacher greeted the students and finished when the teacher signalled the end of the lessons with comments such as *"It's time"* or *"We are going to finish it tomorrow, that's all for today"*. As it can be noticed, class length varied from one lesson to the other and there were some lessons that exceeded the amount of curricular time set by schedule. As already mentioned, such flexibility in timing was possible in both schools since the teacher in School A was the tutor of the target group and the teacher in School B, despite not being the tutor, also had some freedom to take some time from other subjects taught by other teachers. The two teachers also provided us with the teaching programmes (Appendix B, p. 209) and the materials (Appendix D, p. 237) employed to prepare and implement each teaching unit. In the case of CLIL units, these documents had been created by the teachers themselves, whereas a copy the published materials were given to us in the case of the EFL units.

Table 2. School A: Distribution and class time of CLIL and EFL lessons

CLIL		EFL	
Lesson nº	**Class time**	**Lesson nº**	**Class time**
1	40	1	39
2	45	2	37
3	46	3	43
-	-	4	33
Total: 2h 11 min		**Total: 2h 32 min**	

Table 3. School B: Distribution and class time of CLIL and EFL lessons

CLIL		EFL	
Lesson nº	**Class time**	**Lesson nº**	**Class time**
1	86	1	66
2	60	2	60
3	54	3	47
4	52	4	64
Total: 4h 12min		**Total: 3h 57min**	

Secondary data sources included field notes taken by the main researcher during classroom recording or right after them. All the entries included aspects that had to do with the research questions of the present study as well as general observations about the teacher's out-of-class comments related to the unfolding of the lessons, the learners' performance and their proficiency level as well as the teacher's beliefs and opinion about the learning of foreign languages.

Last but not least, a questionnaire (see Appendix E, p. 251) was administered to the students at the end of the data collection period to gather biographical data related to their immediate linguistic environment at home and in the school, the families'

sociocultural status and their overall amount of curricular and extracurricular exposure to English. In addition, they were also asked about the instructional context –CLIL or EFL– they favoured the most and whether or not they would like to continue with CLIL classes the following school year. The final part of the questionnaire included two open-ended questions for the learners to spell out what they like the most and the least about CLIL and EFL lessons. The learners' answers to these open questions were compiled and retrieved by means of *NVivo* and analysed by using inductive content analysis through which coding categories derived directly from the data. When the learners' responses included more than one argument, each of them was coded under the corresponding category. The descriptive quantitative analysis consisted in counting the number of cases under each category separately and calculating frequency percentages. In order to proceed with the analysis of the data, verbatim transcripts of classroom interaction were produced by using standard orthography and some transcription convention adapted from Allwright & Bailey (1991) (see Transcription Conventions in Appendix F, p. 253).

To provide an answer to the first research question, the learners' responses to the teacher's questions during whole class and pair or group work interaction were identified in the transcripts. Therefore, only classroom interaction related to the pedagogical tasks/activities –referred to as *instructional register* (Christie, 2002)– was object of study, but the learners' productions in the *regulative register* (Christie, 2002) covering procedural matters such as classroom management, behaviour and well-being of the participants were excluded from the analysis. Subsequently, such production was analysed by adapting Swain & Carroll's (1987) classification designed to study

learner oral output in French immersion contexts. There now follows a description of such categorisation with examples coming from our own database.

- ***Minimal production:*** it includes learner output consisting of one single word. For example: *"mucus"* (CLIL) or *"grandmother"* (EFL).
- ***Phrase-level production:*** it includes learner output consisting of one phrase with more than one word (nucleus). It mostly includes noun phrases containing pre-modifiers like determiners, nouns or adjectives. For example: *"high fever"* (CLIL) or *"family reunion"* (EFL).
- ***Clause-level production:*** it refers to learner output consisting of one independent or main clause, that is, one that contains a subject and a predicate. For instance: *"We used seeds"* (CLIL) or *"It's strong"* (EFL).
- ***Multiple-clause level production:*** it consists of learner output containing more than one clause, that is, two independent or main clauses joined by coordination, on the one hand, or one independent clause plus one dependent clause joined by subordination, on the other. For example: *"I can't breathe and I can't move"* or *"We think a seed needs warm temperature to germinate"* (CLIL).

As mentioned before, such categories were adapted and expanded to meet the needs of the present study. According to Swain (1988), "Minimal length refers to turns of one or two words in length. Phrase length refers to turns consisting of an adverbial phrase, a nominal phrase or a verb phrase; and clause length refers to a tum consisting of one clause. Any student tum which was longer than a clause was categorized as sustained talk." Therefore, it must be highlighted that the scope of some of these categories was narrowed down –minimal and phrase-level productions, in particular–

and the term "multiple-clause level production" was adopted instead of the original category named "sustained talk". Furthermore, when examining language production with one or more than one clause, we considered whether this language is a) pre-empted by the teacher in some way and presented by means of different forms of language support, b) whether it is learner-created without falling back on such language support or, finally, c) if it includes L1 production.

In relation to the second research question, we looked for reactive FonF episodes opened by the teacher while the learners were performing different tasks/activities within the instructional register (Christie, 2002). According to Ellis (2001), FonF episodes involve a response to an actual error made by a learner during communication, which contrasts with pre-emptive FonF episodes that take place when the teacher or the learners take time out of the conversation to make a particular linguistic form salient. All reactive FonF episodes in our data were identified when there was a non-target-like learner production following a) a teacher question, b) a teacher nomination for learners to respond to a previously formulated question or, lastly, c) a teacher nomination for learners to read something out loud. The following excerpts exemplify FonF episodes triggered by the above-mentioned situations.

School A - EFL: Activity 6, checking sentences from the wall dictation activity

1T: **And what else was in the picture? What's your sentence from the wall paper? [TEACHER QUESTION]**
2P: There is an *Australian family outside the airport.
3T: Pay attention it's not "au" but…
4P: *Australian
5T: help help help!
6B: Australian
7T: Yes! Much better! Again now?
8P: There is an Australian family outside the airport.

School A - CLIL: Task 1, reporting, sharing the results of group work discussion

[*Which are the illnesses that affect the respiratory system? – previous sentence)*

1T: **A volunteer? Do you volunteer, Alan? [TEACHER NOMINATION]**
2A: Yes. We think that a *pneumonia affects the respiratory system.
3T: This pneumonia clings too much Catalan (touches her ear). Please, can we try the English pronunciation?
4A: Pneumonia
5T: That's much better. Again?
6A: We think that pneumonia affects the respiratory system.
7T: That's right.

School A - CLIL: Task 2, reading information on the cards out loud

1T: **What do you say? [TEACHER NOMINATION FOR LEARNERS TO READ OUT LOUD]**
2N: hmm virus pneumonia fever *redu …
3T: Reduce
4N: Reduce a cold.
5T: Stop boys and listen! (calls their attention)
6N: Lots of *fluids.
7T: Lots of?
8N: *Fluids
9T: Fluids. Fluids is liquids. Ok?

There exist error taxonomies, like the one proposed by Van Lier, (1988), which include content errors –*errors of fact* (stating what is not the case) or *errors of logic* (defects of logic, argumentation, cause and effect) apart from linguistic errors, which might provide a further insight into the CLIL context. Nevertheless, taking into account that the present investigation focuses on the CLIL and the EFL instructional contexts as language learning scenarios, language errors alone were the only object of study. Non-target-like L2 productions were defined as the ones containing phonological, lexical and morphosyntactic errors, as in Lyster and Ranta (1997). Apart from these productions, "incomplete" L2 productions were also included in the

analysis. These refer to those learner productions which do not match the teacher's agenda, that is, what she expects from learners at a particular point despite being target-like from the linguistic viewpoint. In order words, incomplete L2 productions were identified when the teacher expected a full sentence with a subject and a predicate (*"The boys were at home"*) instead of a one-word or two-word contribution (*"at home"*) in response to a question (*"Where were the boys at eight o'clock in the morning"*). Even though this is not a language error per se, it might provide valuable information as for the extent to which the teacher is concerned about language form in each learning context.

Finally, L1 learner oral production was also included in the analysis of teacher corrective feedback though there exists no agreement as for how to treat L1 language use in CLIL studies. Lyster (1997: 45) claimed that "such uses of the L1 are not errors per se" but they are of interest if an investigation of the teachers' reactions to such instances is pursued and, in Lyster (2001), unsolicited use of the L1 was considered a separate error category. On the other hand, Dalton-Puffer (2007: 219) argued that L1 use can be considered a case of codeswitching which is "a natural behaviour in bilingual contexts". All in all, it was agreed that both non-target-like or incomplete L2 productions would be included together with L1 productions so as to see the two teachers' reaction to each language in the two instructional contexts under study.

To examine the type of corrective feedback provided by the teacher during FonF episodes, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification, which has been widely used in immersion contexts, served as the basis to proceed with data analysis. In order to delve into the way the teacher provides such corrective feedback, a distinction was made

between cases in which the teacher unilaterally provides the target forms in response to the learners' non-target or incomplete oral output, on the one hand, and those when she withholds the target forms and pushes the learners to engage in the negotiation of form, on the other hand. There now follows a definition of each type together with some examples coming from our own database.

Providing the target forms/structures without any negation of form:

- ***Recast***: the teacher provides a target reformulation of the learner's ill-formed or incomplete utterance without indicating that a given form/structure is non-target-like. For example: "*Yes, this is one of the widest trees in the world"* following "*It is the wider tree"*(EFL).
- ***Explicit correction***: the teacher indicates that the form of the learner's utterance is non-target-like or incomplete and directly provides the correct form which might or might not be accompanied by metalinguistic information. For example: "*No, you should say 'were' instead of 'was'"* (EFL).

Withholding the target forms/structure leading to the negotiation of form ("prompts"):

- ***Elicitation***: the teacher directly elicits target-like forms from learners by asking questions like "*Do we say that in English?*" (EFL) or by pausing *"It's a …*" (CLIL) to allow the learners to complete the teacher's utterance or by asking to reformulate "*Can you try again, please?*" (CLIL).
- ***Metalinguistic clue***: the teacher provides comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance without explicitly providing the correct form. For example: "*Is it really in the past?"* (EFL).
- ***Clarification request***: the teacher indicates to the learner that the previous utterance is ill-formed and that a repetition or reformulation is necessary. They include phrases such as "*Sorry?"* (CLIL). They are often used by teachers, not because they misunderstand, but rather to feign incomprehension and to intentionally draw attention to non-target forms.

- ***Repetition of error***: the teacher repeats the learner's non-target utterance, adjusting the intonation to highlight the error *(Tonsillitis?*)

Finally, all the data were analysed by means of quantitative procedures in the form of frequency counts followed by the qualitative examination of selected classroom excerpts. Interrater reliablility was calculated across 45% of the data and an index of 0.90 was obtained using Cohen's Kappa test.

3.4. Context: Snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL classroom settings

This section seeks to provide a snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL lessons in school A and school B, in general, and of the teaching units under investigation, in particular. The learners' opinions towards their learning experience in both contexts are also reported. The chapter begins with a brief snapshot of the CLIL and EFL lessons in the two schools obtained from the teacher's comments outside the classroom, the field notes taken during classroom recordings and some classroom observations carried out before the data collection period.

3.4.1. School A

3.4.1.1. School A: Snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL lessons

The teaching approach adopted in the CLIL context in this school is that of TBL, so units revolve around one central task understood as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in

the target language while their attention is mainly focused on meaning rather than on form (Ellis, 2005; Nunan, 2005; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Willis, 1996). On the other hand, the EFL lessons follow a more traditional approach to language teaching, that is, that of presentation-practice-production (henceforth, PPP) of the target forms and structures. Regarding materials, these are different in the two contexts as well. CLIL materials are created by the teacher and they include worksheets and power point presentations as well as complementary material such as online videos and published posters with pictures. In the EFL context, the teacher follows the textbook even though she sometimes adapts them a little bit or creates some new activities based on the recommendations in the teacher's resource book. The teacher regularly uses flashcards and textbook posters as well as songs and rhythms. As for the language skills on focus, there is a clear predominance, in the two contexts, of speaking and listening skills over reading and writing. However, this is generally more balanced in the EFL context. As for class configuration, whole class arrangements alternate with pair or group work in both contexts, but there is only individual seatwork in the EFL context. In regards to the use of the L1, the learners are fully aware of the fact it must be avoided in the two contexts despite the fact that the teacher has a more permissive attitude towards the use of the mother tongue in the CLIL context. The teacher uses some L1 in the regulative register (Christie, 2002) in both contexts to deal with classroom management and students' well-being (going to the toilet, feeling sick, etc.). The following table (Table 4) provides a summary of the points just presented.

Table 4. School A: General snapshot of CLIL and EFL lessons

	CLIL	EFL
Teaching approach	Task-based learning (TBL)	Presentation – Practice – Production (PPP)
Materials	Teacher's self-created materials	Textbook
Language skills	Predominance of speaking	Predominance of speaking
Classroom configuration	Whole class, pair/ group work	Whole class, pair/group work and individual seatwork
Learners' and teacher's use of the L1	Some L1 use	L1 use is minimal

3.4.1.2. School A: Snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units

The CLIL unit in school A deals with the topic "The respiratory system. Health and care" and is divided up into three lessons, which amount to a little bit more than two hours of classroom time. As indicated by the teaching programme provided by the teacher in this school (see Appendix B, p. 209), the two overall aims of the unit are for the students to become aware of the diseases which affect the respiratory system as well as to develop a personal commitment to avoid them. The learning outcomes of the unit in terms of content, cognitition and language are reproduced in Appendix B. Each lesson in the teaching unit is devoted to one task: a group work discussion (lesson 1), a whole class creation of a poster (lesson 2) and a group work role play (lesson 3). Following the stages of TBL based on Willis (1998), all these tasks are preceded by a pre-task to activate previous knowledge, to expose learners to the target

concepts/vocabulary and to ensure comprehension. After the performance of the task, two of the tasks –the discussion and the role play– involve planning and reporting on the findings and, finally, reaching a number of conclusions. The first task also includes a follow-up task related to the topic, but none of the lessons include a post-task devoted to language analysis and practice. The following tables (Tables 5- 7) provide a summary of the CLIL teaching unit (see Appendix C, p. 222).

Table 5. School A - CLIL - Task 1: Group work discussion

Pre-task		Eliciting topics in L1 science classes and introducing the topic
		Checking the meaning of target vocabulary
Task cycle	**Task**	Identifying the illnesses affecting the respiratory system
	Planning	Planning how to report on the target illnesses
	Reporting	Reporting on the target illnesses
Follow-up task		Identifying the part of the respiratory system (upper or lower part) that is affected by each target illness and the most dangerous of all the illnesses

Table 6. School A - CLIL - Task 2: Whole class creation of a poster

Pre-task		Watching a video about the breathing process
		Reading aloud the information on the cards and checking comprehension
Task cycle	**Task**	Creating a poster by classifying the information on the cards under different headings

Table 7. School A - CLIL - Task 3: Group work role play

Pre-task		Checking the meaning of target vocabulary and structures
Task cycle	**Task**	Interviewing a person who suffers from asthma
	Planning	Planning to report on the case based on the interviewee's answers
	Reporting	Reporting on the different cases, observing common patterns and reaching final conclusions

The EFL unit extends over four lessons with a total amount of almost three hours of classroom time. This unit corresponds to textbook unit 4 "Family reunion" (see Appendix A, p. 208). As indicated by the teaching programme provided by the teacher in this school (see Appendix B, p. 209), the main language objectives of the unit are to review and introduce target vocabulary related to family members, jobs and nationalities as well as to practise the forms of the verb "to be" in the present and in the past. The general approach followed is that of the PPP. In the first lesson, target

vocabulary is first brainstormed (Appendix D, activity 1) and target forms/structures are also inductively presented through contextualized teacher questions (activity 2). This opens up an episode where they all together reflect on these verb forms and they complete a grid containing all the target forms (activity 3). The practice stage includes a series of activities (activities 4-11) to put all the previously presented target vocabulary and forms/structures into practice. Activities 4-8 take up the second lesson, activities 9-10 are covered in the third lesson and activity 11 is carried out in the last lesson of the unit. The final stage of goal "free production" is not reached in this EFL unit. Table 8 below provides a summary of the sequential organization of the four EFL lessons (see Appendix C, p. 222).

Table 8. School A - EFL: Activities in the EFL teaching unit

Presentation stage (lesson 1, act. 1-3)	Brainstorming of already covered vocabulary and new vocabulary
	Presenting the language forms on focus through teacher questions containing the target verb forms
	Reflecting on the language used and completing a grid with all the target forms
Practice stage (lesson 2-4, act. 4-11)	Practising the target vocabulary and language forms through controlled production with two different activities: - picture description (act. 4) - wall dictation (act. 5, 6) - listening (act. 7,8) - creation of a family tree (act. 9,10) - "find someone who" game (act. 11)

3.4.1.3. School A: Snapshot of learners' opinion

This last section touches upon the learners' opinions towards their general learning experience gathered through the questionnaire administered to them (Appendix E, p. 251). When asked about the context they like the most, 14 out of 22 students (64%) claimed to have no preference for one context over the other, while 7 students (32%) showed some preference for EFL over CLIL. Only 1 student did not respond (4%). When asked about whether they would like to go on with CLIL lessons the following year, 15 students (68%) answered positively and 7 students (32%) were neutral about it.

Furthermore, the following figures show the results to the questions about what they enjoyed the most from CLIL lessons and EFL lessons. As for the former context, Figure 2 indicates that the most frequent answer is to become familiar with new English words and to learn about new topics such as the study of plants rocks or the human body. Figure 3 shows the arguments that refer to negative aspects of the CLIL context. As can be noticed, the most common answer is that they disliked written work like doing homework and taking tests, followed by their difficulty in understanding what the teacher said, and their dislike for certain topics that they already know about.

Figure 2. School A - CLIL: What learners like the most

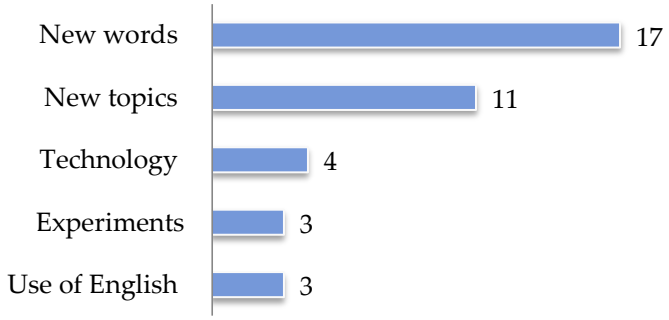
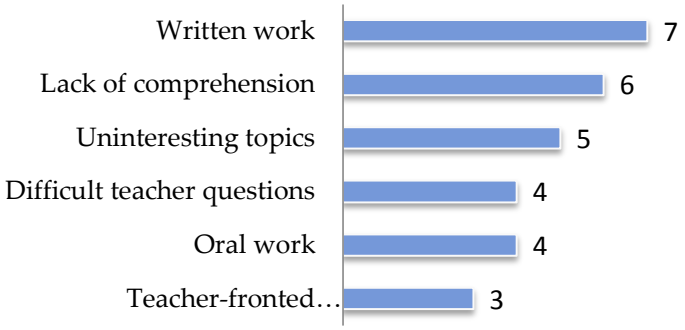


Figure 3. School A - CLIL: What learners like the least



If we now examine the learners' comments concerning the EFL context (Figure 4), they made reference to game-like activities such as games, songs, short stories or fairy tales and role plays. In addition, they also showed a special interest for the learning of new English words and they claimed it was easy to comprehend new words and structures in the EFL context. On the other hand, as shown in Figure 5, they almost all reported their dislike towards written work like doing exercises individually, doing homework at home, and taking tests. Lastly, they also showed some dislike for episodes where explicit attention is paid to language form such as writing down what is on the blackboard or when the teacher orally reviews certain language forms.

Figure 4. School A - EFL: What learners like the most

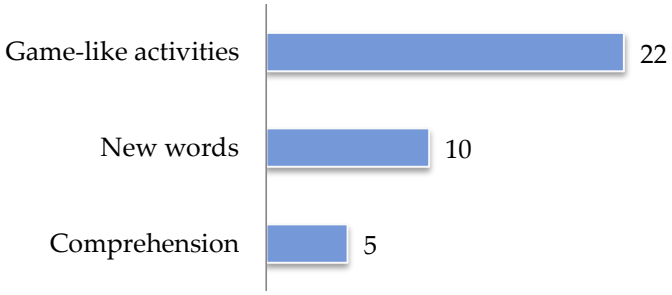
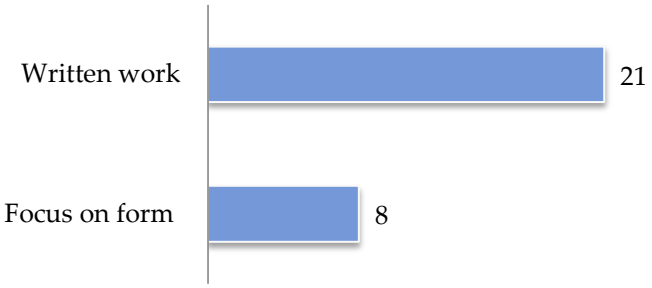


Figure 5. School A - EFL: What learners like the least



3.4.2. School B

3.4.2.1. School B: Snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL lessons

The teaching approach adopted in the CLIL context in this school is based on TBL. CLIL units revolve around experimental tasks that take the form of scientific experiments about atoms, molecules, plants, etc. On the other hand, the EFL lessons follow a more traditional approach to language teaching based on the PPP layout. Concerning materials, CLIL materials are created by the teacher in the form of worksheets and the interactive whiteboard is used on a regular basis. The EFL lessons are based on the activities from the textbook, which involves the presentation of target language by means of stories or songs as a whole class group and the practice of such language through pair work and individual seatwork. The teacher sometimes reads British fairy tales or plays British songs at the beginning of the class. An English language assistant is sometimes in the classroom to assist her. Turning to the language skills on focus, speaking is the most widely practised skill in both CLIL and EFL

lessons. Writing is also given quite a lot of importance in the CLIL context, more than listening and reading. In the EFL setting, writing, listening and reading are equally attended to together with speaking, which clearly predominates. As for class configuration, CLIL tasks are almost always carried out as a whole class group or in pairs if the whole group is split into two and half the group goes to the lab. Whole class and pair work are the most common ones in the EFL context, together with individual seatwork. Finally, as for the use of the L1, it is not allowed in any of the classroom contexts, though the teacher comments that all the students know they can resort to it if they need to express something "difficult" in the CLIL classroom for which they cannot find the words in English. Besides, the teacher sometimes turns to the L1 to manage the classroom space, giving some instructions and reacting to the learners' personal concerns. Table 9 provides a summary of all the features presented.

Table 9. School B: General snapshot of CLIL and EFL lessons

	CLIL	**EFL**
Teaching approach	Task-based learning (TBL)	Presentation - Practice - Production (PPP)
Materials	Teacher's self-created materials	Textbook
Language skills	Predominance of speaking and writing	Predominance of speaking, but balanced work on the rest of skills
Classroom configuration	Whole class and pair work	Whole class, pair work and individual seatwork
Teacher and students' use of the L1	Some L1 use	L1 use is minimal

3.4.2.2. School B: Snapshot of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units

The CLIL unit in this school deals with the topic "The germination of plants" which extends over four sessions with a total of around four hours of classroom time. As indicated by the teacher's plan (see Appendix B, p. 209), the overall aims of the unit are to know how plants germinate by conducting an experiment, which is based on the stages of any scientific experiment: to make a hypothesis, to observe systematically and to check if the initial hypothesis is borne out. The learning outcomes of the unit in terms of content, cognitition and language are reproduced in Appendix B as well. The whole teaching unit revolves around a task that takes the form of a scientific experiment which is flagged by some pre-task activities and followed by some post-task activities. The unit begins with a whole class brainstorming of target vocabulary (water, paper, etc.) closely related to the topic of the unit as well as with an introduction of new subject-specific terms (sunlight, compost, etc.). The teacher shows real images to make sure all the learners comprehend the meaning of such target words (Appendix D, p. 246). Once target words have been elicited, the teacher sets a whole class discussion that also functions as a pre-task in preparation for the main task that follows. At this point, the learners are asked to transfer their L1 knowledge and to work out a hypothesis on the necessary conditions or elements (sunlight, warm temperature, etc.) a seed needs to germinate. When everything is ready to carry out the experiment, some learners are called upon to come to the front and assist the teacher in doing the experiment –the task of the unit–, that is, they prepare one control group with a seed under all the possible conditions (sunlight, temperature, etc.) and different test groups (without one of the elements available) to check if each element is crucial or

not for the germination of the seed. The post-task activities that follow aim at reflecting on the procedure followed to carry out the experiment before the reporting of the results. At the very end, they altogether report on the results obtained against the initial hypothesis and draw some conclusions. Table 10 provides a summary of the CLIL teaching unit (see Appendix C, p. 222).

Table 10. School B - CLIL - Single Task: Experiment about the germination of seeds

Pre-task		Brainstorming of target terms a seed needs to germinate and introducing new subject-specific terms and checking comprehension
		Working out a hypothesis
Task cycle	**Task**	Preparing the experiment with test groups and a control group and conducting systematic observation
	Planning	Drawing/labelling the materials used and drawing/listing the steps taken
	Reporting	Reporting on the experiment and the results obtained and drawing some conclusions

This EFL unit entitled "The legend of the poplar tree" extends over four sessions totalling almost four hours of classroom time. This unit corresponds to unit 3 from the book *Little Detectives* 2 (see Chapter 3 on Research questions and method). As indicated by the teacher plan (see Appendix B, p. 209), this EFL unit aims at identifying the parts of a tree, describing its characteristics and spotting the different stages in the life of a tree. The use of target vocabulary (parts of a tree, seasons, etc.) as well as grammatical forms and structures (to have got, comparative and superlatives, etc.) is

on focus. Besides, oral and reading comprehension is also enhanced by means of written and visual texts (see Appendix D, p. 237).

The unit starts with a revision of already covered vocabulary and the introduction of target words by means of different activities (Appendix D, activities 1-3) in the first lesson. In the second lesson, the teacher tells the story "The legend of the poplar tree" and the learners listen to it and follow the pictures from the book (activity 4). Besides, they also listen to a song closely related to the story and they sing it out loud with the teacher later on (activity 5). Following an inductive approach to grammar teaching, the teacher spins off some metalinguistic reflection on the use of the comparative and the superlative forms of adjectives by drawing on the story and the song they worked on in this second lesson (activity 6). The third lesson begins with controlled oral practice of the target forms when the teacher poses a number of questions related to the learners' immediate classroom reality (activity 7). The rest of the lesson is devoted to individual practice exercises (activities 8-11) of the labelling and matching type about the vocabulary presented at the beginning of the unit as well as on the cycle of a tree. Finally, the unit ends with a reading comprehension of a text that deals with different types of trees around the world. Following the PPP sequence, there is no real free production at the end of the unit though this last activity is close to it (activity 12). Table 11 provides a summary of the EFL unit (see Appendix C, p. 222)

Table 11. School B - EFL: Activities in the EFL teaching unit

Presentation stage (lesson 1-2, act. 1-6)	Brainstorming of already covered vocabulary (parts of a tree, months, seasons) and presenting new target vocabulary (new parts of a tree)
	Matching descriptions with target words (different types of trees)
	Playing a guessing game about different types of trees
	Listening to a story "The legend of the poplar tree" and a song containing the target forms
	Reflecting on the language forms previously seen and completing a grid
Practice stage (lesson 3-4, act. 7-12)	Practising the target vocabulary and forms through controlled production that include: - teacher questions and learner answers - labelling and matching exercises - reading and comprehension questions

3.4.2.3. School B: Snapshot of learners' opinion

This last section includes the learners' opinion towards their general learning experience gathered through the questionnaire administered at the end of the data collection period (see Appendix E, p. 251). When asked about learning preferences, 9 out of 22 students (41%) showed a special preference for the CLIL classes, 2 students (9%) for the EFL classes and 11 students (50%) did not show any preference for one context over the other. When asked about their desire to follow CLIL classes on

consecutive years, 18 students (82%) answered positively, 1 student (4%) answered negatively and 3 students (14%) remained neutral about it.

What is more, the following figures show the results to the questions about what they enjoyed the most from CLIL lessons and EFL lessons in general. Figure 6 displays the strong points of the CLIL context which are predominantly to become familiar with a variety of topics and to conduct experiments. In terms of the aspects they valued less positively about the CLIL class (Figure 7), behaviour problems came up as interfering with the flow of the class, followed by other points such as the fact that they were sometimes very familiar with the contents in the CLIL class, which made it a bit repetitive and boring. Additionally, other students referred to their lack of comprehension when the teacher talked in English. Finally, in this context, the learners did not positively embrace making students assess their own performance at the end of the unit, and the fact that the teacher split the group where half of the students went to the computer room with another teacher.

Figure 6. School B - CLIL: What learners like the most

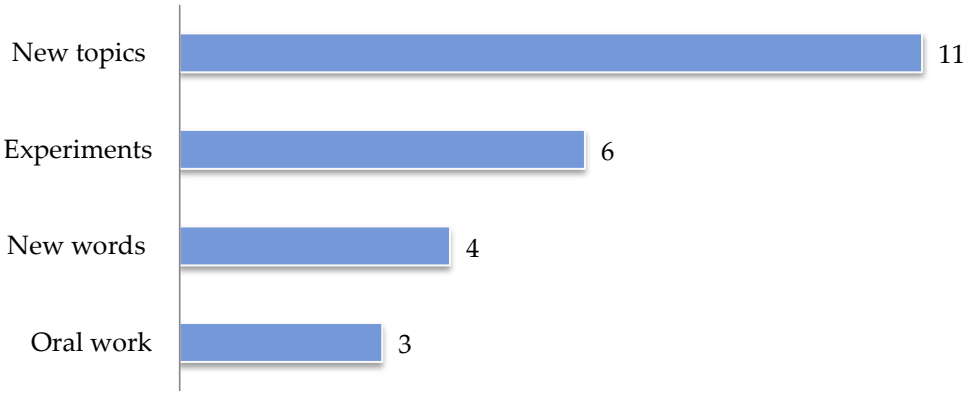
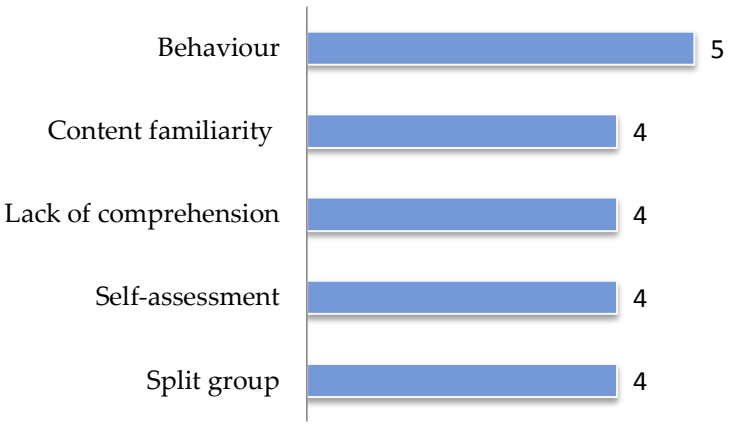


Figure 7. School B - CLIL: What learners like the least



As far as the EFL context is concerned (Figure 8), what the learners liked the most from EFL was game-like activities like songs, stories and games, and also activities that do not involve the use of the textbook, like listening to the teacher telling popular English fairy tales, or playing games with the digital blackboard, or even doing extra activities with the native language assistant. As for the aspects of these classes they valued negatively (Figure 9), the most common point was written work that involves completing individual exercises from the textbook, copying from the blackboard, doing homework and taking tests. Misbehaviour was also mentioned as a factor that usually interrupted the flow of the classroom, which they perceived as clearly affecting the pace with which they worked. Finally, some students related this last point to the fact that they learnt very few new things, but they spent most of the time reviewing already covered language points, which added to their feeling bored at some points.

Figure 8. School B - EFL: What learners like the most

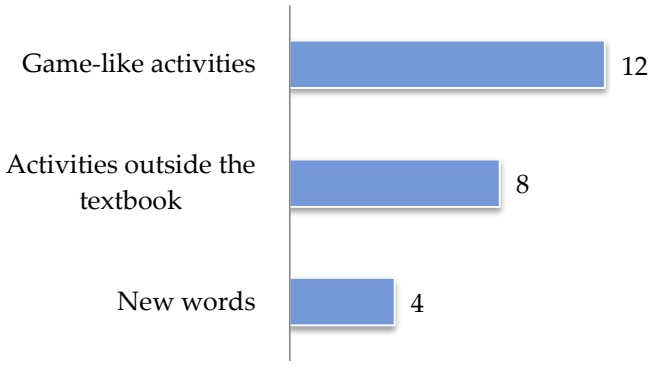
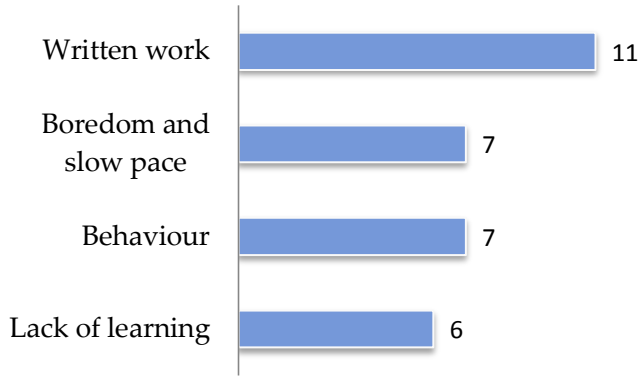


Figure 9. School B – EFL: What learners like the least



3.5. Summary

This chapter has presented, in the first place, the research questions which motivated the present study. The first research question aims at examining learners' oral language production in the CLIL context as compared to the EFL context. The objective of the second research question is to study the provision of teacher corrective feedback during FonF episodes in the CLIL context and the EFL context. Secondly, this chapter has also provided information about the participants of the study –the schools, the teachers and the learners involved–, the design of the study as well as the methodology followed for data collection and data analysis. Finally, this chapter has

provided a snapshot of the two school contexts in this study as for the way CLIL and EFL are generally implemented, the characteristics of the teaching units under analysis and, finally, the learners' opinions on their learning experience in the two instructional contexts.

CHAPTER 4

Results: Learners' oral production

4.1. Introduction

In the first place, this chapter seeks to present the findings obtained in relation to the first research question concerning learners' oral production in response to teacher questions in the CLIL and the EFL classroom contexts. More specifically, the following questions have been addressed:

- How long are learners' productions and how does length relate to the context where such productions occur?
- To what extent learners' long productions based on their own L2 resources?
- How much do learners resort to their L1 and in which context?

Taking into account that CLIL has a two-fold focus on content and language and EFL approaches the foreign language merely as an object of study, we were interested in analysing how this affects the learners' oral production in terms of its linguistic complexity. Teacher questioning has been observed to be the most

widespread mode of classroom interaction in both contexts. Therefore, our main focus is on learners' oral production in response to the teacher's questions posed during whole class and pair or group work interaction. This analysis will provide an insight into the opportunities offered to learners to use the foreign language in each instructional context.

Oral production has been analysed in terms of linguistic length following an adaptation of Swain & Carroll's (1987) classification: *minimal*, *phrase*, *clause* and *multi-clause* (see Chapter 3 for a description of these categories). What is more, when examining clause and multi-clause language production, we have considered whether this language is pre-empted by the teacher in some way and presented through some sort of language support, whether it is learner-created based on the learners' own L2 resources or if it involves L1 production. A quantitative account of the findings is first presented and later developed by means of a qualitative analysis of the data. The results obtained in each school are presented and then followed by a brief account of the similarities found across the two learning contexts and the two schools participating in the study.

4.2. School A

4.2.1. An overview

In School A, a total of 100 learner productions have been identified in the analysis of the CLIL teaching unit. Table 12 provides a breakdown of the learners' oral production according to length and whether they are encoded in the L2 (a total of 84)

or the L1 (a total of 16). As for L2 production in the CLIL context which stands for 84% of the total amount of learner output, there are 32 (38%) minimal productions, 13 (15%) learner productions at the phrase level, 23 (27%) oral productions at the clause level and 16 (19%) productions include more than one clause. Regarding L1 productions, which represent 16% of the total amount of learner production, it can be claimed that 6 of them (37%) are minimal productions, 3 (19%) contain a phrase, 2 (13%) consist of one single clause and 5 (31%) contain more than one clause. In the EFL context, a total of 78 learner productions have been identified. More specifically, 27 of them (35%) are minimal productions, 13 (17%) contain a phrase and 38 (48%) have more than one clause. Neither L2 production with more than one clause nor L1 production have been identified in the EFL data.

Table 12. School A - CLIL/EFL: Learners' oral production according to length

	CLIL (*n* = 100)			**EFL (*n* = 78)**	
	L2 (*n* = 84)	**L1 (*n* = 16)**	**Total (*n* = 100)**	**L2 (*n* = 78)**	**L1 (*n* = 0)**
Minimal	32 (38%)	6 (37%)	38 (38%)	27 (35%)	-
Phrase	13 (15%)	3 (19%)	16 (16%)	13 (17%)	-
Clause	23 (27%)	2 (13%)	25 (25%)	38 (48%)	-
Multiple clause	16 (20%)	5 (31%)	21 (21%)	-	-

What is more, clause-level and multiple-clause level productions have been classified into those containing language pre-empted or predefined by the teacher, those that are learner-created in the L2 and, finally, those that are based on the

learners' own resources but encoded in the L1. As can be noticed in Table 13, in the CLIL context, the learners' production is based on the teacher's pre-empted language in 28 cases (61%), learner-created (L2) on 11 occasions (24%) and student-created (L1) on 7 occasions (15%). In the EFL context, almost all instances (95%) of long productions follow the language presented by the teacher with only 2 instances (5%) of productions created by the learners themselves in the L2. Lastly, no cases of L1 language use have been reported in this instructional setting.

Table 13. School A - CLIL/EFL: Learners' oral production with at least one clause

	CLIL (*n* = 46)	**EFL (*n* = 38)**
Teacher pre-empted	28 (61%)	36 (95%)
Learner-created (L2)	11 (24%)	2 (5%)
Learner-created (L1)	7 (15%)	-

We now move on to examine the nature of such production as it occurs in interaction by means of a number of selected classroom excerpts.

4.2.2. School A: Learners' oral production in the CLIL context

In the CLIL context, it can be said that minimal learner productions, which basically consist of a single noun, and learner productions at the phrase level –with nouns pre-modified by determiners, nouns and adjectives– have been both identified when the teacher and the learners are involved in reviewing vocabulary. This is

exemplified in Excerpt 1 where the teacher aims at eliciting previously covered CLIL topics (the solar system, for instance). In addition, minimal productions also occur when the teacher wants to elicit target concepts or vocabulary like "mucus" (7M) in Excerpt 2 or "asthma" (8S, 10S) in Excerpt 3 during the pre-task phase of the CLIL teaching unit.

Excerpt 1. School A - CLIL: Task 1, pre-task, brainstorming previously covered topics

1T: Do you remember any of the topics we have been learning in cross-curricular in eixos (=axes) in English?
2A: (raises his hand)
3T: Alan?
4A: ***Solar system***
5T: The solar system. You are right! We learnt about the solar system in English. Any other topics you remember?
6R: (raises her hand but seems unsure)
7T: Irene?
8I: ****Water***
9T: Water water in the world yes.

Excerpt 2. School A - CLIL: Task 2, pre-task, watching a video clip and brainstorming target vocabulary

1T: What was the word we were looking for, Joe? What was the word we were looking for?
2J: (no response)
3T: It's produced … what's the sticky (moves fingers as if being nasty) liquid we get?
4J: hmm
5Ls: (raised hands)
6T: Hands up! Michael!
7M: ***Mucus***
87T: Mucus. Ok? This is the very similar to Catalan or Spanish, so it's not so difficult.

Excerpt 3. School A - CLIL: Task 1, pre-task, brainstorming illnesses related to the respiratory system

1T: Can you tell me any kind of illness (moves hand and signals quantity) you have had in the respiratory system?
2Ls: (no response)
3T: You, as boys and girls, what illnesses illnesses (students seem not to understand) malalties (=illnesses) ok do you have in the respiratory system?
4Ls: (no response)
5T: Nothing! You are very healthy (makes gestures to indicate physical strength) and very brave and you never get ill!
6Ls: (no response)
7T: Come on!
8S: ***Asma*** (=asthma)
9T: Yes?
10S: ***Asma*** (=asthma)
11T: Asthma, that's right. That's a good one!

Furthermore, the learners' oral productions with one clause or more than one clause have been identified in different phases of the task cycle: during task performance when working in groups and also when reporting on the results of the task as a whole group. Excerpt 4 takes place while carrying out the first task in the unit, that is, when discussing which target illnesses affect the respiratory system. The teacher addresses the question *"Why do you think it is flu?"* (1T) to one particular student with the objective of eliciting an explanation. One clause productions like *"Stomachache is here"* (3N) and *"And headache is here"* (5N) or multiple-clause productions *"I think it is, too"* (12N) have been identified. It must be noted that this particular learner is not using the model sentences provided by the teacher, but instead she uses her own L2 words to show her reasoning together with the teacher's help.

Excerpt 4. School A - CLIL: Task 1, deciding on target illnesses during group discussion (Appendix D, p. 237)

1T: Why do you think it's flu?
2Ls: Yes
3N ***Stomachache is here*** (touches her tummy)
4T: Yes of course (laughs)
5N: ***And headache*** (wrong pronunciation) ***is xx here***. (touches her head)
6T: And headache is up there.
7N: ***And broken leg*** (touches leg)
8T: It's in here. (touches leg)
9N: ***And tonsillina [?] no …***
10S: ***Tonsillitis***
11T: Tonsillitis
12N: ***No (laugh) no I think it is too.***
13T: Ok. And? What do you think? (addresses the whole group now) What do you think? Do you agree?
14Ls: Yes

Excerpt 5 shows one episode in which the whole class is involved in the reporting of the results obtained in the previous task. In response to the teacher's question *"What was the problem in the group, Gina?"* (3T), one student produces the sentence *"Que (=that) we think that hmm tonsillitis affects the respiratory system but doesn't affect"* (4G, 6G, 8G) with the teacher's assistance. In this case, this student mainly draws on the written language support (Appendix D, p. 233) pre-defined by the teacher with target sentences like "I think…affects the respiratory system" and "It think…doesn't affect the respiratory system". Nevertheless, even though she is mostly relying on the language support provided, she is also able to coordinate clauses with the conjunction "but" (8G) and, later on, when asked *"Why?"* (11T), she is also capable of backing it up with her own L2 resources *"Because the the tonsillitis hmm affects in the (touches her throat) hmm hmm"* (14G).

Excerpt 5. School A - CLIL: Task 1, reporting, sharing the results of group work discussion (Appendix D, p. 237)

1T: (turns to the class again) Then we have a problem in this group and Gina is going to tell us the conclusion
2G: hmm hmm
3T: What was the problem in the group, Gina?
4G: **Que (=that) we think**
5T: We thought yes we think that …
6G: ***That hmm tonsillitis*** (looks for teacher's approval for her pronunciation)
7T: Yeah
8G: ***Affects the respiratory system but doesn't affect.***
9T: But it doesn't affect.
10G: The respiratory system.
11T: Why?
12G: ***hmm why***
13T: Because because …
14G: ***Because the the tonsillitis hmm affects in the (touches her throat) hmm hmm***
15T: That's the throat you told me, ok?
16G: ok
17T: but in fact throat is a part of the respiratory system but the question is (…) Gina (calls her attention probably because she is talking to someone) tonsillitis (touches her throat) the tonsils is a part of the immune system (.) *immunitàri*. Ok? So when your body has problems there are certain elements in your body that go to defense (raises hands so as to seek protection) your body. Ok? To help you to fight the illness. Ok? And this part here (touches her neck) the tonsils are part of the &res no of the immunitary system ok so tonsillitis is not. Ok? Definitely. But but when you have tonsillitis (touches her neck) it's difficult to (does action) to swallow, ok? It's difficult and you can think oh *tinc mal de gola* (=I have a sore throat) Ok? But it's not. Ok, it's not the respiratory system. Well done! I'm very happy with you! I'm very happy!

Other examples of learner language at the clause level following pre-defined structures have been identified in the last task of the CLIL unit when carrying out the doctor-patient role-play task. Learners' contributions like *"I usually have asthma flare-ups in spring."* (2N), *"in winter in autumn"* (4C), *"I usually have asthma flare-ups in autumn."*

(6A), *"autumn and spring"* (8S) and *"in winter"* (10S) are all based on the model sentences from the language support worksheet (see Appendix D, p. 233).

Excerpt 6. School A - CLIL: Task 3, reporting, sharing the patients' answers (Appendix D, p. 239)

1T: Now I'm forty something and I'm not sensitive to anything but maybe tomorrow I can become sensitive to pollen to dust mites or to anything. Asthma flare-ups appear suddenly and sometimes disappear but now always. Not always appear and not always disappear. We have to know. It's something that happens, but we don't know why. How often?
2N: ***I usually have asthma flare-ups in spring.***
3T: in spring. More?
4C: ***in winter in autumn***
5T: in autumn
6A: ***I usually have asthma flare-ups in autumn.***
7T: You have them in autumn too?
8S: ***autumn and spring***
9T: autumn and spring. And?
10S: ***in (hesitates) winter***
11T: in winter? Ok, you see, different periods of the year, no fixed pattern but usually it's more common in spring. Many people are sensitive to pollen. In spring all the trees produce their pollen.

At the very end of the reporting phase, when the teacher poses the questions *"Do you think the majority of people are allergic to pollen?"* (1T) (Excerpt 7) to draw some final conclusions, the learners' responses also contain sentences with one clause or more than one clause –involving both coordination and subordination– like in *"Pollen in Spring, yes, but it depends. I think dust mites is common, too"* (2J) and *"I'm allergic to dust mites, but mother and *parent and father and grandmother to pollen"*(4J). In addition, we can also see how the learners try to move beyond the language support provided and create their own sentences. All in all, it can be claimed that 24% of long learner language –with, at least, one clause– is student-created whereas 61% which is pre-defined by the teacher. As pointed out by the teacher outside the classroom context,

such learner-created productions are almost always provided by high achievers who show an overall greater command of the language.

Excerpt 7. School A - CLIL: Task 3, reporting, drawing some final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 239)

1T: Do you think the majority of people are allergic to pollen?
2J: ***Pollen in Spring, yes, but it depends. I think dust mites is common, too.***
3T: Yes, you're right!
4J: ***I'm allergic to dust mites, but mother and *parent and father and grandmother to pollen. They (as if sneezing)…***
5T: Yes! (laughs) Probably they start to sneeze (as if sneezing) and that's terrible! I completely agree!

Apart from using the language support provided and relying on their L2, L1 language use has been identified in two specific contexts throughout the CLIL unit. The first context is in response to the teacher's questions aimed at a definition or an explanation of a given target word when checking comprehension during the pre-task phase of the unit. However, as illustrated in Excerpt 8, while the learners are engaged in reading the pieces of information to complete a poster, the teacher asks for the meaning of the target word "chills", but all she gets is a collection of L1 translations *"Fredolic"* (3B), *"Tremolins"* (4C), *"La pell de gallina"* (6C) and an L1 explanation *"Si com quan fa fred"* (5A), which she fully accepts. Another context in which L1 oral production occurs is when the teacher asks about the students' reactions/feelings and/or personal experience in relation to the current topic. In Excerpt 9, after watching the video clip on the breathing process and how it gets altered by respiratory illnesses in the pre-task phase of the unit, the teacher wishes to check their reaction while making them interested in the task that follows, but she again receives L1 words through which the

learners express their amazement at getting to know how the respiratory system works.

Excerpt 8. School A - CLIL: Task 2, reading information on the cards aloud and checking comprehension of target vocabulary (Appendix D, p. 238)

1T: What are 'chills'? (moves her body)
2A: Ah, com … (=Oh, like …) (moves body)
3B: ***Fredolic***
4C ***Tremolins***
5A: ***Si com quan fa fred*** (=Yes, like when it's cold)
6C: ***La pell de gallina***
7T: Chills. Ok?

Excerpt 9. School A - CLIL: Task 2, pre-task, checking reactions after watching a video clip

1T: Gemma, how do you feel knowing this?
2G: (remains silent for some seconds) ***no ho sé*** (laughs) (=I don't know)
3T: you don't know? Are you happy because you know this or not?
4G: no
5T: no t'agrada saber-ho?
6G: ***bueno sí sí que m'agrada però*** … (=well yes yes I like it but …)
7T: but … I like to know it but …
8G: ***però em sembla raro que això ho tingui aquí*** (=but it's weird to know that I have this inside me)
9T: (laughs) ah you cannot believe that this happens inside (touches her thorax) your body? Ah, that's new! She cannot understand that this really happens inside the respiratory system but this is true! This is how things work, ok?
10G: (laughs)
11Ss: (laughs)
12T: we have to know about it!
13J: xx
14T: yes it's different it's different.

To sum up, it can be claimed that the learners' oral production in the CLIL unit ranges from minimal productions to longer structures with one or more than one clause. The percentage of productions at the word level is the highest representing more than one third of the total amount of output identified in the dataset, followed by

productions with one clause and more than one clause which stand for around half of the total amount. In addition, we have identified a variety of contexts in which these productions are uttered in response to the teacher's questions with a range of purposes. Minimal productions and those at the phrase level are typical when reviewing vocabulary or presenting new target vocabulary or concepts in the pre-task phase of the CLIL unit. Besides, the learners' output containing one or more than one clause has been identified throughout the task cycle either during task performance or the reporting phase. More specifically, more than half of these productions follow the model sentences pre-defined by the teacher as language support. However, some cases of learner-created L2 productions that depart from the model sentences have also been identified both during the developing of the task and when reporting on the results and drawing some conclusions. Cases of L1 use have been pinpointed when the learners translate some target words instead of providing a definition and, finally, when expressing personal feelings and reactions. We now move on to look at representative classroom excerpts to illustrate the findings obtained in the EFL context of School A.

4.2.3. School A: Learners' oral production in the EFL context

If we now turn to the EFL context, it can be pointed out that minimal learner productions –consisting of nouns– and learner productions at the phrase level –with nouns pre-modified by determiners or adjectives mostly– both occur when brainstorming previously learnt vocabulary or eliciting new target vocabulary. The following classroom excerpts (Excerpts 10 and 11) show how learners come up with

one- or two-word productions following the teacher's questions to describe a poster in the presentation stage of the EFL unit. Yet, it is important to note that these productions often alternate with clause-level productions (3A, Excerpt 10) since the teacher oftentimes reminds the students to use the formulaic expression posted on the classroom walls "I can see…".

Excerpt 10. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation phase, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: OK. What else? And who's the person who writes for a newspaper or magazines?
2S: ***Journalist.***
3A: ***I can see a journalist.***
4T: Well done, Andrew, you are excellent today!

Excerpt 11. School A - EFL: Activity 10, practice phase, reporting on a family Tree (Appendix D, p. 243)

1T: So we have the granny. How many daughters and sons has granny got?
2S: ***Two daughters***
3T: Two daughters and one son
4Ss: ***Sally Sara***
5T: But who is Sally? Who is Sara? And who is Tony? How are we going to decide this, Anne?
6A: here
7T: ok taking into account how many sons or daughters they have got altogether.

What is more, learner production made up of one clause occurs both during the presentation and the practice phases of the EFL teaching unit. Besides, as shown in Table 13 (p. 90), productions with one clause might be the result of using the language pre-empted by the teacher, resorting to the learners' own L2 resources or to the mother tongue. Concerning modelled language, it has been identified when the teacher inductively presents the target forms/structures of the unit by formulating questions

like *"Where were Marc and Cindy at eight o'clock?"* (1T) which involve the use of the verb "to be" in the present and the past tense *"They were at home"* (2G, 4G, 6G), as shown in Excerpt 12.

Excerpt 12. School A - EFL: Activity 2, presentation, answering teacher questions about daily routine

1T: Where were (repeats) where were Marc and Cindy at eight o'clock? So Tony?
2G: ***They …***
3T: They … You don't know the verb. This is the problem. But listen to the question 'where were Marc and Cindy at eight o'clock?'
4G: ***They were …***
5T: They were … That's right! (writes it down) They were …
6G: ***At home.***
7T: At home. That's perfect!

What is more, after the students are exposed to such forms, the practice phase also encourages oral output consisting of one single clause. Excerpt 13 displays the exchange that follows when the teacher asks the students to provide the sentences they have just read in the wall dictation activity *"And what about aunt Sally? Aunt Sally …"* (1T) and they are now supposed to reproduce to their partner "Aunt Sally is talking to a policeman" (2S, 4S, 6S) thanks to the teacher's prompts.

Excerpt 13. School A - EFL: Activity 5, practice, carrying out wall dictation (Appendix D, p. 243)

1T: And what about aunt Sally? Aunt Sally …
2S: ***Aunt Sally's talking***
3T: talking (emphasizes pronunciation) to a?
4S: ***to a policeman***
5T no policeman (emphasizes pronunciation)
6S: ***policeman*** (self-corrects)
7T: Good. Next.

Lastly, one of the two attempts on the part of the learners to produce language at the clause level moving beyond the support provided by the teacher is reproduced in the following excerpt when the teacher aims at brainstorming target vocabulary during the presentation phase of the EFL unit. As indicated in Excerpt 14, the first learner contribution *"In the table on are grapes"* (2A) includes the student's own L2 resources though the teacher quickly frames such contribution within the formulaic expression "I can see…" used at this point to describe the picture on focus.

Excerpt 14. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: What's around the table?
2A: ***In the table on (places his hand on the desk) are grapes.***
3T: You can see some grapes? (checks it) Yes!
4S: ***and juice.***
5T: and juice (writes it on the blackboard)
6S: ***and orange juice!***
7T: Ok grapes grapes and juice. We don't know if they are orange or apple.

Finally, no instances of learner productions with more than one clause have been identified in this context and L1 productions are not present either.

To conclude, the learners' oral output in the EFL context ranges from minimal productions to clause-level productions, but no instances of more than one clause productions and L1 productions have been pinpointed. The percentage of productions at the clause level is the highest representing almost half of the total amount of learner output. Besides, minimal productions occupy the second position with one third of the total amount of learner output, followed by phrase-level productions. Minimal learner productions and those at the phrase level are typical when brainstorming already covered vocabulary or presenting new target vocabulary. Some oral output at the

clause level has been identified in the presentation and the practice phase of the PPP sequence when the teacher wants the learners to use a given structure to provide target vocabulary. Nevertheless, most clause-level production occurs when the teacher inductively gets learners to use the structures on focus and when practicing them in pairs. We now address a comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context in School A.

4.2.4. School A: A comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context

The analysis of the learners' oral production in School A indicates that the range of the learners' oral production in terms of its length and context share some points of contact and present some differences as well which are summarised as follows:

- The proportion of minimal and phrase-level productions is very similar in both contexts (38% and 15% in CLIL and 35% and 17% in EFL) and they tend to occur in the presentation phase of the PPP sequence to review previously covered vocabulary/topics and to elicit new target vocabulary/concepts in both contexts.
- Clause-level productions are greater in number in the EFL context (48%) than in the CLIL context (27%). In the former context, they have been identified both during the presentation phase and the practice phase of the PPP sequence. In the latter, they occur during the task cycle, that is, when performing and reporting tasks.

- There are some productions with multiple clauses in the CLIL context (21%) and none in the EFL context. In addition, 3 out of every 4 of these productions are in the L2 and they are uttered while performing and reporting tasks.
- There is a predominance of pre-empted productions in the EFL context (95%). In the CLIL context, pre-empted productions are also frequent but less predominant (61%) because student-created productions are also present (24%) both in the L1 and the L2. When examining L2 productions alone (n=84), L2 student-created productions play a minor role since they account for only 13% of the total amount identified in the dataset.

  There is a small proportion of L1 productions in the CLIL context (16%) ranging from minimal to more than one clause and none in the EFL context.

4.3. School B

4.3.1. An overview

In School B, a total of 98 learner productions have been identified in the analysis of the CLIL teaching unit. Table 14 shows the learners' productions according to their length and whether they are produced in the L2 (a total of 83) or the L1 (a total of 15). Regarding L2 productions in the CLIL context (85%), 27 (33%) instances of minimal production have been identified, followed by 11 (13%) examples of productions at the phrase level, 28 (34%) containing one clause and 17 (20%) with more than one clause. Turning to L1 productions, there are 2 (13%) productions at the phrase level, 5 (33%) instances contain one clause and 8 (53%) of them contain more than one

clause. As for the EFL context, a total of 77 learner productions have been tallied in this context, 73 (95%) correspond to L2 productions and 4 (5%) to L1 productions. More specifically, 35 (48%) learner utterances fall within the category of minimal productions. Besides, 13 (18%) instances consist of a single phrase and, finally, the remaining 25 (34%) contain one clause. No instances of more than one clause have been found in this context. The use of the L1 has been identified on 4 occasions, that is, 3 (75%) cases containing minimal productions and 1 case with one clause.

Table 14. School B - CLIL/EFL: Learners' oral production according to length

	CLIL (*n* = 98)			**EFL (*n* = 77)**		
	L2 (*n* = 83)	**L1 (*n* = 15)**	**Total (*n* = 98)**	**L2 (*n* = 73)**	**L1 (*n* = 4)**	**Total (*n* = 77)**
Minimal	27 (33%)	-	27 (28%)	35 (48%)	3 (75%)	38 (49%)
Phrase	11 (13%)	2 (13%)	13 (13%)	13 (18%)	-	13 (17%)
Clause	28 (34%)	5 (33%)	33 (34%)	25 (34%)	1 (25%)	26 (34%)
Multiple clause	17 (20%)	8 (53%)	25 (25%)	-	-	-

Furthermore, when looking at the learners' oral which contains at least one clause (Table 15), it can be stated that, in the CLIL context, 29 (50%) of these productions are based on the modelled language, 16 (28%) are student-created and 13 (22%) are encoded in the L1. As for the EFL context, all learner productions, that is, 25 contributions except for 1 are based on the language support provided by the teacher.

Table 15. SB - CLIL/EFL: Learners' oral production with at least one clause

	CLIL (*n* = 58)	EFL (*n* = 26)
Teacher pre-empted	29 (50%)	25 (96%)
Learner-created (L2)	16 (28%)	-
Learner-created (L1)	13 (22%)	1 (4%)

We now move on to examine the nature of the learners' oral contributions as they occur in interaction by means of a number of selected classroom excerpts.

4.3.2. School B: Learners' oral production in the CLIL context

In the CLIL context, it can be noted that the learners' minimal productions – mainly isolated nouns– have been identified when the teacher intends to elicit already covered or new target vocabulary before the main task or when eliciting target vocabulary during the reporting phase. Excerpt 16 shows the kind of one-word productions that the learners provide when brainstorming the necessary elements a seed needs to germinate. The learners' tendency is to produce minimal answers "light" (2G), for example, but the teacher progressively prompts them to provide complete sentences by drawing their attention to the model sentences shown on the interactive board. As it can be noticed in Excerpts 16 and 17, the teacher and the students jointly construct the target sentences *"We think a seed needs water to germinate"* and *"We think a seed needs warm temperature to germinate"* moving beyond the students' minimal productions identified in the first excerpt.

Excerpt 15. School B - CLIL: Pre-task, brainstorming necessary elements for a seed to germinate (Appendix D, pp. 240-242)

1T: What is it necessary?
2G: ***Light***
3T: Ok light, not artificial light but sunlight (pointing to the window and the sun outside).

Excerpt 16. School B - CLIL: Pre-task, brainstorming necessary elements for a seed to germinate (Appendix D, pp. 244-246)

1T: Water. Is water essential?
2Ls: ***Yes***
3T: Yes. So come on!
4Ls: ***We***
5T: We think
6Ls: ***We think***
7T: a seed
8Ls: ***a seed***
9T: needs
10S: ***water to germinate.***
11T: we think a seed needs water to germinate. So you have to draw water. You can draw a tap, yes a bottle with water in it.

Excerpt 17. School B - CLIL: Pre-task, brainstorming necessary elements for a seed to germinate (Appendix D, pp. 244-246)

1T: A different necessary element?
2L1: ****Temperature***
3T: Temperature warm yes warm temperature. Yes? Is it important or it's not important?
4Ls: ***Yes***
5T: Is it important?
6Ls: ***Yes***
7T: Yes. You agree?
8Ls: ***Yes***
9T: Ok so …
10Ls: (no response)
11T: We think …
12Ls: ***We think***
13T: We think
14Ls: ***a seed***
15T: a seed needs warm
16Ls: ***warm temperature***
17T: temperature to germinate. Very good!

In addition, minimal productions also occur when reporting on the materials used for the experiment. Excerpt 18 indicates that one-word learner answers are supplied by the learners (4B, 6Ls) and met by the teacher to make these target words salient. Even though the model sentence "I/We need…" is available in the language support, the teacher does not prompt the students to use these full sentences, but it is the teacher the one who provides them when following up the learners' words. As highlighted by the teacher at the end of this classroom recording, time pressure made it impossible for her to wait for the learners' answers, which might explain the reason why the teacher accepts minimal productions instead of full sentences at this point of the CLIL teaching unit.

Excerpt 18. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the material used for the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: What did we use for the experiment? Brian?
2B: (no response)
3T: What things did we use? What things did we use?
4B: ***hmm compost***
5T: we used compost or soil. Do you prefer compost?
6Ls: ***Soil***
7T: Soil, well, it's the same.

On the other hand, learner productions at the phrase level together with those with one clause or more than one clause have been found in other stages of the unfolding of the CLIL teaching unit. First of all, when both the teacher and the learners are preparing the plant pots with the different elements to expose them under different conditions, the teacher poses a number of questions to elicit some explanations on the part of the learners. In Excerpt 19, the students are engaged in figuring out the ideal place in the classroom to leave one of the control groups (i.e., a seed in a plant pot

without exposure to sunlight). Taking into account that no language support is provided for the students to verbalize their explanations, some student-created productions follow at this point both at the phrase and at the clause level *"No light"* (2G), *"maybe in a in a covet"* (5G) ", *"And another option is..."* (5K) and *"In a box"* (10W, 11R, 13R). Furthermore, when the teacher requires them to provide the reason why this like this, structures with more than one clause are actually used and constructed without any support. For example, in Excerpt 20, one learner is able to provide the reason why this is not considered a fair test *"*Because there are some air in in the plate"* (4A).

Excerpt 19. School B - CLIL: Carrying out the experiment

1T: Control four, very good! Control four here, control four … How do we do this?
2G: ***No light***
3T: With no light. A problem, a big problem: no light. How can we do this? How can we do this?
4Y: ***Hmm hmm (thinking about it)***
5G: ***maybe in a in a covet*** (points to one of the covets in the classroom)
6T: In a covet. Yes! But for example, I open these covets twenty times in a day. It's a problem!
7K: ***And another option is...***
8R: ***This!*** (points to something in the classroom)
9T: In the other one, I open that cover six time in a day, more or less.
10W: ***In a ...***
11R: ***box***
12T: In a box
13R: ***In a box***
14T: Perhaps in the other one (points at a smaller box) Yes!

Excerpt 20. School B - CLIL: Carrying out the experiment

1T: This one, control five control five. A plastic bag, a plastic bag. Yes? The container, the soil, the seeds, the water is in [emphasis] the plastic bag. But one question, one question: is it going to be a fair test, a correct correct correct test? Ann?
2A: ***No***
3T: Why?
4A: ****Because there are some air in in the plate.***
5T: There is some air in the plate, so it's not perfect. A scientist, a scientist should take out all. Oh! We had we have something there to do this (she refers to a given object they have in the lab) We have something there to do this! We have a special container and, if you move something, the air goes out. We could use that! Ok what a pity!

Second, when the students are involved in writing down the instructions to replicate the experiment in the future, they mostly come up with productions at the clause level, but this time they fall back on the modelled sentences provided by the teacher like the ones shown in Excerpt 21 *"Prepare (number) plant pots with soil and some seeds, then leave them …"*, *"Put one plant pot in a …"* or *"Don't water one pot"*.

Excerpt 21. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the steps followed in the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: So what's the next step?
2F: ***Don't water one pot.***
3T: Ok so without water. Don't water this pot, but water the rest of pots.

Finally, when checking the initial hypotheses against the results obtained and drawing some final conclusions, the learners faithfully follow the language structures provided as language support, as excerpts 22 *"The seed grows"* (2B) and excerpt 23 *"That seed not growing"* (2M) and *"The seed didn't grow"* (4M) illustrate. However, when the teacher asks them to provide some further explanations, they turn to the L1 in order to express them effectively. As shown in Excerpt 24, the teacher shows some plastic leads

–not plastic pots– they have used for the experiment for them to notice whether or not plastic pots are completely essential for a seed to be able to germinate. When faced by such question, they naturally react with L1 answers (8M, 9S, 10G) to express their reasoning, which the teacher fully accepts and praises at the end.

Excerpt 22. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the experiment and drawing final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 245)

1T: so what are the conclusions if we look at this plant pot?
2B: ***The seed grows.***
3T: The seed grew. That's right. Yes, the seed grew! So a seed …
4B: ***A seed needs***
5T: A seed needs
6B: ***temperature to germinate.***
7T: warm temperature to germinate. Ok so a seed needs warm temperature to germinate. Write it down. This is another conclusion we get from the experiment.

Excerpt 23. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the experiment and drawing final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 245)

1T: Let's see what happened. Let's see … let's see … what do you think?
2M: ***That seed not growing.***
3T: It couldn't, it couldn't germinate.
4M: ***The seed didn't grow*** (looks at worksheet with written support)
5T: It couldn't germinate.

Excerpt 24. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the experiment and drawing final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 245)

1T: Plant pots? Is it essential?
2Ls: ***Yes!***
3Ls: ***No***
4T: Yes or no?
5Ls: ***Yes***
6Ls: ***No***
7T: Why?
8M: ***Perquè sinó on plantaràs la planta?*** (=because if not where are you going to plan it?)

9S: ***No perquè també es pot plantar en un altre lloc!*** (=you can plant it in another place!)
10G: ***Però es necessita una superficie plana!*** (=but you need a flat surface!)
11T: Well! Good!

This is not the only case where we have found some evidence of L1 production, but using the mother tongue also applies when the learners reflect upon what can be done to check the initial hypothesis in a drawing in the reporting phase (Excerpt 25). The teacher poses a number of questions for them to describe what they are drawing which are answered by turning to the L1 (3F, 9L, 15L) displays. Once again, the teacher fully accepts these contributions without any need for the learners to reformulate it using the target language.

Excerpt 25. School B - CLIL: Planning on how to graphically represent the steps followed for the experiment (Appendix D, p. 244)

1F: *Senyo, ja sé com fer-ho!* (= teacher, I don't know how to do it!)
2T: How do you draw it?
3F: ***Fent una persona bufant!*** (= a person blowing)
4T: No, no, no, no! Air! This is air! (=moves hands upwards)
5F: Senyo, però aquí hi ha aire! (= teacher, but there's air in here!)
6T: It's a good idea, Jane! (walks around and looks at Jane's drawing)
7J: *I si ho faig així?* (=what about doing it like this?)
8T: No, no! (addresses J and then turns to the class) We can draw … it's an example, it's an example. Jane said … it's a good idea, Jane! We can draw a face well a nose a person a person. Yes? And now, air air!
9L: ***Amb una fletxa cap al nas*** (=with an arrow pointing to the nose)
10T: The air, the air!
11L: ***Ho fem així!*** (=we do it like this!)
12L: ***Aire*** (=air)
13L ***Oxigen*** (=oxygen)
14T: Oxygen and different materials. Air, here we have air air air air (moves hands around the body) Yes? Mike? (gives the floor)
15L: ***Jo ho he fet d'una altra manera. Jo he ficat els núvols i una fletxa aquí al mig.***
(= I've done it differently. I've drawn clouds with an arrow in between them)

16T: Yes, he pointed to the air (to the class). He drew two clouds and there in the middle between the clouds there is air.

To conclude, it can be claimed that learner oral output in the CLIL teaching unit ranges from minimal productions to longer structures with one clause or more than one clause. The proportion of learner output at the word and clause level is similar and they altogether represent two thirds of the total amount of learner output identified in the CLIL data. More than one clause productions come next, followed by productions at the phrase level, which are kept to a minimum. The qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts indicates that minimal output mostly occurs when eliciting already covered vocabulary and introducing new one in the pre-task phase and when eliciting target vocabulary during the reporting phase. In this respect, especially in the former context, the teacher prompts the learners to use full sentences at the clause level instead of minimal productions, but she adopts a rather *laisse-fare* attitude in the reporting phase. In addition, instances of output containing phrases, one clause and more than one clause have been identified at different points, that is, during task performance (i.e., conducting the experiment), planning on the report and reporting/drawing final conclusions. In all these classroom episodes, it has been noticed that learner language sometimes follows the model language pre-defined by the teacher, but there are also cases in which the learners venture to bring in their own linguistic resources. In regard to the use of the L1, its role is notable when the learners are asked to provide explanations for their choices and their L2 resources are not enough. We now move on to look at representative classroom excerpts to illustrate the findings obtained in the EFL context of School B.

4.3.3. School B: Learners' oral production in the EFL context

In the EFL context, minimal learner production consisting of one word or learner productions at the phrase level are frequent when reviewing already covered target vocabulary related to the topic of the unit, like the following excerpts indicate. The students make minimal (Excerpt 26) and phrasal contributions (Excerpt 27) when the teacher intends to elicit new target vocabulary.

Excerpt 26. School B - EFL: Activity 1, brainstorming already covered vocabulary

1T: A year has twelve months. A year has twelve months. Yes? A year has twelve months. A year has twelve months. The first one is … Which one?
2L: ***January***
3T: January
4Ls: ***February***
5T: February
6Ls: ***March***
7Ls: ***April***
8Ls: ***May***
9T: Ok

Excerpt 27. School B - EFL: Activity 1, brainstorming already covered vocabulary

1T: Then here imagine that we have … What's this?
2N: **A flower**
3T: No, not yet. We have … one, two, three, four …
4M: ***Fulles*** (=leaves)
5N: ***Leaves***
6T: Leaf in singular. One leaf and two leaves.
7L: And two flowers (the teacher doesn't seem to hear it)
8T: But be careful!
9N: With 'v'!
10T: Very good! Leaves!

Learner language at this level also occurs when, after being exposed to the target forms of the unit by means of the story about "The legend of the poplar tree" (activity 4) and a song (activity 5), the teacher spins off some metalinguistic reflection on the use of comparatives and superlatives. At this point, the teacher addresses some questions to the learners which are met by answers containing adjectives in their comparative "stronger than" (2L3) and superlative forms "the strongest" (16L4), as Excerpt 28 indicates. The teacher's objective is only to draw the learners' attention to the target forms without asking them to provide a full sentence.

Excerpt 28. School B - EFL: Activity 6, reflecting on target forms (Appendix D, p. 249)

1T: He is very strong, A is very strong. B, this person, imagine that twenty and twenty kg. So this person is, is … What can we say?
2L3: ***stronger than***
3T: stronger than B. Mathew, he is stronger than A because … Look! Ten and ten?
4M: ***twenty***
5L5: ***is, is …***
6T: ten and ten?
7M: ***forty***
8T: twenty it's twenty. And twenty and twenty …
9M: ***forty***
10T: it's forty so it's <u>stronger</u>.
[...]
11T: And finally imagine that this third person (…)
12L2: persons copy, no?
13T: Yes you can copy the people. He is <u>the strongest</u> because imagine fifty kg and fifty kg.
14L3: ***A hundred***
15T: A hundred or one hundred. So C is the ... the … How can we describe him?
16L4: ***the strongest***
17T: the strongest, thank you, the strongest. Ok? With a yellow colour pencil or a red one or a green colour you can underline, you can underline for example these words.

If we now examine the situations in which output containing one clause is produced, it is first identified during the game-like activity to guess the name of different types of trees, as shown in Excerpt 29. The learners' output *"It's tall"* (2I), *"*It hasn't got"* (4I) and *"It's the poplar tree"* (6M) follows the modelled sentences provided in the textbook with no attempts at moving beyond the use of such structures.

Excerpt 29. School B - EFL: Activity 3, playing a guessing game (Appendix D, p. 247)

1T: Ibrahim, it's tall or it's short?
2I: ***It's tall.***
3T: It's tall ok. It has got leaves or it hasn't got leaves?
4I: ***It hasn't got.***
5T: It hasn't? No leaves? So, Mary? What tree is it?
6M: ***It's the poplar tree.***

Furthermore, as part of the practice phase in activity 7, when the teacher orally elicits some target forms, the learners produce structures like *"Anna is the youngest person in the class"* (8A), as reproduced in Excerpt 30 below. As indicated in this excerpt, the learners tend to focus on meaning and only produce the isolated name of classmates first (2M, 6A) but the teacher reacts accordingly by eliciting full sentences that contain the target forms. All the learners follow the same model sentences like in a drill and there is not a single instance of student-created productions in the L2.

Excerpt 30. School B - EFL: Activity 7, answering teacher questions containing target forms

1T: Who is the youngest person in the class? Who is the youngest person in the class? Matt?
2M: ***Anna***
3T: Now my question. Who is the youngest person in the class, Marc? Who is the youngest person in the class?
4M: (no response)

5T: Who is the youngest person in the class, Alan?
6A: ***Anna***
7T: Anna ...
8A: ***Anna is the youngest person in the class.***
9T: Thank you. Anna is the youngest person in the class.

The last activity in the unit engages the learners in a reading comprehension activity which prompts the use of target forms and structures as well. As indicated in Excerpt 31, the learners reproduce these pieces of information "*In the Rocky Mountains."* (2Ls), ""*The oldest trees grow in the Rocky Mountains"* (4Ls) and *"And some of these trees are 6,000 years old" (5R)* in response to the teacher's comprehension questions. Nevertheless, it needs to be highlighted that the tendency is for the learners to first provide only key information in short answers and it is the teacher the one who prompts them, as shown in 3T, to provide full sentences.

Excerpt 31. School B - EFL: Activity 12, reading a text and answering comprehension questions (Appendix D, p. 250)

1T: Where do the oldest trees grow?
2Ls: ***In the Rocky Mountains.***
3T: Yes, so the oldest trees …
4Ls: ***The oldest trees grow in the Rocky Mountains.***
5R: **And** (reads) ***some of these trees are 6,000 years old.***
6T: Yes! They are very old! Imagine 6,000 years!

Concerning L1 productions, they are marginal since they represent 5% of the total number of learner productions identified in the data. Three minimal L1 contributions have been identified when brainstorming target vocabulary at the beginning of the unit (Excerpt 27) and one example at the clause level when one learner talks about his personal experience, as shown in Excerpt 32 below. In both cases, the teacher accepts such L1 productions and incorporates them into interaction.

Excerpt 32. School B - EFL: Activity 12, reading a text and answering comprehension questions (Appendix D, p. 250)

1T: Have you ever been to the tropical forest in your country, Sam?
2S: ***Hi vaig anar una vegada*** (= I've been there once).
3T: Ok so you've been there once. In your country there is a tropical forest.

To sum up, the qualitative analysis of the learners' production in the EFL context has shown that almost three quarters of such production belongs to minimal and phrase-level productions. Besides, they have been identified when eliciting previously covered or new target vocabulary, on the one hand, and target forms in the presentation phase of the PPP sequence. In addition, clause level productions are typical during pair work practice of the target forms/structures. In fact, it has been observed that the teacher prompts the learners to come up with full sentences –with one clause– containing the target forms if the learners only produce minimal or phrase-level productions. However, no examples of more than one clause productions have been found in the EFL context. Finally, L1 production is minimal representing only 5% of the total number of learner productions. Such production has been identified when L2 resources fall short or when providing a personal account. We now address a comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context in School B.

4.3.4. School B: A comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context

The study of the learners' oral output in school B has led to a number of similarities and differences between the CLIL and the EFL context. These are reported as follows:

- There is a predominance of minimal and phrase-level productions in the EFL context, which altogether account for 66% of the total number of L2 learner productions in contrast to 46% in the CLIL context. In both contexts, productions at these levels occur when reviewing and introducing target vocabulary. Minimal and phrase-level productions are used to reflect on language forms in the EFL context only. In the CLIL context, there is more of a balance between minimal and phrase-level productions and clause level productions, which occur at different moments of the task cycle.
- As for productions at the clause level, there is a very clear predominance of pre-empted productions in the EFL context (95%). In the CLIL context, pre-empted productions are also frequent but less predominant (50%) because student-created productions are also present both in the L1 and the L2 (28%).
- In the CLIL context, the two teachers are generally concerned about the learners using more complex structures (i.e. full sentences with subject and verb) instead of minimal or phrase-level contributions all through the teaching unit. In the EFL context, the teacher does not expect full sentences from learners until the practice phase.

- There are productions with more than one clause in CLIL (20%) and none in EFL. 1 out of every 3 of these productions is encoded in the L2 and they represent 20% of the total number in the CLIL context. In addition, they tend to occur during performing and reporting tasks.
- There is a small proportion of L1 productions in the CLIL context (15%) and most of them (86%) are clause level productions. L1 productions in the EFL context are anecdotal (5%). In CLIL, the L1 is used when the learners are asked to provide explanations for their choices and their L2 resources are not enough. In EFL, they correspond to minimal contributions when brainstorming target vocabulary and one clause level contribution to provide a personal account.

4.4. A comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context in School A and School B: commonalities

The study of the learners' oral production during classroom interaction in the two learning contexts has revealed that there are a number of commonalties across the two schools under study when it comes to compare the learners' oral production in the CLIL context and the EFL context.

- The proportion of minimal and phrase-level productions is quite similar in both CLIL and EFL classroom contexts in the two schools, representing around half of the total number of learner productions. Such productions are common when reviewing previously covered vocabulary and introducing new target vocabulary at the beginning of the teaching unit in both instructional contexts.

- As for clause level productions, they represent around half of the total number of learner productions in EFL and around one quarter in CLIL in the two schools. In the CLIL context of the two schools, one clause productions have been identified throughout the task cycle (task performance and reporting), whereas they are central in the presentation of target forms/structures and even more so during the controlled practice phase (PPP) in the EFL context. Learner productions containing one clause replace those with one phrase when the two teachers expect the learners to provide full sentences in both learning contexts.
- More than one clause productions have only been identified in the CLIL context in the two schools and stand for one quarter of the total amount of learner productions. Besides, they occur during task performance and reporting when the learners are required to verbalize more cognitively and linguistically demanding ideas such as hypotheses, explanations and opinions.
- Teacher pre-empted language production represents around half the total number of learner productions in the CLIL context and nearly all of them in the EFL context in the two schools. Student-created language productions stand for one quarter of the total in the CLIL context in the two schools and are minimal or non-existent in the case of the EFL context in both schools. The remaining quarter of CLIL learner productions are encoded in the L1. In fact, these are generally acknowledged and sometimes further elaborated by the teacher in the CLIL context of both schools, but this is not the case in the EFL contexts in which the teacher turns to the pre-defined model sentences.

- The use of the L1 is minimal in CLIL (16% and 15% in School A and School B, respectively), but non-existent in the EFL context in School A and anecdotal (5%) in School B. The use of the L1 in CLIL is permitted when it comes to checking the meaning of target words and expressing one's reactions in School A and when providing explanations or drawing conclusions without any linguistic support in School B.

All in all, the analysis of learners' oral production according to linguistic length, its context within the implementation of the teaching units on focus as well as the frequency and distribution of L2 and L1 use has yielded some evidence of the learning experiences of the participants under investigation in the CLIL and the EFL classroom contexts in the two schools.

CHAPTER 5

Results: Attention to form through the provision of teacher corrective feedback

5.1. Introduction

This chapter seeks to provide the findings obtained in relation to the second research question, that is, the provision of teacher corrective feedback in FonF classroom episodes. As presented in Chapter 3, the following questions have been addressed:

a) How much teacher corrective feedback is provided to address learners' non-target or incomplete oral language production in the classroom context?

b) What type of teacher corrective feedback is provided and in which context?

According to Ellis (2001), reactive FonF episodes involve a response to an actual error made by a learner during communication, which contrasts with pre-emptive FonF episodes that take place when the teacher or the learners take time out of the conversation to make a particular linguistic form salient. Thus, the present study has

addressed reactive FonF episodes opened by the teacher while the learners are performing different tasks/activities throughout the teaching unit. Therefore, FonF episodes within the instructional register (Christie, 2002) have been analysed, but not those that occur when dealing with procedural matters such as classroom management, behaviour, or learners' well-being (regulative register).

In order to delve into the way the teacher provides such corrective feedback, a distinction has been made between cases in which the teacher unilaterally provides the target forms in response to the learners' non-target or incomplete oral output, on the one hand, and those when she withholds target forms and pushes the learners to engage in the negotiation of form with her, on the other hand, by following Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categorisation (see Chapter 3 for a detailed description of each category). Concerning learners' oral contributions, the present analysis has included all learner productions containing a linguistic error after a teacher question –also including nominations to respond to a previous question formulated by the teacher or to read aloud. In addition, incomplete L2 productions encompass those learner productions which do not fit what the teacher is aiming at, that is to say, when the teacher expects a full sentence with subject and verb *("The boys were at home"*) instead of a one-word or two-word production (*"at home"*) in response to the question (*"Where were the boys at eight o'clock in the morning?"*). Thus, the beginning of FonF episodes is marked by a non-target or incomplete learner contribution that triggers attention to a given linguistic form, and the end is signalled by the provision of corrective feedback on the part of the teacher with or without subsequent learner uptake.

The linguistic focus of FonF episode has been identified as being on pronunciation, morphosyntax or lexis. Finally, both L2 and L1 learner oral productions have been included in the analysis though they are presented separately. As shown in presentation of the CLIL lessons in this school (Chapter 3), the status of the L1 tends to be that of support in the CLIL context, but it is fully forbidden in the EFL context. Consequently, looking at both L2 and L1 learner production has been considered insightful to fully describe what happens in each learning context, that is, how the teacher reacts to the learners' oral contributions formulated in one language or the other.

We now move on to present a quantitative account of the findings, followed by a descriptive analysis of some classroom excerpts representative of each context. Findings from each school are presented separately and these are followed by a brief account of commonalities between the two schools that help distinguish the CLIL context from the EFL context.

5.2. School A

5.2.1. An overview

In School A, 72 non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner oral productions and 21 L1 learner oral productions (93 learner productions altogether) have been identified in the analysis of the CLIL teaching unit. The teacher provides corrective feedback in 85 (91%) out of these 93 productions. So there are 8 instances (9%), 3 of them addressing

non-target-like L2 language production and 5 of them L1 language use, which do not receive any teacher corrective feedback. Regarding L2 productions alone, the proportion of non-target or incomplete L2 production (72) in relation to class time (2 hours and 11 minutes) is of 1 minute and 49 seconds. As regards those productions that receive teacher corrective feedback (69), the proportion is of 1 FonF episode every 1 minute and 54 seconds. Turning to L1 use, the proportion of L1 production (21) in relation to class time is that of 6 minutes and 14 seconds. Besides, the teacher initiates an episode to address L1 use (16) every 8 minutes and 11 seconds.

As for the type of teacher corrective feedback provided in response to L2 and L1 learner production, Figure 10 graphically represents the proportion of each type and Table 18 includes frequencies in raw numbers and percentages by making a distinction between the teacher's provision of corrective feedback in response to the learners' L2 productions, L1 productions and the sum of L2 and L1 productions altogether. Recasts (43) following L2 learner production represent 62% of the total amount, followed by prompts (16) which stand for 23% and explicit corrections (10) which represent 15% of the total. In the case of L1 learner productions that receive attention to form (16), 63% of them are met with teacher recasts (10) and 37% with teacher prompts (6). There are no instances of explicit corrections following L1 learner contributions. Taking into account L2 and L1 production altogether, in 62% of FonF episodes, the teacher employs a recast (53); in 26% she resorts to prompts (22); and, finally, in 12% of them she makes an explicit correction (10).

Figure 10. School A - CLIL/EFL: Percentage of teacher corrective feedback according to type following learners' L2/L1 production

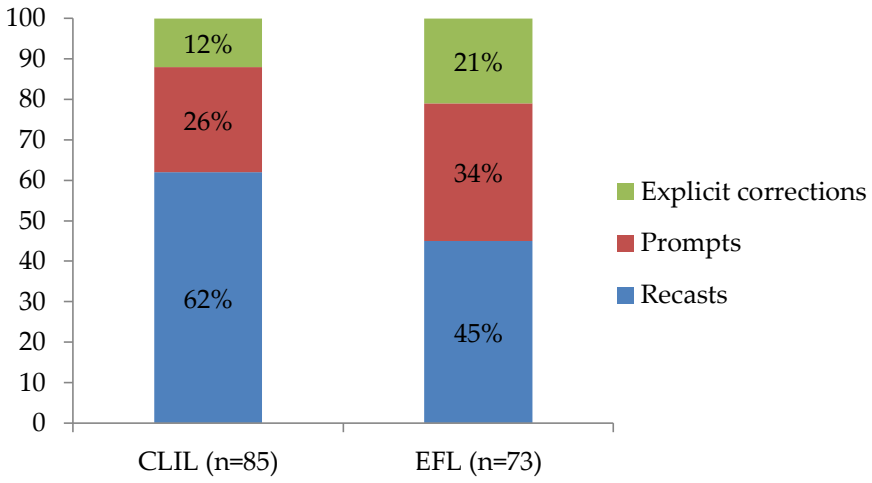


Table 16. School A - CLIL/EFL: Percentage of teacher corrective feedback according to type following learners' L2/L1 production

	CLIL (*n* = 85)			**EFL (*n* = 73)**	
	L2 (*n* = 69)	**L1 (*n* = 16)**	**Total (*n* = 85)**	**L2** (*n* = 73)	**L1**
Recasts	43 (62%)	10 (63%)	53 (62%)	33 (45%)	-
Prompts	16 (23%)	6 (37%)	22 (26%)	25 (34%)	-
Explicit correction	10 (15%)	-	10 (12%)	15 (21%)	-

As shown in the table above, in the EFL context, a total of 73 non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner productions have been identified, but none encoded in the L1. All these productions receive some degree of attention, thus leading to no instances of lack of teacher corrective feedback. The proportion of non-target or incomplete L2

production in relation to class time (2 hours and 32 minutes) is of 2 minutes and 5 seconds, which is the same as the proportion of FonF episodes taking into account the total amount of class time. As for the type of teacher corrective feedback provided in response to L2 learner production, in 45% of these episodes, the teacher provides a recast (33), in 34% of them she uses prompts (25) and, finally, in 21% she comes up with an explicit correction (15). The following is a qualitative analysis of the findings by examining representative classroom excerpts in which the teacher reacts to the learners' non-target or incomplete L2 productions and to their L1 productions at different moments during the unfolding of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units under study. We first examine excerpts coming from the CLIL context and we later on address the EFL context in School A.

5.2.2. School A: Teacher corrective feedback the CLIL context

In School A, recasting is the most common type of corrective feedback employed by the teacher in the CLIL context since it represents more than half the total amount of corrective feedback types identified in this context. It has been observed that a high share of these teacher recasts come from those CLIL tasks which are more content-driven, that is, the teacher attaches more importance to the comprehension of target concepts rather than to the accurate use of target forms. This is particularly evident in the second task of the CLIL unit whose objective is to classify information to create a poster on one illness affecting the respiratory system. When working on the poster as a whole class group, the learners take turns to read the information provided by the teacher out loud in order to stick the information under the appropriate

headings. As shown in Excerpts 33 and 34, the teacher's corrective feedback is mainly directed at the non-target pronunciation of words such as "cloudy" (7T) or "areas" (9T) and at supporting the learners' oral production when having difficulties uttering these two words on their own (see Excerpt 33, 3T, 5T). Quite frequently, the teacher uses recasts aiming at checking comprehension while focusing on form, as Excerpt 34 illustrates. In this case, the teacher provides a correct version of the words "avoid" and "infection" (2S) while checking content comprehension *"Are you sure?" What can you do to avoid infection?"* (3T) and *"How do you get infected? Yes, this can be"* (5T).

Excerpt 33. School A - CLIL: Task 2, task performance, reading information on the cards out loud (Appendix D, p. 238)

1T: Can we have another sentence?
2S: (reads) Doctor orders a chest X (stops, has difficulties in pronouncing it)
3T: X-rays
4S: X-ray the &imag
5T: the image
6S: the image is *cloudy
7T: **is cloudy**
8S: and with with white *areas
9T: **with white areas**
10S: areas.

Excerpt 34. School A - CLIL: Task 2, task performance, reading information on the cards out loud (Appendix D, p. 238)

1T: Yeah, the second part? (gives the floor)
2S: (reads) What can you do to *avoid *infection?
3T: **Are you sure? What can you do to avoid infection?** This is the second part of the information for you? Is it? So stick in there but you have to leave space between one and the other (goes to the poster on the wall, looks at the clock) Come on, boys and girls, we have no time to be here waiting and waiting! Next one?
4Ls: How do you get *infected?
5T: **How do you get infected? Yes, this can be.**

Additionally, teacher recasting is also present in the last task of the CLIL unit when the learners answer the questions formulated by the teacher during the reporting phase after interviewing those students in class who suffer from asthma. Like in the excerpts above, the teacher also reacts to the non-target pronunciation of the students' words, as Excerpt 35 shows. The teacher goes on to provide a reformulation of the target words "breathe" (3T) and "tired" (9T) with special stress on these words so that they become noticeable.

Excerpt 35. School A - CLIL: Task 3, task reporting, drawing some final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 239)

1T: Then, what are the symptoms, Claire?
2C: I can't walk, sing and *breathe.
3T: **br<u>ea</u>the breathe. I can't walk, sing or breathe.**
4C: I can't walk, sing or breathe.
5T: sing or breathe (repeats and writes it down on the blackboard) What else?
6S: I feel *tired.
7T: **I feel <u>tired</u>. I feel tired.**
8J: I can't breathe.
9T: I can't breathe, I can't breathe. Allan?
10A: I can't breathe.
11T: I can't breathe. Ok so these are the symptoms. Is it the same in this group? Yeah?
12Ls: (nod)

Along these lines, it must be pinpointed that the teacher's concern for language form is also evident when, during the completion of the same task, the learners provide short answers that the teacher takes as being incomplete like *"one"* (3S) and *"five"* (5A) (see Excerpt 36) instead of full sentences provided by the teacher like *"When I was one"* (4T) and *"When she was five years old"* (6T).

Excerpt 36. School A - CLIL: Task 3, task reporting, drawing some final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 239)

1L1: I had my first asthma flare-up when I was three years old.
2T: When you were three. Next group?
3S: One
4T: **When I was one**.
5A: Five
6T: **When she was five years old**. Yeah? Is there any pattern? Is there any fixed age?
7S: No
8T: No, no fixed age. No patterns, no conclusions in here.

If we now move on to look at instances of teacher prompts leading to negotiation of form, it can be claimed that they represent slightly more than one fourth of the total amount of teacher corrective feedback moves identified in the CLIL data. When using prompts to negotiate form, elicitations (10) that include pauses to allow the students to complete the teacher's words or requests to reformulate have been identified. Besides, prompts also take the form of metalinguistic questions or comments (3) related to the well-formedness of the students' productions. Lastly, other prompts contain clarification requests (3) which feign lack of comprehension, but their function is to elicit a reformulation of the ill-formed learner contribution. The following excerpts intend to exemplify the use of all these prompts during classroom interaction. Excerpt 37 shows how the teacher opens up a negotiation episode by pausing in order to push the learners to complete the sentence *"We think…"* (3T) and *"We think that…"* (5T). In addition, she provides some metalinguistic clues *"The name of the illness"* (7T, 9T) together with body language to indicate what is missing for the learners to come up with a target-like sentence. Towards the end of the excerpt, the teacher elicits a

reformulation *"Try again the whole sentence"* (15T) in order to elicit the complete sentence she is looking for *"We think that asthma affects the respiratory system"*.

Excerpt 37. School A - CLIL: Task 1, task reporting, sharing the results of group work discussion (Appendix D, p. 237)

1T: One of the illnesses only one (…) but you have to express in English so…
2M: hmm &p
3T: **We think…**
4M: Pneumonia
5T: **We think that…**
6M: *A affect
7T: **The name of the illness** (signals a slot with hands) we think that (signals again a slot with hands).
8M: Affects
9T: **No! The name of the illness in here!**
10J: (J helps him out, M seems to do it on purpose)
11T: Michael, give up doing silly things, ok? You or John, decide!
12J: We think that asthma affects the &res &res (has some difficulties and struggles to pronounce it)
13Ls: (peers try to help him out)
14J: *ai m'he equivocat* (= Oh, I made a mistake) respiratory system!
15T: **Try again the whole sentence!**
16J: We think that asthma affects the &res &respi respiratory system.
17T: Ok. Do you agree? (turns to the whole class now)
18L: Yes
19T: Yes? (looks for their approval)
20Ls: Yes

In Excerpt 38, notice the teacher reacts to the non-target pronunciation of the target word *"pneumonia"* by introducing the comment *"This pneumonia clings too much Catalan. Please, can we try the English pronunciation?"* (3T) and, subsequently, she requires a reformulation of the whole target sentence *"Again?"* (5T).

Excerpt 38. School A - CLIL: Task 1, task reporting, sharing the results of group work discussion (Appendix D, p. 237)

1T: A volunteer? Do you volunteer, Alan?
2A: Yes. We think that a *pneumonia affects the respiratory system.
3T: **This pneumonia clings too much Catalan** (touches her ear). **Please, can we try the English pronunciation?**
4A: Pneumonia
5T: That's much better. **Again?**
6A: We think that pneumonia affects the respiratory system.
7T: That's right.

All the clarification requests identified under the category of prompts have been identified when the learners read the information on the cards aloud during the completion of the second task. Excerpt 39 shows how the teacher asks for clarification by repeating part of the learners' words *"Lots of?"* (7T) as if to feign lack of comprehension, but her objective is ultimately to prompt the target-like pronunciation of the word "fluids".

Excerpt 39. School A - CLIL: Task 2, task performance, reading information on the cards out loud (Appendix D, p. 238)

1T: What do you say?
2N: hmm virus pneumonia fever &redu …
3T: Reduce
4N: Reduce a cold.
5T: Stop boys and listen! (calls their attention)
6N: Lots of *fluids.
7T: **Lots of?**
8N: *Fluids
9T: Fluids. Fluids is liquids. Ok?

As for the teacher's provision of explicit feedback, this type of corrective feedback is minimal in the CLIL context as compared to the other feedback types. Examples of explicit correction have been identified when the learners miss some parts of the target structures, as shown in Excerpt 40 below. The teacher draws the learners'

attention to the language support provided and makes them notice what is really missing. In addition, the teacher also explicitly corrects the learners' mispronounced words, like in Excerpt 41, when she first rejects the learner's failed attempt at producing the target word, another learner intervenes, but she then follows them up with an explicit correction by putting special emphasis on the accurate pronunciation of the target word *"stomachache it's stomachache"* (5T).

Excerpt 40. School A - CLIL: Task 3, task reporting, drawing some final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 239)

1T: And in this group?
2G: *She had her first asthma when hmm (hesitates) four years
3T: **Well, look here (points to the model sentence) She had her first asthma flare-up when she <u>was</u> for years old. Look! Yeah?**

Excerpt 41. School A - CLIL: Task 1, pre-task, brainstorming illnesses related to the respiratory system

1T: And what happens when (touches belly) you have pain in here?
2A: stomag&
3T: **No! You know it!**
4S: *stomachache
5T: **stomach<u>ache</u> it's stomach<u>ache</u>**.

Taking into account that the use of the L1 is present and fully accepted in the CLIL context, the way the teacher reacts to it has also been the objective of study. As indicated in Table 16 (p. 127), the most common type of corrective feedback to address the use of the L1 in the CLIL context is to provide a recast, followed by prompts to reformulate in the L1. In addition, as pointed out at the beginning of the chapter, out of a total of 93 non-target or incomplete learner productions, 8 (9%) of them involve no feedback on the part of the teacher, but 5 (5%) of them occur in response to the

learners' L1 production. The following excerpts have been selected to illustrate the different ways in which the teacher reacts to use of the L1.

The most common teacher response to the use of the L1 is to recast the learners' words, as reproduced in Excerpt 42 during the reporting phase of the last task in the CLIL unit. One student provides the L1 phrase *"les oliveres"* (2R) which the teacher recasts and integrates into the list of substances people might be allergic to. Quite differently, in Excerpt 43, the teacher directly requires a reformulation in the L2 *"Try in English"* (5T) and, as it can be noted, the learner is successful in producing the target-like form with the teacher's and the classmates' assistance. Lastly, Excerpt 44 clearly indicates that the teacher accepts this learner's L1 contribution without providing any feedback on form. She then elaborates on its content, but without eliciting a reformulation in the L2. As indicated by the teacher's informal comments outside the classroom recordings, the use of the L1 is generally accepted in the CLIL classroom as a support so that the learners can get their message across if, for whatever reason, the pre-defined language support provided falls short of providing such help.

Excerpt 42. School A - CLIL: Task 3, task reporting, drawing some final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 239)

1T: What are the elements that cause you…?
2R: *Les oliveres* (= olive trees)
3T: **Pollen … olive trees … pollen** (points to the different class groups giving their answers) Which one? Furry animals? Ok so here you have different options.
4A: Trees.
5T: Trees. I'm sensitive to …
6R: cats and dogs.
7T: I'm sensitive to cats and dogs.

Excerpt 43. School A - CLIL: Task 1, pre-task, brainstorming previously covered topics

1T: Ok circulatory system, but there is also another system you have studied.
2Ls: (raise hands)
3T: Nancy?
4N: *aparell respiratòri* (=respiratory system)
5T: **ok in English! Try in English!**
6N: Hmm
7T: &res
8N: respiratory &sys (seems to have difficulties)
9A: &syst (boy next to her offers help)
10N: system
11T: respiratory system. Ok. That's right. Respiratory system. So we are going to start today with the respiratory system. Ok? This is the topic we have for today.

Excerpt 44. School A - CLIL: Task 1, post-task, agreeing on the most dangerous illness (Appendix D, p. 237)

1T: Which one of these is the most dangerous?
2J: Hmm hmm
3T: The most dangerous?
4J: *És perillós perquè un refredat o una grip es pot convertir en una neumonía* (= It's dangerous because a cold or flu can lead to pneumonia)
5T: **Yes, it's true! It's very dangerous, especially in very old people like your grandmother or your grandfather. So we need to be careful.**

As a summary, it can be stated that in this context there is one non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner production every minute and 49 seconds of class time. Such productions are met with teacher corrective feedback every minute and 54 seconds. As for L1 productions, they occur every 6 minutes and 14 seconds and the teacher reacts to the use of the L1 every 8 minutes and 11 seconds. In addition, there are 8 out of 93 cases (L2=3, L1=5), which represent 9% of the total number of L2 and L1 learner productions, in which the teacher does not provide feedback. Examining L1 learner productions alone, the teacher does not give corrective feedback in response to the

learners' L1 production on 5 occasions (24%) out of a total of 21 L1 productions, which stands for one quarter of the total amount. The linguistic focus of these episodes is mainly on the accurate pronunciation of target words and morphosyntactic aspects such as word order.

The teacher resorts to different types of corrective feedback throughout the unfolding of the CLIL unit. When L2 and L1 productions are grouped together, recasts are the predominant corrective feedback mode, followed by prompts and, to a lesser extent, explicit corrections. The qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts has indicated that teacher recasts are frequent when the teacher wishes to focus on content rather than on form in more content-driven tasks. As shown in the excerpts that have been examined, their main function is to acknowledge the content of the learners' message while correcting language form. In the case of prompts, a range of examples including elicitations, metalinguistic questions or comments and clarification requests have been identified during language-driven tasks in which the teacher requires the learners to closely follow the language support to express their ideas or when reading aloud. In addition, explicit corrections have been particularly identified when the learners experience some difficulty in producing language. When L1 learner productions have been examined separately from L2 productions, two third of L1 contributions are met with recasts and one third with prompts basically when the learners want to express an idea for which the language support provided by the teacher is not enough.

5.2.3. School A: Teacher corrective feedback in the EFL context

In order to address the EFL context, the favoured corrective feedback varies on the context, and also depends on the stage of the PPP sequence and whether target vocabulary or target grammatical forms/structures are targeted.

On the one hand, recasting is favoured by the teacher when eliciting target words, especially at the beginning of the unit when reviewing and introducing new vocabulary. Excerpt 45 shows how the teacher provides a recast of the mispronounced word "skateboards" and, in Excerpt 46, she provides a recast in response to the learners' non-target word order while checking comprehension "*Christmas lunch at granny's?"* (3T). In addition, Excerpt 47 shows one of the very few cases in which a student departs from the model sentence provided *"I can see…"* and ventures to provide a sentence using his own words *" in the table on are grapes"* (2A). At this moment, the teacher doesn't prompt the student to negotiate form, but instead she reformulates it by going back to the model sentence previously presented *"You can see some grapes?"*(3T). Thus, it is felt the teacher misses the opportunity to make the most of this learner's own contribution by opening up a negotiation episode.

Excerpt 45. School A – EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: Can you see anything else?
2S: hmm *skateboard
3T: **You can see a skateboard** (writes the word down on the blackboard). who is skateboarding?
4B: Ho Howard
5T: Howard, that's right! Howard! Do you remember the characters from the first lesson? Howard is one of them.

Excerpt 46. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: Bill? What are they celebrating?
2B: Hmm hmm hmm a hmm a lunch a lunch Christmas
3T: **A Christmas lunch at granny's?**
4B: (nods)
5T: Hmm no, but you are close it's something important!

Excerpt 47. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: (gives the floor to A)
2A: In the table on (makes gestures) are grapes
3T: **You can see some grapes?** (checks it) Yes!
4L: and *juice
5T: **and juice** (writes it down on the blackboard)
6L: and orange juice
7T: **Ok grapes grapes and juice we don't know if they are orange or apple** (gives the floor to another student)

Concerning teacher prompts in the EFL context, they take the form of elicitations, including questioning, pausing or asking for a reformulation (14) or metalinguistic clues for the learners to work out a target-like contribution (11), but there are no instances of clarification requests. These prompts are employed by the teacher when eliciting target vocabulary, as it is exemplified in the following excerpts. In Excerpt 48, the teacher provides a prompt in the form of a metalinguistic comment *"You do not say a diary! That's a different word!"* (4T) when the learner experiences difficulties in word choice. She then tries to elicit the target form by resorting to the question *"What do you read?"* (6T) in order to make the distinction between a diary and a newspaper. Once she elicits the word "news" (7S), she pauses *"So … it's a…"* (8T) so that the learners can finally guess the target word "newspaper" (9S). Furthermore, in Excerpt 49, the teacher intends to elicit the target word with the correct stress by asking

the question *"What's the name in Catalan?"* (3T) and then providing a metalinguistic comment *"Let's change the stress"* (5T). Finally, because of the learners' failed attempts at producing the target word accurately, the teacher repeats the word adjusting the intonation to highlight the error *"pilot pilot"* (7T).

Excerpt 48. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1A: I can see a diary.
2T: (requires him to repeat)
3A: A diary.
4T: **You do not say a diary! That's a different word!**
5A: (looks around and puts faces as if he doesn't know)
6T: **What do you read (pointing to the newspaper)? What do you read?**
7S: News
8T: **News. So… It's a…**
9S: Newspaper
10T: Newspaper. That's right! (writes it down on the blackboard) Newspaper, remember newspaper!

Excerpt 49. School A - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, describing a picture (Appendix D, p. 240)

1T: (teacher gives him the floor but he says nothing)
2L1: *Pilot
3T: **Come on, come on! What's the name in Catalan?**
4Ls: *Pilot (*=pilot)
5T: *Pilot (*=pilot) **Let's change the stress!**
6Ls: *Pilot pilot
7T: **(shakes head) <u>Pi</u>lot <u>pi</u>lot**
8Ls: Pilot
9T: Pilot. Ok?

When the focus is on target grammatical forms and structures, it seems that the use of recasts and prompts is in accordance with the stage of the PPP sequence in which non-target-like productions occur. While recasts tend to be used when getting the learners exposed to the target forms in the presentation phase, prompts are generally favoured during the controlled practice phase. When the teacher poses

questions containing the target forms on focus to inductively bring the target forms to the forefront, as shown in Excerpt 50, the teacher reacts to this learner's answer by providing the target-like form while supporting content (5T). This is then followed up by a metalinguistic comment (8T) on the use of simple past and simple present before opening up the production practice phase within the PPP sequence in the CLIL teaching unit.

Excerpt 50. School A - EFL: Activity 2, presentation, answering teacher questions about daily routine

1T: Nancy, listen! Where were Tom and Sam at eight o'clock?
2N: (no response)
3T: Where were Tom and Sam at eight o'clock?
4N: They are at school.
5T: **Now they are at school but they were at home at eight o'clock.** Ok? **They were at home** (writes it down on the blackboard) **They were at home.**
6T: So we are talking about the?
7Ls: (no response)
8T: **Past, present. You remember in Spanish that we also learnt about past, present and future? Ok. In English, we are dealing only with past and present. Ok so this is the introduction for the past and the present. Ready? Then, we know that "he was" "they were" in past. Ok? This is the past and this is the present (writes it down on the blackboard). This is nothing new for you. Ok? You already know it. Ok? Then, now we are going to do an activity with lots of sentences to practice past and present. Yeah? Lots of them! And not only in affirmative, but also in negative. Ok?**

While moving on to the controlled practice phase, though, it can be claimed that the teacher mostly resorts to prompting to deal with non-target-like grammatical forms and structures. While the learners are working in pairs, the teacher almost always intervenes when she notices non-target language use. However, in a couple of cases it is the teacher who ends up providing the target forms through explicit correction if the learners do not succeed. In Excerpts 51 and 52, the teacher provides metalinguistic

information *"It's plural"* (5T) and *"Pay attention it's not "au" but…"* (3T), respectively, in order to prompt target-like forms. Furthermore, teacher prompts also include direct requests for a reformulation *"Can you repeat, please?"* (3T), as indicated in excerpt 53, which the teacher reinforces in this case with non-verbal communication to signal that something is wrong and a reformulation is necessary.

Excerpt 51. School A - EFL: Activity 6, practice, checking sentences from the wall dictation (Appendix D, p. 242)

1T: And what else?
2A: *Lisa's cousin
3T: Lisa's cousins
4A: *wasn't at the airport at half past eight.
5T: **It's plural.**
6A: Lisa's cousins were
7T: "were" well done!
8A: on the plane at eight o'clock.
9T: were on the plane at eight o'clock. Yes!

Excerpt 52. School A - EFL: Activity 6, practice, checking sentences from the wall dictation (Appendix D, p. 242)

1T: And what's your sentence from the wall paper?
2P: There is an *Australian family outside the airport.
3T: **Pay attention it's not "au" but…**
4P: *Australian
5T: help help help!
6B: Australian
7T: Yes! Much better! Again now?
8P: There is an Australian family outside the airport.

Excerpt 53. School A - EFL: Activity 11, practice, playing "find someone who…" game (Appendix D, p. 243)

1T: So tell me on Friday, for example? What happened on Friday?
2E: Yes, at the dentist's on Friday afternoon was.
3T: **Can you repeat, please? (puts a strange face as if something is wrong)**
4E: yes (hesitates) he was at the dentist's on Friday.
5T: ok. Good, now! And Anna?
6E: No, Anna wasn't at the dentist's on Friday.
7T: Ok. That's good.

Finally, explicit corrections occur when dealing with target grammatical forms and structures both in the presentation phase (Excerpt 54) and the controlled practice phase (Excerpt 55) of the PPP sequence and, as previously mentioned, a couple of FonF episodes containing teacher prompts ended up with an explicit correction due to the failed attempts at eliciting target forms through negotiation. In Excerpt 54, both the teacher and the learners are engaged in filling out a grid with target verb forms. When inaccurate forms occur, the teacher provides the correction herself with some metalinguistic information on the accurate use of verb tenses. In Except 55, the teacher reminds this particular student about the use of the genitive to show possession when practising target vocabulary and completing a family tree.

Excerpt 54. School A - EFL: Activity 3, presentation, completing a grid with target forms

1T: Ok so what's this verb form? Present and plural?
2Ss: are
3T: Yes, so they were… And in past?
4Ss: was were
5H: are
6W: were
5T: **No, remember was and <u>were</u> for the past. "Was" is for the first person and the third person singular and "were" for the rest.**

Excerpt 55. School A – EFL: Activity 4, practice, describing a picture with target forms (Appendix D, p. 241)

1T: And what else can you say?
2F: Lisa cousins were on the plane at eight o'clock.
3T: **The possessive remember that Lisa<u>'s</u> cousins were**.
4F: Lisa's cousins were on the plane at eight o'clock.

In sum, it can held that in this context there is one non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner production every 2 minutes and 5 seconds of class time and all of them receive teacher corrective feedback. In addition, there are no cases of L1 use in this setting. The linguistic focus of these episodes is on the accurate pronunciation of target words, the correct form of grammatical forms and structures as well as on appropriate word choice.

The teacher resorts to different types of corrective feedback throughout the unfolding of the EFL unit. Recasts are the most common type of teacher corrective feedback, followed very closely by prompts and, finally, explicit corrections. The qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts has provided an overview of how target language is dealt with across the different phases of the EFL teaching unit. Both recasts and prompts seem to be randomly employed by the teacher when reviewing or introducing target vocabulary. Nevertheless, it has been noted that, when using recasts, the teacher misses some opportunities to negotiate form, especially when learners try hard to bring in vocabulary which has not been anticipated by the teacher. On the other hand, when addressing target grammatical forms and structures, the choice of recasts or prompts clearly varies according to the phase of the PPP sequence in which they occur. Recasts are employed when reacting to the learners' contributions in the initial presentation phase, but prompts are favoured when they are practicing in practicing phase. In the case of explicit corrections, they could be identified both during the presentation phase and the practice phase and, in some cases, they occur as a result of failed attempts at eliciting target language through elicitation. The following section embarks on the comparison of the results obtained in each context in School A.

5.2.4. School A: a comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context

The analysis conducted in School A has shown a number of similarities and differences across contexts when examining the data both from a quantitative and a qualitative viewpoint. The main points are summarised as follows:

- Non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner productions are more frequent in CLIL (every minute and 49 seconds of class time) than in EFL (every 2 minutes and 5 seconds of class time). In addition, 96% (every minute and 54 seconds) of these productions in CLIL are addressed by the teacher and all of them are met with teacher corrective feedback in EFL. Around one quarter of learner production is encoded in the L1 in CLIL and 1 out of 4 of these L1 productions receives teacher corrective feedback. However, there is no trace of L1 production in the EFL context.
- The linguistic focus of the teacher's corrective feedback is predominantly at the level of phonology (i.e. pronunciation of individual sounds and stress) in both contexts, followed by morphological issues (i.e. word order and accurate use of verb tenses and possessives). In the EFL context, the language focus also extends to appropriate word choice.
- As for the type of corrective feedback employed by the teacher in FonF episodes addressing the L2, recasts are the most common type, followed by prompts and explicit corrections are the least common type in both contexts. The number of recasts is higher in the CLIL context (62%) if compared to the EFL context (45%), on the one hand, and the proportion of prompts is greater in the EFL context (34%) than in the CLIL context (23%), on the other hand. There

are more explicit corrections in the EFL context (21%) than in the CLIL context (15%).

- The choice of recasts or prompts seems to depend on tasks/activities being more meaning-focused or language-focused. In the CLIL context, recasts are frequent in those tasks where the teacher is more interested in students communicating content than in accurate language use. Similarly, recasts in EFL are favoured when the learners get exposed to the target forms/structures through the presentation of a given context –a story and a song in this school. On the other hand, prompts are more frequent in those CLIL language-focused tasks where the teacher is generally more sensitive to the correct use of vocabulary and language structures. In EFL, the teacher is generally focused on the accurate use of the language when the learners are engaged in practising the target forms/structures of the unit. Finally, explicit corrections occur in both contexts when the learners experience some difficulty in coming up with the target language at different points in the unfolding of the teaching units.

The following section reports the results obtained in each learning context in School B.

5.3. School B

5.3.1. An overview

In School B, 69 non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner oral productions and 16 L1 productions (85 learner productions altogether) have been identified in the analysis of the CLIL teaching unit. The teacher provides corrective feedback in 74 out of 85 FonF episodes addressing L2 and L1 language use (87%). The remaining 11 cases (13%) that do not receive any attention on the part of the teacher correspond to L1 productions. The proportion of non-target-like or incomplete L2 production (69) in relation to class time (4 hours and 12 minutes) is one FonF episode every 3 minutes and 39 seconds of class time. The frequency with which the teacher provides corrective feedback is the same. Turning to L1 use, the proportion of L1 production in relation to class time is that of 15 minutes and 45 seconds and the teacher reacts to it by providing corrective feedback every 50 minutes and 24 seconds.

As for the type of teacher corrective feedback in response to L2 and L1 learner production, Figure 11 graphically represents the proportions of each type and Table 17 includes frequencies in raw numbers and percentages by distinguishing between the teacher's provision of corrective feedback in response to the learners' L2 productions, L1 productions and the sum of both. Recasts (69) following L2 learner production represent 70% of the total amount of L2 learner productions, followed by prompts (15) which stand for 22% and explicit corrections (6) which represent only 8%. In the case of L1 learner productions (n=16), 11 (69%) of them do not receive any corrective teacher

feedback and 5 (31%) of them are followed up by teacher recasts (see table below). Taking L2 and L1 production altogether, in 72% of these episodes, the teacher employs a recast (53); in 20% she turns to a prompt (15) and, finally, in 8% of them she explicitly provides an explicit correction (6).

Figure 11. School B - CLIL/EFL: Percentage of teacher corrective feedback according to type following learners' L2 and L1 production

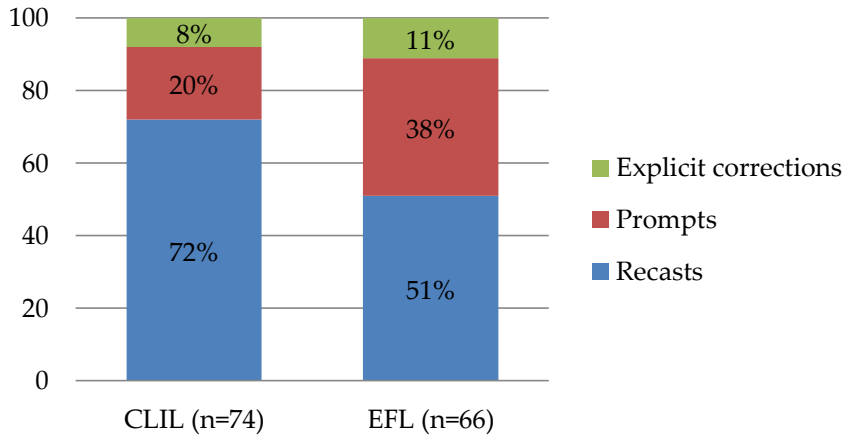


Table 17. School B - CLIL/EFL: Percentage of teacher corrective feedback according to type following learners' L2/L1 production

	CLIL (*n* = 74)			**EFL (*n* = 66)**		
	L2 (*n* = 69)	**L1** (*n* = 5)	**Total** (*n* = 74)	**L2** (*n* = 64)	**L1** (*n* = 2)	**Total** (*n* = 66)
Recasts	48 (70%)	5 (100%)	53 (72%)	32 (50%)	2 (100%)	34 (51%)
Prompts	15 (22%)	-	15 (20%)	25 (39%)	-	25 (38%)
Explicit correction	6 (8%)	-	6 (8%)	7 (11%)	-	7 (11%)

In the EFL context, 64 non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner productions and 2 L1 productions have been identified, which altogether amount to 66 learner productions. The teacher provides corrective feedback to all of them, so there are no cases of lack of corrective feedback. Concerning L2 productions, the proportion of non-target-like or incomplete L2 production (64) in relation to class time (3 hours and 57 minutes) is one episode every 3 minutes and 14 seconds. The proportion of teacher corrective feedback in relation to class time is the same. Considering L1 use, the proportion of L1 production (2) is very low and occurs almost every 2 hours.

As regards the types of corrective feedback, Figure 11 provides the percentages of each type of corrective feedback and Table 19 includes the frequencies next to the corresponding percentage by making the distinction between L2 productions or L1 productions. In relation to the L2, 50% of L2 learner productions are met with recasts (32), 39% with prompts (25) to turn to the L2 and 11% are followed up by an explicit correction (7). Turning to learners' L1 production, there are only two instances in this context, which are met by a recast. The sum of L2 and L1 production indicates that, in 51% of these episodes, the teacher provides a recast (34), in 38% of them she uses a prompt (25) and in the remaining 11% she explicitly provides a correction (7).

The following is a qualitative analysis of the results obtained by examining representative classroom excerpts in which the teacher reacts to the learners' non-target or incomplete productions at different moments during the unfolding of the CLIL and the EFL lessons, respectively. We first examine excerpts coming from the CLIL context and we later on address the EFL context.

5.3.2 School B: Teacher corrective feedback in the CLIL context

Recasts are the most widely used form of teacher feedback in this context, representing almost three fourths of the total number of teacher feedback moves identified in the dataset. Recasts are mainly found in the following contexts: first, when brainstorming target vocabulary; second, when the learners express their ideas without following the structures pre-defined by the teacher and, finally, when a shift towards the use of more appropriate forms/structures that match the scientic register is required.

In Excerpt 56, the teacher provides recasts (8T) for the mispronounced word "cuttings" while keeping the focus on content during the brainstorming of target vocabulary. Similarly, in Except 57, she also provides a reformulation (3T) of the mispronounced word "air" and, later on, she also turns to a recast *"all the previous things"* (5T) following the student's words *"Put one container with all the anterior things in a…"* (4N). In addition, the third excerpt (Excerpt 58) reproduces a classroom episode that takes place when they carefully examine the results of the experiment so that conclusions can be drawn about the necessary elements a seed needs to germinate all together as a class group. In turn 3T, the teacher recasts the non-target structure *"That not open…growing"* (2M) by exposing the learners to register-appropriate target verb "to germinate" instead of "to grow". In subsequent turns, the teacher goes on to use such subject-specific terms so as to reinforce them.

Excerpt 56. School B - CLIL: Pre-task, presentation of the topic and the experiment

1T: No, this is a … (shows them a cutting)
2S1: A seed.
3T: It's not a seed.
4S2: A *cutting
5T: These are the roots (shows a picture)
6S2: a *cutting
7S3: *cutting
8T: **It's a cutting, it's a cutting yes.** And look at the roots! Mercedes, this one was shorter last week and now it's longer. And this one was shorter and now it's longer!

Excerpt 57. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the steps followed in the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: Ann, your ideas is?
2A: Put one container in a plastic bag and others in *a air.
3T: **In the air**, for example. Yours? Come on! Listen!
4N: Put one container with all the *anterior things in a (hesitates)
5T: **all the previous things**
6N: in a plastic bag without air.
7T: Very interesting!
8N: Put a little bit of water in the rest of containers.

Excerpt 58. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the experiment and drawing final conclusions (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: Let's see what happened. Let's see…let's see…what do you think?
2M: *That not open…growing.
3T: **It couldn't it couldn't germinate**.
4Ss: No!
5T: It couldn't germinate.
6A: Yes, so so… [some learners raise their hands to express their predictions]
7N: No
8J: [raises shoulders as if he doesn't know]
9T: John says he doesn't risk. He says ok perhaps…I don't know…Come on! Helen, come on! Let's open the box! Come on! Open the box! Oh!!! A surprise! It's not wet, it's not it's not wet, it's not wet because we put the water and we close it but do you see something different?
10S: (no response)

11T: One one seed started…well it's germinated…one seed is germinated, so we can say that…is light…well it germinated…and the question […] is light is light essential is light essential for a seed to germinate?
12S: yes
13N: it's important but not essential.
14T: to germinate…it's different! It can germinate without much light.

What is more, the teacher also resorts to prompting in order to negotiate and elicit the use of target-like language. In fact, teacher prompts in the CLIL context have been identifed when the learners produce non-target-like or incomplete structures without closely following the pre-defined structures provided as language support. Such teacher prompts mostly take the form of elicitations (14) which are geared towards pushing the learners to reword their utterances in full propositions. Excerpt 59 indicates how the teacher prompts this particular learner by saying *"so we should say ..."* (3T) or by providing the first words of the target sentence and then pausing *"The whole … we we think we think a seed …"* (5T). Nevertheless, it must be mentioned that, out of the total number of teacher prompts in the data (15), on 3 occasions the teacher is the one who ends up finishing the sentences instead of the students. For instance, in turn 6S (Excerpt 61), the learner reacts to the teacher's prompt and continues the sentence *"doesn't need"*, but the teacher then accepts it through repetition and finishes the sentence on her own without giving the learner some time to finish or prompting him further to complete the sentence on his own.

Excerpt 59. School B - CLIL: Pre-task, brainstorming necessary elements for a seed to germinate (Appendix D, p. 244-246)

1T: Chocolate is important?
2Ls: No! Not important!
3T: **So we should say …**
4A: *Chocolate no important.
5T: **The whole … we we think we think a seed …**
6S: doesn't need
7T: **doesn't need doesn't need chocolate to germinate**. Ok? We think that a seed doesn't need chocolate to germinate. Ok?

As for other types of prompts, almost no metalinguistic clues are provided to scaffold the learners' production except for one single case reproduced in Excerpt 60. When writing down the instructions for the experiment to be conducted, the teacher adresses the question *"Containers in plural?"* (7T) following the contribution *"Put containers in a box"* (6S) instead of the correct form "Put one container in a box". The teacher could have used the question "One container or more than one container?" to keep the focus on content, but instead she pays attention to the form of the words, in this case to number distinction. Lastly, there is not a single prompt taking the shape of a clarification request in the data.

Excerpt 60. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the steps followed in the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: Let's concentrate … here if you remember we used a … [picture of light on board, draws a box]
2Ls: A box.
3T: We used a box. A box. A transparent box?
4Ls: No
5T: No, it was not transparent. Ok? So …
6S: Put containers in a box
7T: **Containers in plural?**
8H: *One a container.
9N: One of the containers.
10T: Put ok one of the containers in a box or …
11A: with soil in a box.

12T: Put…just all together. Yes? Ann? Look at the board and concentrate. These options are correct. Put one container in a box is correct, Ann.

Finally, explicit correction is the least favoured type of corrective feedback in the CLIL data analysed when compared to recasts and prompts. In Excerpt 61, the teacher follows up the learner's words *"The seed doesn't germinate"* (2N) by providing the correct form and making explicit reference to the correct verb tense *"The seed didn't germinate in the past not now"* (3T), supported by the teacher's body language. Furthermore, Except 62 shows how the teacher reacts to the learner's non-target-like words by proving the target forms together with some metalinguistic information about number distinction *"Put a or put one. It's the same"* (3T), *"You have to choose a or one. This is singular"* (5T) and *"Put a container is correct. Put one container is correct, too"* (7T).

Excerpt 61. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the experiment and drawing final conclusions (Appendix D, p. 245)

1T: In control two, Neil?
2N: *The seed doesn't germinate.
3T: **The seed <u>didn't</u> germinate in the past not now** (moves hand backwards). Ok? The seed didn't germinate. So we can write here if you look … if we look at here … we can say 'the seed grew' or we can say 'it germinated or grew'. 'It germinated' it's better perhaps! And here 'the seed didn't germinate' it's better perhaps.

Excerpt 62. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the steps followed in the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 245-246)

1T: Just listen to Helen! Listen to Helen!
2H: *Put a one container
3T: **'Put <u>a</u>' or 'put <u>one</u>'. It's the same.**
4S: One (seems puzzled)
5T: **You have to choose 'a' or 'one'. This is singular.**
6S: A (seems puzzled)
7T: **`Put a container' is correct. 'Put one container' is correct, too.**

8H: Put a container with …
9T: with [shows some seeds]
10H: seeds
11T: with seeds, of course! [shows soil]
12H: soil
13T: soil is correct! And? [shows some water]
14H: and water.

In addition, the non-provision of corrective feedback, which represents 13% of the total amount of non-target-like productions, is in response to the learners' L1 productions and not L2 productions. Thus, it can be claimed that the learners' L1 use is either accepted by the teacher without any correction (11) or it is followed up by a recast (5). The following are a couple of excerpts in which the L1 is present while the learners are figuring out different ways of drawing the different steps to carry out the experiment. The first excerpt (Excerpt 63) exemplifies how the teacher accepts the learner's L1 production by acknowledging her ideas *"Ok, good idea!"* (5T), but without asking to codeswitch to the foreign language. On the other hand, in Excerpt 64, the teacher reacts by accepting the learner's idea of depicting the process in a given way and echoing his words in the form of a recast *"He pointed to the air. He drew two clouds and there in the middle between the clouds there is air. That's another possibility"* (3T) without prompting him to turn to the English language and try again.

Excerpt 63. School B - CLIL: Reporting on the steps followed in the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: Well, we have to write instruction number seven. If you want to say 'wait', you can draw a person waiting. Yes. Waiting, waiting, waiting and a clock perhaps.
2S: Que hem de dibuixar això? (=do you have to draw this?)
3T: A clock because it's waiting. Or what else? Any other ideas?
4S: *O una persona que no sap si sortirà una planta o no!* (=or a person who doesn't know if the seed will germinate or not)

5T: **Ok, good idea!** So wait yes wait very important you have to wait and water and don't forget to water the containers that need water in the experiment.

Excerpt 64. School B - CLIL: Planning on how to graphically represent the steps followed for the experiment (Appendix D, pp. 244-245)

1T: What did you draw? Mike?
2L: *Jo ho he fet d'una altra manera. Jo he ficat els núvols i una fletxa aquí al mig.* (= I've done it differently. I've drawn clouds with an arrow in between them)
3T: **Yes, listen** (addressing the whole class now). **He pointed to the air. He drew two clouds and there in the middle between the clouds there is air. That's another possibility.**

To sum it up, it can be stated that there is one non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner production every 3 minutes and 39 seconds of class time and all of them receive teacher corrective feedback. L1 productions (16) have been identified every 15 minutes and 45 seconds, but attention is paid to 5 (31%) of them every 50 minutes and 24 seconds of class time. The rest of L1 productions (69%) do not receive any attention on the part of the teacher. The linguistic focus of these episodes is on the correct use of grammar forms or word order, followed by lexical choices and the correct pronunciation of target words.

In the case of L2 productions, recasts are the predominant mode, followed by prompts and, to a lesser extent, explicit corrections. The qualitative analysis of the data has also shed some additional light on the conditions under which this feedback is provided. In the CLIL context, the teacher mostly employs recasts when brainstorming target vocabulary, when supporting the learners' attempts at using their own words not included in the language support and, finally, when signalling a shift towards a more scientific register in the wording of the learners' ideas. In the case of prompts,

elicitations are employed to negotiate form when the learners depart from the language structures provided and use their own resources. Although recasts are more widely used to suit this purpose, prompts could also be identified at some points during the unfolding of the CLIL unit. In addition, it has been noted that some of these prompts are sometimes not completely successful in eliciting the target forms from the learners since the teacher sometimes provides the target forms herself after some negotiation. As for explicit corrections, some examples have been identified at some points though this feedback type is minimal if compared to the other two types. As for the use of the L1, it must be highlighted that, in the majority of cases, the teacher accepts it and does not provide any corrective feedback. We now proceed to report the results obtained in the EFL context.

5.3.3. School B: Teacher corrective feedback in the EFL context

In the EFL context, it can be argued that recasting is by far the most common way the teacher reacts to non-target-like or incomplete learner productions. It is worth pointing out that teacher recasts have been identified throughout the EFL unit when carrying out different activities in the PPP sequence, as it is exemplified in the following excerpts. First, teacher recasts have been identified when brainstorming target vocabulary, especially at the beginning of the unit. The function of such teacher recasts is to reformulate the mispronounced target words, as Excerpts 65 and 66 illustrate in turns 5T "*a fruit, yes. So these are flowers and these are fruits"* and 7T "*light green leaves. This is the colour of the leaves"*, respectively.

Excerpt 65. School B - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, brainstorming already covered vocabulary

1T: And this. What's this? Look!
2Ls: flowers!
3T: flowers. And in here. What's this? For example, a pear or an apple. What is it? We call it …
4E: *fruit
5T: **a fruit, yes. So these are flowers and these are fruits.**

Excerpt 66. School B - EFL: Activity 2, presentation, listening and identifying information about tree types (Appendix D, p.247)

1T: Find the tree with white flowers and light green leaves. Can you repeat this? Can you repeat this?
2S: green tree and the …
3T: flowers it's got flowers and …
4S: and …
5T: what…dark or light green?
6Ss: *light
7T: **light green leaves. This is the colour of the leaves.**

Another context when teacher recasts are clearly favoured is when reproducing written information (Excerpt 67 and 68). The first example takes place when the whole class is engaged in reading the central story of the teaching unit. While the students take turns to read the story out loud, the teacher provides a recast *"He can't find his gold"* (3T) and *"Where's my gold?"* (5T) following the learners' inaccurate reproduction of the text. Similarly, the following excerpt comes from the last activity in the unit when they are all reading about the characteristics of different types of trees around the world. The teacher recasts the inaccurate pronunciation of words "sun" and "rain" from the text. As these two excerpts show, the teacher attends to word order and the correct pronunciation of words when focusing on form.

Excerpt 67. School B - EFL: Activity 4, presentation, reading the central story in the unit (Appendix D, pp. 247-248)

1T: One day, Fiona?
2F: Gwon can't *find his gold
3T: **He can't find his gold.** Ok.
4F: *Wake up! Where my gold?
5T: **Where's my gold?** Yes. Who's next?

Excerpt 68. School B - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, brainstorming already covered vocabulary

1T: So these trees, the tropical trees, need a lot of… Elias, a lot of what?
2G: *sun
3T: **A lot of sun**, but you're not Elias. And a lot of …
4E: *rain
5T: **rain. A lot of rain.**

Other teacher recasts have also been found when the teacher explicitly wants to elicit the target grammatical forms of the unit, that is, comparatives and superlatives. In these cases, the teacher recasts ill-formed learner productions *"Anna youngest yes"* (4A) that do not follow the model sentences with the grammatical forms on focus *"Ok so Anna is the youngest person in the class"* (5T) (Excerpt 69), but as the unit unfolds, there are fewer cases of recasts in such contexts and the teacher progressively urges the learners to provide a full grammatical sentence on their own.

Excerpt 69. School B - EFL: Activity 7, presentation, answering teacher questions containing the target grammatical forms

1T: Who is the youngest person in the class? Alan?
2A: Anna
3T: Anna? Sure?
4A: Anna youngest yes!
5T: **Ok so Anna is the youngest person in the class**. Who is the opposite. Who is the oldest person in the class?

Regarding teacher feedback that leads to the negotiation of form, they are not as common as teacher recasts, as indicated in Figure 11 (p. 146). These teacher prompts take the form of elicitations (22) including questions like *"What season is it, Ann?"* (3T) or requests to reformulate *"Can you repeat this?"* (3T), as displayed in Excerpts 70 and 71, respectively, in which the teacher's attention is directed towards eliciting the correct pronunciation of target vocabulary like "winter" and "chestnut" in these two excerpts.

Excerpt 70. School B - EFL: Activity 1, presentation, brainstorming already covered vocabulary

1T: What season is it?
2S: *The Winter
3T: **What season is it, Ann?**
4A: Winter
5T: It's not difficult because we have just 'Winter'. Winter number four.

Excerpt 71. School B - EFL: Activity 2, presentation, listening and identifying information about tree types (Appendix D, p. 247)

1T: That's?
2H: *Chestnut
3T: **Helen? Can you repeat this? That's the?**
4H: That's the …
5S: The chestnut
6H: Chestnut
7T: The chestnut tree. Ok?

Teacher prompts with the form of clarification requests (3) have also been spotted in the EFL data. Excerpt 72 shows how the teacher uses *"Sorry"* (3T) at the beginning of the sentence to make the student notice what needs to be improved. The learner appears to perceive what the teacher's intention is and she strives to improve the pronunciation of the target word on focus.

Excerpt 72. School B - EFL: Activity 10, practice, ordering information about the cycle of a tree (Appendix D, p. 250)

1T: And what's the next one according to you?
2A: The flowers *grow.
3T: **Sorry? The flowers …**
4A: The flowers *grow grow.
5T: Ok the flowers grow. And what's next then?

Concerning explicit corrections, the teacher directly corrects the learners' non-target or incomplete words quite frequently in this context. As shown in Excerpt 73, the teacher goes on to provide the correct comparative form of the adjective together with some metalinguistic information on the use of comparatives and the superlatives. The occurrence of explicit feedback together with the fact that there is not a single case of lack of feedback points to the fact that the teacher is very much concerned about language form and she wants students to notice their errors and get expose to the correct forms.

Excerpt 73. School B - EFL: Activity 12, practice, listening and identifying information about tree types (Appendix D, p. 250)

T: The widest, the widest tree in the world is the Banyan tree in Calcuta, in India. If this tree can be 7 meters wide, that means that a tropical tree can be… How wide?
L31: widest
T: **Ok but remember we care comparing. It it's more than 7 meters wide, we say it's <u>wider</u> ok <u>wider</u>.** And then yes in India there are the widest trees (puts the arms in a circle).

Lastly, in regards to the use of the L1, it has already been pointed out in the presentation of the findings from a quantitative viewpoint (p. 145), only two instances of L1 use were identified in the EFL context. As Excerpts 27 (p. 113) and 32 (p. 117) from the previous chapter illustrate, in those cases the teacher fully accepts the use of

the L1 on the part of the learners and provides a recast that is fully integrated in classroom interaction.

In sum, it can be claimed that, in the EFL context, there is one non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner production every 3 minutes and 14 seconds of class time and all of them receive corrective feedback from the teacher. There are a couple of examples of L1 use, which are addressed by the teacher. The linguistic focus of these episodes is on the accurate pronunciation of target words, the correct form of grammatical forms and structures as well as on the appropriate word choice.

Recasts (32) are the most common type of teacher corrective feedback, which represent 50% of corrective feedback moves. Prompts (25) stand for 39% of the total amount, followed by 11 explicit corrections (7%) which are minimal if compared to the other two types. There are only a couple of examples in which the teacher provides a recast as a response to an L1 production. The qualitative analysis of representative classroom excerpts has provided an overview of the contexts in which FonF episodes take place throughout the different phases of the EFL unit. Both recasts and prompts are used all throughout the PPP sequence such as when brainstorming target vocabulary, reproducing written information aloud or when engaged in practicing target forms. In general, recasts are favoured by the teacher during the presentation phase and prompts are employed during the practice phase. Lastly, the proportion of prompts amply doubles that of explicit corrections, which are kept to a minimum, but occur at different moments of the presentation and practice phases of the EFL teaching unit.

5.3.4. School B: A comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context

The analysis conducted in School B has shown a number of similarities and differences across the two contexts under analysis both from a quantitative and qualitative viewpoint. The main points are summarised as follows:

- Non-target-like or incomplete L2 learner productions are slightly more frequent in EFL (every 3 minutes and 14 seconds of class time) than in CLIL (every 3 minutes and 39 seconds of class time). In addition, all non-target-like L2 production is addressed by the teacher in both contexts. One quarter of learner production is encoded in the L1 in the CLIL context and 1 out of 3 of these L1 productions receives teacher corrective feedback. There are only two cases of L1 production in the EFL context.
- The linguistic focus of the teacher's corrective feedback is mostly at the level of phonology (i.e. pronunciation of individual sounds and stress) and morphosyntax (i.e. word order) in both contexts. Cases of lexical choice have also been identified in the CLIL context.
- Recasts are the most frequent type of corrective feedback used in the two contexts representing almost three quarters of the total amount in CLIL and half of it in EFL. Prompts are more numerous in the EFL context (38%) than in the CLIL context (20%). Explicit corrections are minimal in both contexts representing 8% in CLIL and 11% in EFL.
- In the CLIL context, L1 learner use is mostly met with teacher non-corrective feedback on 11 occasions (69%), but the use of the mother tongue is approached

by the teacher on 5 occasions (31%) through recasting. In the EFL context, there are only 2 cases which are also followed up by a recast.

- In the CLIL context, the teacher particularly resorts to the use of recasts when brainstorming target vocabulary at the beginning of the CLIL tasks (pre-task) and when a shift towards a more scientific register is needed during the task cycle. In addition, recasts and prompts are both used to address non-target or incomplete language when the learners verbalize their ideas and depart from the language support provided.
- In the EFL context, both recasts and prompts are used throughout the PPP sequence such as when brainstorming target vocabulary, reading a story aloud or practising target forms. However, the general tendency is to use recasts during the presentation phase and more prompts when the learners are involved in the practising of target forms. Explicit corrections are minimal in both contexts and they have been identified along the CLIL and the EFL teaching units.

5.4. A comparison of the CLIL and the EFL context in School A and School B: commonalities

- The two teachers address most of the learners' non-target-like or incomplete L2 productions in both CLIL and EFL contexts. All non-target-like language use receives some degree of attention in the EFL context in the two schools, but the same does not apply in the CLIL context. As for L1 production, it represents around one quarter of the total amount of learner production in the CLIL

context in both schools and around one third and one fourth of these L1 productions receive teacher corrective feedback, respectively. The use of the L1 in the EFL contexts is non-existent or minimal in both schools.

- When providing teacher corrective feedback, the linguistic focus is the same across contexts, that is, mostly pronunciation and morphosyntactic aspects followed by cases of appropriate word choice. In the case of incomplete L2 productions, the two teachers expect the learners to come up with full propositions instead of minimal productions or those containing a phrase in the two contexts and in the two schools.
- As for the type of teacher feedback, recasts are more frequent in the CLIL context than in the EFL context in both schools whereas prompts are more frequent in the EFL context than in the CLIL context in both schools. Explicit corrections are the least representative type of feedback in both contexts and they are slightly more cases in the EFL context than in the CLIL context.
- In regard to L1 production, recasts are predominant over other feedback types or lack of corrective feedback.
- The qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts has shown that recasts in the CLIL context in both schools are favoured when the two teachers are interested in getting the learners to focus on meaning rather than on form (i.e. checking content comprehension, reporting on the results of a task, adjusting vocabulary to the appropriate scientific register, etc.). In the EFL context, recasts are mainly favoured when eliciting target vocabulary and when getting the learners exposed to the target forms/structures in the presentation phase of the PPP sequence in both schools.

- In the CLIL context of both schools, prompts are more widely used when the two teachers are sensitive to the accurate use of the language to express content effectively during the different stages of the TBL sequence. In the EFL context of both schools, there is a clear tendency for the two teachers to use more prompts when the learners are in the practice phase of the PPP sequence. Lastly, explicit corrections have been identified in CLIL in both schools when the learners experience some difficulty in producing language. In the EFL context of both schools, teacher waiting time is often reduced and the two teachers themselves provide the correction.

All in all, the analysis of the two teachers' degree of attention to form through the provision of corrective feedback in reaction to the learners' non-target or incomplete oral contributions in each context and the way they manage such FonF episodes has allowed us to characterize further the learning experience the learners go through in the CLIL and the EFL classrooms contexts.

CHAPTER 6

Discussion

6.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the results of the present study in the light of previous research by taking as a point of departure the research questions and the sub-questions announced in Chapter 3. The first section discusses the findings obtained in relation to learners' oral production in the CLIL and the EFL context. The second section deals with the findings about the provision of teacher corrective feedback. The last section provides a summary of the chapter which leads to the last chapter where conclusions are presented taking into account limitations of the study and aspects for further research.

6.2. Learners' oral production in the CLIL context and the EFL context

In response to the first research question, the present study has delved into the nature of learners' experience in CLIL and EFL in terms of their oral language production in response to the questions formulated by the teacher. More specifically,

this research question aimed at a number of sub-questions related to how long students' oral productions are and the context in which they occur. In addition, complex students' productions have also been examined to determine whether they are based on learners' own L2 resources or they rely on pre-defined model sentences. Finally, the amount and context of learners' L1 production have also been explored.

The quantitative analysis of learners' oral output in terms of length has demonstrated that the proportion of minimal and phrase-level productions is very similar in the CLIL and the EFL context in the two schools under analysis and they altogether account for half of the total amount of learner oral production identified in each instructional context. As for their context, these learner productions have been spotted when reviewing already covered target vocabulary at the beginning of the teaching unit or at the beginning of some lessons and when eliciting target vocabulary throughout the implementation of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units. Furthermore, clause-level productions have been identified in both contexts though their number is higher in the EFL context –around half of the total amount of learner production– than in the CLIL context in which they represent around one quarter of the total amount. What sets a big difference between the two contexts in the two schools is the presence of more-than-one-clause productions in the CLIL context as opposed to the EFL context. As for the context in which they occur, clause-level productions constitute the bulk of learner production during the controlled practice phase of the PPP sequence in the EFL context in both schools. Clause-level productions and more-than-one-clause productions occur when learners are engaged in the performance of tasks and during the reporting phase within the TBL framework in the CLIL context in both schools.

Research studies conducted in immersion and CLIL contexts are generally in line with the results obtained in the present study. In immersion contexts, studies such as Allen et al. (1990) report that fewer than 15% of L2 student turns are beyond the clause level. However, Salomone (1992) and Day and Shapson (1996) both claim having observed considerably more opportunities for immersion students to engage in extended language production than the minimal amount reported by Allen et al. (1990). Within the CLIL research landscape, it must be claimed that studies with a focus on language production in the classroom context are scant. Mewalk (2004) describes learners' oral production as reduced and limited to certain situations that do not involve the creative use of the foreign language. In addition, as far as we are concerned, Nikula (2007a) is the only study that compares CLIL and EFL contexts in this respect. Her findings show that CLIL classroom settings involve the use of more linguistically complex language –a wide variety of language functions, often implying the use of the learners' own words– whereas short and pre-defined language is typical of EFL classroom settings. Thus, despite the lack of comparative studies targeting CLIL and EFL, the present study appears to support the results obtained by Nikula (2007a) in the sense that CLIL productions are longer and so more linguistically complex. Such finding might be accounted by the fact that the type of information that is required from the learners is not the same.

As highlighted by studies like Nikula (2007a), Dalton-Puffer (2006, 2007) and Pascual (2010) in the context of primary and secondary education, learners' productions with more than one clause in CLIL contain non-factual information such as hypotheses, reasons and opinions. In fact, Dalton-Puffer (2006, 2007) and Pascual (2010) focus on how teacher questions which elicit different types of information are

met with different learner answers. On the one hand, teacher questions that seek to elicit factual information are followed by short and linguistically simple learner answers. On the other hand, teacher questions aimed at eliciting descriptions, explanations, reasons and meta-cognitive information involve the use of more linguistically complex language on the part of the learners due to the high cognitive demands imposed on learners. According to Bloom's (1984) taxonomy of levels of learning and cognitive ability, language functions such as those of explaining, predicting or analysing are cognitively and linguistically more demanding than those of naming, listing, or memorizing factual information. These above mentioned studies together with those by Menegale (2011) and Schuitemaker-King (2012) all point towards the preponderance of teacher questions for facts which are met by learner output of a low linguistic complexity. Other studies at the level of secondary and tertiary education (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lose, 2007; Smit, 2010b) have also been able to identify a series of language functions –explanations, reasons, for instance– in CLIL students' production, but their number has been reported to be rather limited and their structure quite poor from a linguistic standpoint. This might come as a surprise taking into account that, as learners make the transition to secondary education and move on to tertiary education, they are supposed to articulate their knowledge and understanding by providing cause-effect explanations, reasons, evaluations, etc. and, consequently, they need to get familiar with the language forms and structures to carry it out effectively not only in the L1 but also in the L2.

A number of reasons such as the informality of classroom talk and teachers' profile as language experts and/or content experts have been highlighted to account for CLIL learners' poor performance when using the L2 to express cognitively demanding

language functions. A study conducted by Kong (2009) in a content-based second language classroom contrasts language-trained with content-trained teachers doing science. Her findings indicate that teachers' depth of content knowledge has a positive effect not only on the complexity of knowledge relationships co-constructed by the teacher and the students in interaction but also on the use of correspondingly complex language. In a similar vein, Pascual's (2010) comparison of two CLIL teachers' profile indicates that the content teacher was more aware of different question types to encourage higher order thinking skills that need to be verbalized in more complex ways than the language and content expert teacher. All in all, it seems crucial to make sure that CLIL teachers use a variety of question types to ensure learner output of varying complexity and that they regularly point learners' attention to the use of L2 language functions to express meaning effectively.

Along these lines, as Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) and Clegg (2007) contend, a supportive language pedagogy is particularly crucial in CLIL classroom settings when learners who are not fluent enough in the L2 are dealing with subject matter knowledge and skills that are more cognitively demanding than those traditionally required in regular EFL classroom contexts. The analysis of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units and the teaching materials employed in this study has demonstrated the extent to which the two teachers have been very much concerned about providing scaffolding so that the learners can express themselves without major difficulties. This relates to one of our initial concerns, that is, whether learner productions with at least with one clause are pre-defined and modelled by the teacher or if they are student-created instead. The findings have indicated that such learner production relies on the model sentences provided by the teacher as support not only in the CLIL context but

also in the EFL context. In the case of CLIL, language support covers a range of structures to fulfil the language functions each task requires. In the case of EFL, language support is presented in the shape of model sentences, talking frames or substitution tables (Clegg, 2007) which contain the target forms and structures of the unit. As a matter of fact, pre-empted or pre-defined learner language has been shown to represent half of the total amount of learner production in the CLIL context in both schools and it is minimal or non-existent in the EFL context in both schools. Cases of student-created production –one out four learner productions–that move away from the model language provided have also been identified. As indicated by the two teachers, these are authored by high achiever students who have a greater command of the language and are generally more willing to take risks than mid or low achiever students. Along these lines, it is worth highlighting that the qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts has also evidenced that the two teachers were more willing to acknowledge such learner attempts and follow them up with some sort of elaboration or comment in the CLIL context than in the EFL context. This observation is in line with those made in previous CLIL classroom-based studies like Marsol (2008, 2010) and Nikula (2007a) as for the level of teacher control in IRF sequences in the EFL context in comparison to the CLIL setting. In the former, students are reported to often produce brief, one-word responses before another question is posed by the teacher, thus resulting in very tight IRF sequences. On the other hand, these sequences are more extended in CLIL lessons because the teacher tends to elaborate on learners' longer replies instead of immediately posing another question. Last but not least, contextual factors such as classroom time, as pointed out by one of the teachers in this study, might also help explain the fact that the two teachers do not generally devote

much time to fully exploit student-created oral contributions. As Llinares and Morton (2010: 62) put it, ''CLIL students might be able to do more than we think, if we provide them with the interactional space to articulate their understandings''. Thus, the interactional space they are provided might also have a direct bearing on the nature of learners' oral output in the classroom.

Furthermore, the amount of L1 in learners' oral production is another feature that helps distinguish the CLIL context from the EFL context in the two schools under investigation since the presence of the L1 is greater in the former context than in the latter where it is anecdotal or completely absent. These results need to be related to the status of the mother tongue in each learning context. The two teachers ascribe to an L2-only policy in the EFL context, but they recognise the role of the L1 as a cognitive tool in CLIL though both teachers have recognised that massive exposure to the L2 is an asset in both learning contexts. The analysis of classroom excerpts has shown that the use of the L1 on the part of the learners mainly occurs when checking the meaning of target words and when using certain language functions (opinions, reactions, explanations, reasons, etc.) for which L2 resources are not enough to communicate effectively. Other studies conducted in ESL/EFL and immersion contexts (Guk & Kellogg, 2007; Macaro, 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) also point to the supportive role of the L1 in a number of contexts: task management, deliberations over vocabulary, negotiating metalinguistic knowledge and understanding the meaning of a text, initiate and maintain interrelationships and vocalize learners' own thoughts. Nevertheless, it must be highlighted that teachers have to be careful when encouraging students to use the L1, as it may eventually substitute –rather than support– L2 learning, as noted by Swain and Lapkin (2000).

Research studies conducted in CLIL settings like Nikula (2002) and Wannagat (2007) coincide with the present study in the sense that cases of L1 use can related to learners' limited proficiency. Therefore, when the L2 resources available fall short, turning to the L1 allows them to express themselves more effectively in order to fulfil the objectives set by the tasks they are engaged in. These findings do not coincide with those obtained by Nikula (2007b) who reports that CLIL learners always use the L2 not only when dealing with instructional content but also for social purposes (i.e. passing on greetings from one teacher to another) or Dalton-Puffer (2007b) who claims that CLIL learners turn to the L1 exclusively when talking among themselves during group work. Even though learner-learner exchanges have not been object of analysis in the present study, future research must delve into the interplay between classroom configuration (whole class, group work or pair work) and L1/L2 alternations. The fact that these studies have targeted secondary education students with somehow higher proficiency level and familiarity with CLIL might account for the minimal presence of the L1 in these CLIL classes. Along these lines, studies like Agustín Llach (2009) and Lázaro & García Mayo (2012) seem to confirm that L1 use decreases at the same time as L2 proficiency increases. Therefore, future studies targeting CLIL and EFL need to consider these two variables, that is, proficiency level and context familiarity as well. when it comes to different aspects of classroom interaction and, especially, L1 language use.

6.3. Attention to form through teacher corrective feedback in the CLIL context and the EFL context

In response to the second research question, the present study has provided evidence on the incidence of reactive focus of form through the provision of teacher corrective feedback in the two learning contexts under investigation. More specifically, the amount of FonF episodes in reaction to learners' non-target-like or incomplete oral language production has been object of analysis. In addition, following Lyster & Ranta's (1997) set of categories, the type of teacher corrective feedback provided as well as the context in which each type occurs has also been examined.

The quantitative analysis of the two teachers' provision of corrective feedback in reactive FonF episodes has demonstrated that both teachers reacted to learners' non-target-like or incomplete productions. As for the amount of learner productions which are not considered to be target-like, no common pattern has been found across contexts and schools. In School A, more non-target-like learner productions have been found in the CLIL context than in the EFL context, but the opposite is true in School B where non-target-like productions were slightly more frequent in the EFL context than in the CLIL context. One possible reason that might account for such findings is the fact that, being the first year of CLIL instruction in School B, the teacher was particularly interested in learners faithfully following the language support provided to express content successfully. What is more, the range of target forms and structures in CLIL was slightly more reduced in this school. In fact, this is further reinforced by the fact the teacher in School B did address all non-target or incomplete L2 learner productions in the CLIL context while the other teacher did not react to some of them. As for the

EFL context, the two teachers did not leave one single non-target-like production unattended. Such findings run counter to previous research studies conducted in CLIL settings which report very little focus on form (Nikula, 2005; Pérez-Vidal, 2007). To our knowledge, only Hampl (2011) has compared CLIL and EFL settings in terms of the amount of errors and her findings indicate that, in CLIL lessons, a considerably higher amount of errors occurred if compared to the EFL setting, which is explained by the large amount of students' talk in the first setting. Nevertheless, less than half of the total amount of errors received some corrective feedback from the CLIL teacher and more than three quarters in the EFL context. Thus, it can be claim that our research findings differ from Hampl (2011) since the two teachers did provide corrective feedback in both settings. The fact that the two teachers in this study are generalist primary teachers with a specialty in English language teaching might support the fact that they attended to language form in both contexts.

As for the linguistic focus of corrective feedback (phonology, morphosyntax or lexis), no significant differences have been identified across contexts in the two schools under analysis. Given the more specialized nature of some target vocabulary in the CLIL context, pronunciation and lexical problems have been found to be slightly more frequent in this context. In the EFL context, teacher corrective feedback mostly addresses morphosyntactic aspects (i.e. word order and accurate verb forms) when dealing with target forms and structures and phonological ones when covering vocabulary. Our observations are in line with Dalton-Puffer's (2007) analysis of CLIL classrooms which show that approximately half of the errors in her data were related to lexical choice and pronunciation and Krampitz (2007) who claims that lexical errors

were considered to receive more focus than pronunciation or syntactic errors. A more recent study by Llinares, Morton & Whittaker (2012) also claims that most of teachers' use of corrective feedback in their data focused on lexical errors as well as on pronunciation errors, mainly of the keywords related to the topic under study. Finally, Hampl (2011) is the only study which compared the CLIL context with the EFL context. Similarly to our results, grammar errors were a bit more numerous in the EFL context and vocabulary errors were twice as numerous in the CLIL context. Pronunciation errors were also more frequent in the CLIL context than the EFL context. All in all, research studies so far show a lot of agreement in the linguistic focus of teacher corrective feedback though further research will definitely shed some more light on this issue.

Concerning the type of corrective feedback employed by the teacher to address non-target-like L2 production, findings have indicated that the share of recasts is higher than any other corrective feedback type in the CLIL setting and the EFL setting in the two schools. In the CLIL context, they have been shown to represent between half and three quarters of the total amount of teacher corrective feedback moves identified. In addition, teacher prompts have been shown to represent around one fourth and one third of the total amount of teacher corrective feedback moves. However, it must be pointed out that the number of prompts is higher in the EFL context than in the CLIL context in both schools. The preponderance of recasts in our study coincides with previous research studies conducted in a number of contexts such as ESL/EFL contexts (Ellis et al., 2001; Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Long & Robinson, 1998; Lyster, 1998, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006), immersion and content-based contexts

(Lyster, 1998, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Swain, 2000), CLIL contexts (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Smit, 2010; Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012) and CLIL and immersion contexts (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). As regards comparatives studies of CLIL and EFL instruction, studies to date have also reported a higher presence of teacher recasts in CLIL and more explicit corrective feedback types in EFL (Hampl, 2011; Milla & García Mayo, 2014; Schuitemaker-King, 2012). For example, Milla & García Mayo (2014) hold that the EFL teacher in their study used several more explicit types of corrective feedback (explicit correction, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition), whereas the CLIL teacher favoured more implicit types, mostly recasts. In addition, corrective feedback was significantly more effective in EFL with 82% of the corrective feedback moves obtaining learners' uptake. In CLIL, uptake was considerably lower, but still 52% of the corrections led to a response. In Hampl (2011), recasts were also the dominant type of corrective feedback in both CLIL and EFL settings representing more than half of the total amount in each context, but even more so in the CLIL context. As for prompts, they represented less than one quarter of the total amount in CLIL and nearly half of the total amount in the EFL context, with metalinguistic feedback predominating in EFL, as also noticed by Schuitemaker-King (2012). Other teacher prompts like clarification requests, elicitations and repetitions were hardly identified in the two contexts. Lochtman (2007) compared EFL lessons (Lochtman, 2002) with immersion (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and found that ELT teachers prompt learners to self-correct errors while immersion teachers recast erroneous utterances themselves. However, although both settings share some characteristics, immersion lessons differ from CLIL lessons (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010) in a number of aspects, which makes the comparison less straightforward. As for explicit corrections, they were the least

representative type of feedback in our data, but differences were found across schools. While in School A there were almost twice as many explicit corrections in the EFL context than in the CLIL context, there was more of a balanced in School B. Such unequal proportion has also been reported by Hampl (2011) and Milla & García Mayo (2014).

Even though the above reported comparative studies are all in line with the results obtained in the present study as for corrective feedback type, relatively little is known about the particular context in which these feedback types are employed and whether or not there are major differences between the CLIL and the EFL instructional contexts. The results of the present study have shown that the two teachers' preference for recasts over prompts in the CLIL context seems to depend on whether the teacher gives more priority to content –meaning-focused tasks–or pays special attention to the accurate use of the language to transmit content –more language-focused tasks– when carrying out the tasks set in the teaching units under analysis. A similar observation was made by Lyster & Mori (2006) when comparing Japanese as foreign language classrooms with French as a second language classrooms since recasts were more frequent in the more meaning-focused lessons in the second language learning context. In addition, the present results have also indicated that during the performance of meaning-focused tasks, recasts play a major role in supporting learners' non-target-like productions when experiencing some difficulties either when following the language support or when using their own words. Besides, within the sequential organization of the TBL framework in CLIL, it has also been noted that recasts were found during the reporting phase when the teachers wished to round the tasks off by focusing on

content. Finally, functional recasts have also been identified in the CLIL context – particularly in School B given the use of more specific vocabulary to conduct an experiment– when a shift towards the use of register-appropriate language is necessary (Mohan & Beckett, 2003). As reported by Llinares et al. (2012), such recasts might prove useful to edit students' output towards more academically acceptable language forms to express content-relevant meanings. On the other hand, recasting in the EFL context was clearly favoured by the two teachers participating in the study at a particular time in the progression of the EFL teaching units. It was precisely in the presentation phase of the PPP sequence when the two teachers employed recasts following non-target-like productions or incomplete productions for which the teacher was expecting learner productions with one clause instead of one- or two-word productions.

In the CLIL context, the results of this study have also indicated that prompts were employed in those tasks where the two teachers were more sensitive to the accurate use of the target language and, within the TBL framework, the teachers used more prompts to negotiate form during task performance when following the language support provided. In the EFL context, there was a greater use of prompts following non-target-like learner production during the practice phase of the PPP sequence when the learners were fully engaged in the practising of target forms and structures. As shown in the qualitative analysis of classroom excerpts, a range of corrective feedback types under the category of prompts (elicitations, metalinguistic questions and comments and clarification requests) have been identified though no distinctions have been made among them. In this respect, future research should address if certain types of prompts are more common in certain activity/task types or at certain moments during the progression of the teaching units by drawing on a larger amount of data.

Finally, correcting non-target forms explicitly has proven to be slightly more frequent in the EFL context than in the CLIL context in School A, but almost twice as common in the case of School B. Therefore, a common pattern across contexts has not been found. Contrary to that, Milla & García Mayo (2014) contend that in their study explicit corrections were the only corrective feedback moves that were significantly different across CLIL and EFL settings, that is, they were minimal in the former context and numerous in the latter, which reinforced the point that the EFL teacher had a clear preference for more explicit types of corrective feedback, whereas the CLIL teacher favoured more implicit ones. When examining the context in which explicit corrections occurred, the two teachers provided the correction when negotiation of form between the teacher and the students was not successful. In the EFL context of both schools, it was noted that teacher waiting time for students to correct themselves was often reduced by providing an immediate explicit correction. In fact, this appears to be make sense with the point made before about the tight IRF classroom interaction sequences, especially in the EFL context, reported by Marsol (2008, 2010) as well as Nikula (2007a) when comparing CLIL and EFL classroom settings.

Last but not least, the present study has yielded evidence on learners' reliance on the mother tongue in the CLIL context on a number of occasions, but its existence is minimal or non-existent in the EFL context. Out of the total amount of L1 production, which has been found to represent around one quarter of learner production in the CLIL context in both schools, 1 out of 4 of these L1 productions have been addressed by the teacher. As discussed in the previous section on learners' overall language production, learners in this study resorted to the L1 when they did not have the L2

means to express certain language functions (opinions, reactions, explanations, reasons, etc.) or when checking the meaning of target vocabulary. However, we didn't identify a common pattern in the two teachers' way of reacting to the use of the L1 since the teacher in School A did not provide corrective feedback to more than half of the L1 productions and the teacher in School B addressed them all. As previously pointed out, this teacher's concern for L1 language use might also be attached to the fact that it was the first year of CLIL instruction for their group of students, so this might also explain the teacher's concern for following up L1 productions and making learners exposed to the foreign language as much as possible for them to become used to it. In both cases, though, recasting was the most common corrective feedback type employed by the two teachers. As for the EFL context, L1 production was inexistent or anecdotal and, in these cases, the teacher opted for a recast when following it up. Studies concerning L1 use are scant in immersion (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009) and almost non-existent in CLIL (Méndez and Pavón, 2012) but those available have addressed the topic from the viewpoint of teachers' L1 language use. Méndez and Pavón (2012) observed that the L1 was successfully employed as an instrument of disambiguation to help students understand complex ideas and notions. Similarly, (Lasagabaster, 2013) reported that CLIL teachers were generally positive about L1 use to scaffold language and content learning though the amount of first language use varied greatly from teacher to teacher. All these authors claimed that overall teaching practice was based on teachers' intuition and background knowledge. Although the teachers analysed were positive about the use of the L1 this practice was neither systematic nor based on specific teaching guidelines. This aspect

requires further analysis especially taking into account that the status of the L1 differs from one instructional context to the other and so does then the way teachers react to it.

6.4. Summary

The results obtained in this study have pointed at a number of similarities and differences in the learning experience of primary education learners enrolled in CLIL instruction and EFL instruction.

To begin with, the study of learners' oral output –both L2 and L1 language use– has pointed towards a number of similarities and differences across the two learning contexts under study. The dual-focus on content and language in CLIL, and more specifically the type information that is required by the questions posed by the two teachers, has definitely helped explain the differences in the length of oral productions, that is, minimal productions, those containing a phrase, a clause or multiple clauses. The careful analysis of classroom excerpts has contributed to shed some more light on the context where these productions occur to meet a number of teacher objectives in accordance with the approach to language learning adopted in each instructional setting.

Furthermore, learner oral production has also proved to be tightly controlled in the two classroom contexts, so the language support provided by the teacher has been crucial in the two contexts to ensure learners' effective performance. Learners' emergent command of the foreign language and both teachers' and learners' little familiarity with CLIL –especially in one of the schools– have been highlighted as

possible factors to explain such finding. The results have also shown that the use of the L1 is marginal in the two contexts, but even more so in the CLIL context due to its different role in each of the settings.

Finally, the two teachers' degree of attention to form through the provision of corrective feedback has been high in the two learning contexts contrary to some of results obtained by previous studies. Nevertheless, similarly to other studies, recasts have been the predominant feedback type in both contexts, but as prompts have been more numerous in the EFL context where a more traditional approach to language learning applies. The qualitative analysis of the findings by looking at representative classroom excerpts has also indicated that the two teachers' preference for one feedback type over another is in line with the teaching approach and the objectives the teachers' had in mind at different moments during the implementation of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusions

The present dissertation has provided a picture of how CLIL is implemented in two classes of 5th year primary education students who attend CLIL lessons in addition to regular EFL lessons with the same teacher giving both subjects in each of the two schools under investigation. In order to delve into the English language learning experience of these primary education learners, two key aspects in the study of classroom interaction have been examined: learners' oral language production and the provision of teacher corrective feedback to deal with non-target language use during the implementation of a teaching unit in the two classroom setting under study.

With respect to learners' oral production, one of the main differences found between the CLIL context and the EFL context in the two schools is the number of oral language production containing one clause or multiple clauses and the context in which such production has been identified. Even though learner productions with one clause are common in both contexts (more numerous in the EFL context), multiple-clause productions have only been identified in the CLIL context. Nevertheless, this learner output has been identified at different moments of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units to suit a range of purposes. With the objective of expressing one's

thoughts related to the CLIL subject matter, the learners in both schools have been using English to meet a range of language functions (i.e. predicting, explaining, reasoning, summarizing) while performing the set CLIL tasks (interviewing someone or conducting a scientific experiment, for instance) and reporting on the results or conclusions obtained. As far as the EFL context is concerned, learner output with one clause reflects other language functions like those of naming, describing, matching, etc. with a clear focus on the target language forms and structures which are being presented and practised by means of a more traditional and less communicative approach to language learning.

Furthermore, despite the identification of longer –and more linguistically complex– language production in the CLIL context in the two schools, something shared by the two instructional contexts under scrutiny is the fact that the learners mainly rely on the language support provided by the teacher (model sentences, substitution tables, etc.). In the case of CLIL, this support includes the language structures pre-empted by the teacher when analysing learners' linguistic needs to communicate content successfully. In the case of EFL, it presents the model sentences with the forms and structures which are being object of study. Very few instances of learner-created productions have been identified in the two contexts in both schools and, when they do occur, the two teachers have not been supportive at all and quickly turned to the model language previously presented. Therefore, the results of the present study run counter to other studies which claimed that learners have a more active engagement in CLIL classroom interaction than in traditional approaches to foreign language learning (Nikula 2006a, 2006b, 2010; Smit, 2010). In addition, the differentiating role of learners' as *users* of the language in CLIL and as *learners* of

English in EFL reported by a number of studies (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Nikula, 2006a; 2006b, 2010), cannot be made extensive to the present study either. As regards the use of the L1, differences have been identified as for the status of the mother tongue in each context. While in the EFL context of both schools an only-English policy is advocated by the teachers and put into use in the classroom context, L1 learner language has proved to be more visible in the CLIL context due to the aiding function attached to the mother tongue to compensate for the learners' limited English proficiency.

Identifying CLIL students as *users* of English is still out of place in a context where children have little or no informal exposure to the second/foreign language beyond school time and thus a very emergent command of the language after around 175 hours of English instruction. Thus, it is felt that future research must consider language production in relation to learners' proficiency level and familiarity with CLIL programmes to consider the potential of CLIL instruction in enhancing learners' foreign language learning. In line with Escobar's (2012) description of CLIL as "Content-rich Language Learning in Context-rich classrooms", it has been shown that CLIL lessons in the two participating schools have offered the learners the opportunity to produce "content-rich" language while carrying out a number of communicative and meaningful tasks in "context-rich" classrooms –which is not the case in the EFL setting– but such production might still be quite embryonic, that is, quite limited and very much framed by the teacher and the linguistic support provided.

What is more, the present study has also addressed the extent to which the two teachers provide corrective feedback and its typology according to the context of occurrence. The incidence of teacher corrective feedback has proven to be high in both learning contexts in the two schools, indicating that the two teachers are very much

concerned about accurate language not only in the EFL classroom setting but also in the CLIL one. Despite the fact that some studies on CLIL classroom interaction have evidenced an overall lack of attention to form (Nikula, 2007a; Pérez-Vidal, 2007), other studies all point towards different levels of teacher attention to form (De Graaff et. al, 2007; Llinares et al., 2012; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Schuitemaker-King, 2012, among others). Regarding corrective feedback type, the present findings have indicated that recasts are the predominant form of corrective feedback in both contexts, which is in line studies conducted in immersion, content-based, CLIL and EFL/ESL contexts. In addition, teacher prompts to negotiate form are more numerous in the EFL context than in the CLIL context in the two schools. Besides, the analysis of classroom excerpts in the present study has also shed some light on the conditions under which different feedback types are provided throughout the unfolding of the CLIL and the EFL teaching units to meet a number of purposes.

In relation to the study of teacher corrective feedback in CLIL classroom settings, there are some areas which are left for further research. First, the focus of the present study has been on a reactive focus on form on the part of the teacher, but a proactive focus on form (i.e. teacher explanations of certain linguistic aspects) would also help provide a more comprehensive picture of how language form is attended to in the CLIL context as well as in the EFL context. Secondly, given the interest in the CLIL classroom as a language learning environment, teacher corrective feedback on content has been totally disregarded, but it is definitely an additional dimension to pursue in future research. Besides, the present study has not dealt with learner uptake, that is, how learners react to the different types of teacher feedback and incorporate it

into their contributions. Bearing in mind that the presence of learners' immediate uptake has been traditionally regarded as a measure of effectiveness in focus on form episodes providing corrective feedback, upcoming CLIL classroom-based studies must carefully look at these episodes and consider its impact on learners' language use and language development by means of both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies.

In evaluating the above-reported findings in learner production and teacher feedback, one needs to consider that such findings have probably been not only influenced by the learning context (CLIL vs. EFL), which was our primary interest, but also by the different approach implemented in each context (TBL in CLIL vs. PPP in EFL). Ideally, it would have been preferable to compare two contexts where the same approach had been adopted but this was not something we could choose, given the naturalistic nature of the present study. Furthermore, as pointed out throughout the dissertation, one of the strong points of the present study –and novelties within the CLIL research landscape– is that we have kept track of two generalist primary teachers (both content and language experts) in charge of CLIL and EFL instruction with the same group of students in each of the two schools. This has made it possible to rule out confounding variables such as individual teacher style and learner differences which is the case in the majority of CLIL studies published so far.

At the same time, it might be the case that individual teacher style might have obscured some distinctive features between CLIL and EFL. The two teachers' profile as generalist primary education teachers with specific training in foreign language teaching might have led to a given performance on their part. Learners' oral production has been considered to be very much framed by the two teachers' provision

of language support, on the one hand, and the attention to form through the provision of corrective feedback very high in the two learning context, on the other hand. Thus, we consider it necessary to see if the same results would be obtained if the two teachers were generalist primary education teachers without specific training on foreign language teaching pedagogy and, therefore, presumably less concerned with language.

The fact of having only two schools and one CLIL and one EFL teaching unit in each of the two schools makes it impossible to generalize the findings to teaching practice in CLIL and EFL classroom settings. Nevertheless, some of the findings might easily transfer to other school contexts and resonate with the reader. In addition, this study can contribute to a grounded understanding of the construct of CLIL and lead the reader to reflect upon its current implementation in comparison with traditional EFL teaching. As pointed out by Coyle (2006), effective CLIL programmes depend on a range of situational and contextual variables, so it is perceived there is an urgent need for classroom-based research studies in order to establish the specificities and commonalities of the implementation of CLIL. Future research needs to include more students and teachers at the level of primary, secondary and tertiary education, with a range of different pedagogical options –varying teacher styles and teaching methodologies– in order to get to know about a wide range of CLIL teaching and learning experiences. Comparative studies targeting CLIL and EFL instruction are also crucial to assess the potential of each instructional context and how the two can complement each other.

Bearing in mind that the two participating teachers had received specific methodological training to create CLIL materials and implement them afterwards, we

consider there is a need to reflect on how teachers can make the most of this experience and transfer all the knowledge gained to the EFL context as well. By creating a close link between CLIL and EFL instruction, we consider it is possible to provide learners with complementary opportunities for foreign language development. As a matter of fact, the learners in the present study were sensitive to the two approaches and valued different aspects of the CLIL lessons and the EFL lessons. In the CLIL context, the learners especially highlighted the hands-on and experimental component of tasks as something positive as well as the simultaneous learning of content of language. In the EFL context, they showed a positive attitude towards the oral-based and game-like nature of EFL activities and the learning of new vocabulary.

Finally, the present results have made it clear that the teacher has a key role in enhancing learners' oral production as well as in providing corrective feedback to focus on form, especially in a context where learners had a limited command of English and little familiarity with CLIL instruction. Thus, it would be beneficial to make teachers aware of the roles they play during CLIL and EFL instruction and the effect this has on classroom interaction. Both pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes should make teachers aware of their role in interaction and be offered a range of tools and strategies to fully exploit each learning context. Bridging the existing gap between CLIL and EFL instruction by making the two instructional contexts complementary must be a priority if we are to offer our primary education students a more comprehensive contact with the foreign language in the classroom setting.

REFERENCES

Admiral, W., Westhoff, G. & de Bot, K. (2006). Evaluation of bilingual secondary education in the Netherlands: students' language proficiency in English. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 12, 1, 75-93.

Agustín Llach, M. P. (2009). The role of Spanish L1 in the vocabulary use of content and non-content EFL learners. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and Language Integrated Learning: Evidence from Research in Europe* (pp.112-129). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B. & Cummins, J. (1990). Aspects of classroom treatment: Towards a more comprehensive view of second language education. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins & M. Swain (Eds.), *The development of second language proficiency* (pp. 57-81). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Allwright, D. & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the Language Learner*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Badertscher, H. & Bieri, T. (2009). *Wissenserwerb im content-and-language integrated learning*. Bern-Stuttgart-Wien, Switzerland: Haupt.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S. & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 25, 243-272.

Bergman, M. & Kasper, G. (1993). Perception and Performance in Native and Nonnative Apology". In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (pp. 82-107). Cary, NC: Oxford University Press.

Bloom, B. S. (1984). *Taxonomy of educational objectives*. Allyn and Bacon, MA: Boston.

Breidbach, S., Bach, G. & Wolff, D. (Eds.) (2002). *Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht: Didaktik, Lehrer-/Lernerforschung und Bildungspolitik zwischen Theorie und Empirie.* Frankfurt etc.: Peter Lang.

Bruner, J. S. (1990). *Acts of meaning*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Cammarata, L. & Tedick, D. J. (2012). Balancing content and language in instruction: The experience of immersion teachers. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96, 2, 251-269.

Celaya, M. L., Pérez-Vidal, C. & Torras, M. R. (2001). Matriz de criterios de medición para la determinación del perfil de competencia lingüística escrita en inglés (LE). *Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada*, 14, 87-98.

Cenoz, J. (2002). Age of learning and oral production in the third language. Interface: *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16, 63-74.

Christie, F. (2002). *Classroom discourse analysis. A functional perspective*. London, New York: Continuum.

Clegg, J. (2007). Analysing the language demands of lessons taught in a second langauge. *Volumen monográfico*, 113-128.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., Marsh, D. (2010). *Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dafouz, E. (2006). Solidarity strategies in CLIL university lectures: teachers' use of pronouns and modal verbs. *Vienna English Working Papers (Views)*, 15, 9-15.

Dafouz, E. & Llinares, A. (2008). The Role of Repetition in CLIL Teacher Discourse: A Comparative Study at Secondary and Tertiary Levels. *International CLIL Research Journal*, 1, 1, 50-59.

Dafouz, E. & Núñez, B. (2010). Metadiscursive devices in university lectures: A contrastive analysis of L1 and L2 teacher performance. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms* (pp. 213-231). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2005). Negotiating interpersonal meanings in naturalistic classroom discourse: directives in Content and Language Integrated classrooms. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 37, 8, 1275-1293.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2006). Questions in CLIL classrooms: strategic questioning to encourage speaking. In A. Martinez Flor & E. Usó (Eds.), *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills [Studies in language acquisition 29]* (pp. 187-213). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Dalton-Puffer, E. (2007). *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dalton-Puffer, C. & Nikula, T. (2006). Pragmatics of content-based instruction: teacher and student directives in Finnish and Austrian classrooms. *Applied Linguistics,* 27, 241-267.

Dalton-Puffer, C. & Smit, U. (Eds.) (2007). *Empirical perspectives on CLIL classroom discourse*. Frankfurt, Vienna: Peter Lang.

Dalton-Puffer, C., Nikula, T. & Smit, U. (Eds.) (2010). *Language Use and Language Learning in CLIL Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Day, E. & Shapson, S. (1996). *Studies in immersion education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

De Graaff, R., Koopman, G. J., Anikina, Y. & Westhoff, G. (2007). An observation tool for effective L2 pedagogy in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism,* 10, 5, 603-624.

Dooly, M. & Moore, E. (2009). Plurilingual talk-in-interaction in an initial teacher training CLIL class. In D. Veronesi & C. Nickenig (Eds.), *Bi- and Multilingual Universities: European Perspectives and Beyond* (pp. 181-189). Bozen-Bolzano: Bozen-Bolzano University Press.

Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (Eds.) (1998). *Focus on form in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H. & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptakae in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning,* 51, 281-318.

Escobar Urmeneta, C. (2012). Content-Rich Language Learning in Context-Rich Classrooms. *APAC*, 74, 39-47.

Escobar Urmeneta, C. & Evnitskaya, N. (2013). Affording Students Opportunities for the Integrated Learning of Content and Language. A Contrastive Study on Classroom Interactional Strategies Deployed by Two CLIL Teachers. In J. Arnau (Ed.), *Recovering Catalan through School: Challenges and Instructional Approaches* (pp. 159-183). Bristol: Multilingual Matters & Institut d'Estudis Catalans.

Escobar Urmeneta, C. & Evnitskaya, N. (2014). 'Do you know Actimel?' The Adaptive Nature of Dialogic Teacher-led Discussions in the CLIL Science classroom: A Case Study. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42, 2, 165-180.

European Commission (1995). *The While Paper: Education and Training. Teaching and Learning. Towards the Learning Society*. Bruxelles: European Commission.

Evnitskaya, N. (2012). *Talking science in a second language: The interactional co-construction of dialogic explanations in the CLIL science classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

Evnitskaya, N. & Morton, T. (2011). Knowledge construction, meaning-making and interaction in CLIL science classroom communities of practice. *Language and Education*, 25, 2, 109-127.

Evnitskaya, N. & Escobar Urmeneta, C. (2013). 'What is harmful?': La construcción interactiva de las explicaciones en un aula AICLE de ciencias. *Enseñanza de las Ciencias. Revista de investigación y experiencias didácticas*, 1160-1164.

Foster, P. & Ohta, A. (2005). Negotiation of meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, 26, 402-430.

García Mayo, M. P. & García Lecumberri, M. L. (2003). *Age and the Acquisition of English as a Foreign Language*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Gassner, D. & Maillat, D. (2006). Spoken competence in CLIL: A pragrmatic take on recent Swiss data. Special CLIL Issue. *Vienna English Working Papers (Views)*, 13, 3, 15-22.

Gené Gil, M., Juan Garau, M. & Salazar Noguera, J. (2012). A case study exploring oral language choice between the target language and the L1s in mainstream CLIL and EFL secondary education. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas, Universitat Politècnica de València*, 7, 133-146.

Gilabert, R. (2009). The role of tasks in CLIL program development. *I International round table on CLIL programs*. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (Spain).

Guk, H. & Kellogg, D. (2007). The ZPD and whole class teaching: teacher-led and student-led interactional mediation of tasks. *Language Teaching Research*, 11, 281-299.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1993). Towards a Language-based Theory of Learning. *Linguistics and Education*, 5, 2, 93-116.

Hampl, M. (2011). *Error and error correction in classroom conversation — A comparative study of CLIL and traditional EFL lessons in Austria*. Unpublished MA thesis. University of Vienna, Austria.

Harder, P. (1980). Discourse as Self-Expression: On the reduced personality of the second-language learner. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 3, 262-270.

Horrillo Godino, Z. (2011). ¿Realizan los alumnos las tareas de intercambio oral de información en el aula AICLE? [Do students carry out oral information exchange tasks in the CLIL classroom?]. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, 4, 2, 71-79.

Johnstone, B. et al. (1994). Repetition in Discourse: A Dialogue. In Johnstone, B. (Ed.), *Repetition in Discourse: Interdisciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 1-20). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Kääntä, L. (2010). *Teacher turn-allocation and repair practices in classroom interaction: a multisemiotic perspective*. Jyväskylä Studies in Humanities 137. Doctoral dissertation. University of Jyväskylä, Finland.

Kasper, G. & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Kong, S. (2009). Content-based instruction: What can we learn from content-trained teachers' and language-trained teachers' pedagogies? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 66, 233–267.

Kovacs, C. (2009). *Lexical learning in CLIL geography classrooms*.Unpublished MA thesis. University of Vienna, Austria.

Krampitz, S. (2007). Spracharbeit im bilingualen Unterricht. Ergebnisse einer Befragung von LehrerInnen und Lehrern. In D. Caspari, W. Hallet, A. Wegner & W. Zydatiß (Eds.), *Bilingualer Unterricht macht Schule: Beitrage aus der Praxisforschung* (pp. 133-146). Frankfurt am Main, Germany: Peter Lang.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. California: Laredo Publishing Co Inc.

Kupetz, M. (2011). Multimodal resources in students' explanations in CLIL interaction. *Novitas-Royal*, 5, 1, 121-142.

Lantolf, J.P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Lasagabaster, D. (2008). Foreign language competence in content and language integrated courses. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 1, 31-42.

Lasagabaster, D. (2013). The use of the L1 in CLIL classes: The teachers' perspective. *LACLIL, Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, 6, 1-21.

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2010). Immersion and CLIL in English: more differences than similarities. *ELT Journal*, 64, 376-395.

Lázaro Ibarrola, A. & García Mayo, M. P. (2012). L1 use and morphosyntactic development in the oral production of EFL learners in a CLIL context. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 50, 135-160.

Lee, J. (2006). *Corrective feedback and learner uptake in English immersion classrooms in Korea.* Unpublished MA thesis. International Graduate School of English, Seoul, Korea.

Lightbown, P. (2000). Anniversary Article: Classroom SLA research and second language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 21, 4, 431–62.

Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages Are Learned*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lim Falk, M. (2008). *Swedish in an English classroom environment. Language use in twograммar school classes*. Stockholm, Sweden: Eddy. Stockholm Studies in Scandinavian Philology, 46.

Llinares, A. (2003). Repetition and young learners´ initiations in the L2: a corpus driven analysis. In D. Archer, P. Rayson, A. Wilson & T. McEnery (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Corpus Linguistics 2003 Conference* (pp. 237-245).
Llinares, A. (2006). A pragmatic analysis of children's interlanguage in EFL preschool contexts. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 3, 2, 171-193.

Llinares, A. (2007). Young learners' functional use of the L2 in a low-immersion EFL context. *ELT Journal*, 61, 39-45.

Llinares, A. & Whittaker, R. (2009). Teaching and learning history in secondary CLIL classrooms: from speaking to writing. In E. Dafouz & M. Guerrini (Eds.), *CLIL across Educational Levels: Experiences from Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Contexts*. Richmond-Santillana.

Llinares, A. & Whittaker, R. (2010). Writing and speaking in the history class: data from CLIL and first language contexts. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use in Content-and-language Integrated learning (CLIL)*. AILA Applied linguistic series. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Llinares, A. & Morton, T. (2010) Historical explanations as situated practice in content and language integrated learning. *Classroom Discourse*, 1, 1, 46-65.

Llinares A., & Morton, T. (2012). Social perspectives on interaction and language learning in CLIL classrooms. In E. Alcón Soler & M. P. Safont-Jordà (Eds.), *Discourse and learning across L2 instructional contexts*. Amsterdam: Rodpi.

Llinares, A., Morton, T. & Whittaker, R. (2012). *The Roles of Language in CLIL.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Llinares, A. & Pastrana, A. (2013). CLIL students' pragmatic development across classroom activities and educational levels. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 59, 81-92.

Llinares, A. & Lyster, R. (2014). The influence of context on patterns of corrective feedback and learner uptake: a comparison of CLIL and immersion classrooms. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42, 2, 181-194.

Lochtman, K. (2000). *Korrekturhandlungen im Fremdsprachenunterricht*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Vrije Universiteit Brussel.

Lochtman, K. (2007). Die mundliche Fehlerkorrektur in CLIL und im traditionellen Fremdsprachenunterricht: Ein Vergleich. In C. Dalton-Puffer & U. Smit (Eds.), *Empirical perspectives on CLIL classroom discourse* (pp. 119–138). Frankfurt, Germany: Lang.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of language acquisition: Vol. 2. Second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York, NY: Academic.

Long, M. H. & Sato, C. J. (1983). Classroom foreigner talk discourse: forms and functions of teachers' questions. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom-oriented research on second language acquisition* (pp. 268-85). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Long, M. & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-63). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lose, J. (2007). The language of scientific discourse: Ergebnisse einer empirisch-deskriptiven Interaktionsanalyse zur Verwendung fachbezogener Diskursfunktionen im bilingualen Biologieunterricht. In D. Caspari, W. Hallet, A. Wegner & W. Zydatiß (Eds.), *Bilingualer Unterricht macht Schule: Beitrage aus der Praxisforschung* (pp. 97-107). Frankfurt am Main, Germany: Peter Lang.

Lyster, R. (1998). Form in immersion classroom discourse: In or out of focus? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1, 53-82.

Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, 51, 1, 265-301.

Lyster, R. (2004). Research on form-focused instruction in immersion classrooms: Implications for theory and practice. *Journal of French Language Studies*, 14, 321-341.

Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content: A counterbalanced approach*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66.

Lyster, R. & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 321-341.

Macaro, E. (2009). Teacher use of codeswitching in the second language classroom: Exploring 'optimal' use. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (pp. 35-49). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Mackey, A. (Ed.) (2007). *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Maillat, D. (2010). The pragmatics of L2 in CLIL. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms* (pp. 39–60). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Mariotti, C. (2006). Negotiated interactions and repair patterns in CLIL settings. In C. Dalton-Puffer & T. Nikula (Eds.), *Vienna English Working Papers (Views) (Special Issue: Current Research on CLIL)*, 3,15, 33-41.

Mariotti, C. (2007). *Interaction Strategies in English-Medium Instruction*. Milan: Franco Angeli.

Markee, N. 2000. *Conversation Analysis*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Erlbaum.

Marsh, D. (2002). *Content and Language Integrated Learning: The European Dimension - Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential*. Public Services Contract, European Commission.

Marsh, D. & Langé, G. (Eds.) (2000). *Using Languages to Learn and Learning to Use Languages*. Jyväskylä, Finland: UniCOM, University of Jyväskylä.

Marsh, D. (2009). Foreword. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. Jimenez Catalan (Eds.), *Content and Language Integrated Learning: Evidence from Research in Europe* (pp. vii-viii). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Marsol Jornet, A. (2008). *Language use in the interactional space: A comparison of CLIL and traditional English Language Instruction*. Unpublished MA thesis. University of Barcelona, Spain.

Marsol, Anna (2010). Language use in the interactional space: A comparison of CLIL and traditional English language teaching. In M. García et al. (Eds.), (2010). *Interacció comunicativa i ensenyament de llengües* (pp. 389-396) Publicacions de la Universitat de València.

McMillan, B. & Turnbull, M. (2009). Teachers' use of the first language in French immersion: Revisiting a core principle. In M. Turnbull & J. Dailey-O'Cain (Eds.), *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (pp. 15-34). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Mehisto, P., Marsh, D. & Frigols, M. (2008). *Uncovering CLIL: Content and language integrated learning in bilingual and multilingual education*. Oxford: Macmillan.

Méndez, M. C. & Pavón, V. (2012). Investigating the coexistence of the mother tongue and the foreign language through teacher collaboration in CLIL contexts: perceptions and practice of the teachers involved in the plurilingual programme in Andalusia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15, 5, 573-592.

Menegale, M. (2011). Teacher questionning in CLIL lessons: how to enhance teacher-students interaction. In C. Escobar, N. Evnitskaya, E. Moore & A. Patiño (Eds.), *AICLE–CLIL – EMILE: Educació plurilingüe. Experiencias, research & polítiques*. Barcelona: Servei de Publicacions Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

Mewald, C. (2004). *Paradise Lost and Found. A Case Study of Content Based Foreign Language Education in Lower Austria*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of East Anglia, Norwich.

Milla Melero, R. & García Mayo, M. P. (2014). Corrective feedback episodes in oral interaction: A comparison of a CLIL and an EFL classroom. *International Journal of English Studies*, 14, 1, 1-20.

Miralpeix, I. (2008). *The Influence of age on vocabulary acquisition in English as a foreign language.* Doctoral dissertation. Universitat de Barcelona.

Moate, J. (2010). The integrated nature of CLIL: A sociocultural perspective. *International CLIL Research Journal*, 1, 3, 38-45.

Mohan, B. & Beckett, G. H. (2003). A functional approach to research on content-based language learning: Recasts in causal explanations. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87, 3, 421-432.

Moore, P. (2010). Towards a Model of Oracy for CLIL. *Vienna English Working Papers (Views),* 13, 3, 56-64.

Moore, P. (2011). Collaborative interaction in turn-taking: a comparative study of European bilingual (CLIL) and mainstream (MS) foreign language learners in early secondary education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14, 5, 531-549.

Moore, E. & Nussbaum, L. (2011). Què aporta l'anàlisi conversacional a la comprensió de les situacions d'AICLE. In C. Escobar & L. Nussbaum (Eds.), *Aprendre en una altra llengua / Learning through another language / Aprender en otra lengua* (pp. 93-118). Barcelona: Servei de Publicacions de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.

Mori, H. (2000). Error treatment at different grade levels in Japanese immersion classroom interaction. *Studies in Language Sciences,* 1, 171-180.

Morton, T. (2010). Using a genre-based approach to integrating content and language in CLIL: the example of secondary history. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use in Content-and-language integrated learning* (CLIL). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Morton, T. (2012). Classroom talk, conceptual change and teacher reflection in bilingual science teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 1, 101-110.

Musumeci, D. (1996). Teacher-learner negotiation in content-based instruction: communication at cross-purposes? *Applied Linguistics*, 17, 286-325.

Muñoz, C. (Ed.) (2006). *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Navés, T. (2006). *The Long-term Effects of an Early Start on EFL Writing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Universitat de Barcelona, Spain.

Nikula, T. (2002). Teacher talk reflecting pragmatic awareness: A look at EFL and content-based classrooms. *Pragmatics*, 12, 4, 447-468.

Nikula, T. (2005). English as an object and tool of study in classrooms. Interactional effects and pragmatic implications. *Linguistics and Education*, 16, 1, 27-58.

Nikula, T. (2007a). The IRF pattern and space for interaction: observations on EFL and CLIL classrooms. In C. Dalton-Puffer & U. Smit (Eds.), *Empirical Perspectives on CLIL Classroom Discourse* (pp. 179-204). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Nikula, T. (2007b). Speaking English in Finnish content-based classrooms. *World Englishes,* 26, 2, 206-223.

Nikula, T. (2008). Learning pragmatics in content-based classrooms. In E. Alcón & A. Martinez-Flor (Eds.), *Investigating Pragmatics in Foreign Language Learning, Teaching, and Testing* (pp. 94-113). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Nikula, T. (2010). Effects of CLIL on a teacher's classroom language use. In C. Dalton-Puffer, U. Smit & T. Nikula (Eds.), *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms* (pp. 105-123). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Nikula, T. (2012). On the role of peer discussions in the learning of subject-specific language use in CLIL. In E. Alcón-Soler & M. P. Safont-Jordá (Eds.), *Discourse and learning across L2 instructional contexts* (pp.133–153). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Rodopi.

Nikula, T. & Marsh, D. (1997). *Good Practice in Content and Language Integrated Instruction in the Finnish Primary and Secondary Sectors*. National Board of Education, Finland.

Nikula, T., Dalton-Puffer, C. & Llinares, A. (2013). CLIL classroom discourse. Research from Europe. *International Journal of Immersion and Content Based Language Education* 1, 1, 70-100.

Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ohta, A. S. (1999). Interactional routines and the socialization of interactional style in adult learners of Japanese. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 31, 1493-1512.

Ohta, A. S. (2005). Interlanguage Pragmatics in the Zone of Proximal Development. *System*, 33, 503-517.

Panova, I. & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573-595.

Pascual Peña, I. (2010). Teachers' questions in CLIL contexts. *Vienna English Working Papers (Views)*, 19, 3, 65–71.

Pastrana, A. (2010). Language functions in CLIL classrooms: Students' oral production in different classroom activities. *Vienna English Working Papers (Views)*, 19, 3, 72-82.

Pérez-Vidal, C. (2007). The need for focus on form (FoF) in content and language integrated approaches: an exploratory study. In F. Lorenzo, S. Casal, V. de Alba & P. Moore (Eds.), *Models and Practices in CLIL. Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada (RESLA)* (pp. 39-53). Logroño: Asociación Española de Lingüística Aplicada.

Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Y. & Jiménez Catalán, R. (Eds.) (2009). *Content and Language Integrated Learning – Evidence from Research in Europe*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Salomone, A. (1992). Student-teacher interactions in selected French immersion classrooms. In E. B. Bernhardt (Ed.), *Life in language immersion classrooms* (pp. 97-109). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 11, 2, 17-46.

Schuitemaker-King, J. (2012). *Teachers' strategies in providing opportunities for second language development*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Groningen, The Netherlands.

Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University.

Serrano, R. (2007). *Time Distribution and the Acquisition of English as a Foreign Language*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Barcelona.

Serrano, R. (2011). The time factor in EFL classroom practice. *Language Learning*, 61, 117-143.

Serrano, R. and C. Muñoz. (2007). Same hours, different time distribution: Any difference in EFL? *System*, 35, 305-321.

Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975). Towards an Analysis of Discourse. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P. (1998a). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P. (1998b). Task-based Instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 268-286.

Skehan, P. (2003). Task-based instruction. *Language Teaching*, 36, 1-14.

Storch, N. & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, 14, 355-375.

Smit, U. (2010a). *English as a lingua franca in higher education. A longitudinal study of classroom discourse*. Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Smit, U. (2010b). CLIL in an English as a lingua franca (ELF) classroom: On explaining terms and expressions interactively. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms* (pp. 259–277). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in applied linguistics* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. & Carroll, S. (1987). The Immersion Observation Study. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins & M. Swain (Eds.), *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final Report. Vol II* (pp. 190-263).Toronto: Modern Language Center.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: the uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 251-274.

Sylvén, L. K. (2004). *Teaching in English or English teaching? On the effects of content and language integrated learning on Swedish learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg.

Tannen, D. (1989). *Talking Voices: Repetition, Dialogue, and Imagery in Conversational Discourse*. Cambridge/New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tapias Nadales, N. (2011). El camí de la tasca a l'activitat en un context AICLE. [From task to activity in a CLIL context]. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, 4, 2, 37–51.

Van Lier, L. (1988). *The Classroom and the Language Learner. Ethnography and Second-Language Classroom Research*. Harlow: Longman.

Vollmer, H.J. (2008). Constructing tasks for content and language integrated learning and assessment. In J. Eckerth & S. Siekmann (Eds.), *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching.Theoretical, Methodological, and Pedagogical Perspectives* (pp. 227-290). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wannagat, U. (2007). Learning through L2 – Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English as Medium of Instruction (EMI). *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10, 5, 663-682.

Whittaker, R & A. Llinares (2009.) CLIL in social science classrooms: analysis of spoken and written productions. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and Language Integrated Learning. Evidence from Research in Europe* (pp. 215-234). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Tasked-Based Learning*. London: Longman.

Young, L. (1994). University lectures - macro-structures and micro-features. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic Listening* (pp. 159-176). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zydatiß, W. (2007). Bilingualer Fachunterrichtin Deutschland: eine Bilanz. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 36, 8-25.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: COURSE TOPICS

*The units in bold type are the focal teaching units analysed in the present study.

School A		**School B**	
CLIL materials	**EFL textbook**	**CLIL materials**	**EFL textbook**
Unit 1: Drugs and the nervous system **Unit 2**: **The respiratory system. Health and care*** Unit 3: Home accidents and street accidents	Unit 1: The school website Unit 2: Healthy habits Unit 3: Friends around the world **Unit 4: Family reunion*** Unit 5: Water around the world Unit 6: Be green! Unit 7: Youth club Unit 8: World festivals	Unit 1: Seeds **Unit 2: The germination of plants*** Unit 3: Atoms	Unit 1: Sophie's joke Unit 2: Castaways **Unit 3: The legend of the poplar tree*** Unit 4: Ali's accident Unit 5: Galaxy Mission Unit 6: The Trojan Horse Unit 7: Internet investigators Unit 8: Freya Stark Unit 9: The Canterville Ghost

APPENDIX B: TEACHING PROGRAMMES

School A - CLIL teaching unit (The respiratory system. Health and care)

Aims

1. To become aware of the diseases which affect the respiratory system.
2. To develop personal commitment to avoid illnesses.

Objectives

Teaching objectives	**Learning outcomes**
Content	**Content**
- Parts of the respiratory system in English - How asthma affects or respiratory system - Common respiratory system diseases: a cold, pneumonia, etc.	With support, pupils will be able to: - Name in English the parts of the respiratory system - Name diseases of the respiratory system - Identify symptoms - Associate symptoms to illnesses - Order sentences related to the breathing process - Reach conclusions concerning allergic asthma - Identify healthy habits related to the respiratory system - Interview a student that suffers from allergic asthma
Cognition	**Cognition**
- Remember vocabulary and structures - Understand concepts and apply them - Justify decisions according to the information - Knowledge transfer	With support, pupils will be able to: - Memorise the key vocabulary and apply it in the right context - Demonstrate the understanding of the symptoms - Apply the knowledge to justify healthy habits - Reach conclusions about allergic asthma -

Communication

Key words: pneumonia, cold, asthma, bronchitis, heart attack, flu, broken leg, stomach ache, tonsillitis, breathing, lungs, trachea or windpipe, mouth, nose, bronchi, bronchiole, left lung, right lung, diaphragm, upper respiratory system, lower respiratory system, mould, pollen, dust mites, asthma flare-up, furry animals

Key phrases:
I think … affects the respiratory system.
I think … doesn't affect the respiratory system.
I don't agree. I think … affects the respiratory system because…

A cold/pneumonia/ tonsillitis/flu/asthma affects …

I think the most dangerous is … because it can cause death.

When did you have your first asthma flare-up?
I had my first asthma flare-up when I was … years old.

What causes you an asthma flare-up?

I'm sensitive to	some allergens such as	pollen mould dust mites
	furry animals such as	cats dogs rabbits hamsters, etc.
	perfume chalk dust cigarette smoke, etc.	

When I	run, play football, play tennis, walk,	I have asthma flare-ups.
If I eat	eggs peaches fish, etc.	I have asthma flare-ups.

Have the causes changed along your life?

No, I'm sensitive to the same substances.

Have the causes changed along your life?

Yes, when I was	a baby 5 years old	I was sensitive to	animals allergens food smoke, etc.	But now I am not sensitive to it anymore.
Yes, when I was	a baby 5 years old	I was sensitive to	animals allergens food smoke, etc.	But now I am sensitive to…

How often do you have an asthma flare-up?

I usually have an asthma flare-up	every day every week. every month. once in a year.
	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.

I have more flare-ups	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.	than	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.

What are the symptoms?

I can't	walk breathe sing, etc.
I feel	tired nervous, etc.

What do you have to do when you have an asthma flare-up?

I have to	go to the doctor stay at home go outdoors have a shower sit down breathe very fast drink water take my medicines relax call an ambulance, etc.

<table>
<tr><th>Target vocabulary</th><th>Target forms and structures</th></tr>
<tr>
<td>pneumonia, cold, asthma, bronchitis, heart attack, flu, broken leg, stomach ache, tonsillitis, breathing, lungs, trachea or windpipe, mouth, nose, bronchi, bronchiole, left lung, right lung, diaphragm, upper respiratory system, lower respiratory system, mould, pollen, dust mites, asthma flare-ups, furry animals</td>
<td>
- I think … affects the respiratory system.
- I think … doesn't affect the respiratory system.
- I don't agree. I think …. affects the respiratory system because …
- A cold/a pneumonia/tonsillitis/flu/ asthma affects the lower/upper respiratory system.
- I think the most dangerous is … because it can cause death.

- A) When did you have your first asthma flare-up?
B) I had my first asthma flare-up when I was … years old.

- A) What causes you an asthma flare-up?
B)
<table>
<tr><td>I’m sensitive to</td><td>some allergens such as</td><td>pollen
mould
dust mites</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>furry animals such as</td><td>cats
dogs
rabbits
hamsters, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>perfume
chalk dust
cigarette smoke</td><td></td></tr>
</table>
</td>
</tr>
</table>

When I	run, play football, play tennis, walk,	I have asthma flare-ups.
If I eat	eggs peaches fish, etc.	I have asthma flare-ups.

- A) Have the causes changed along your life?
  B)

No, I'm sensitive to the same substances.

Yes, when I was	a baby 5 years old	I was sensitive to	animals allergens food smoke, etc.	but now I am not sensitive to it anymore.
Yes, when I was	a baby 5 years old	I was sensitive to	animals allergens food smoke, etc.	But now I am sensitive to…

- A) How often do you have an asthma flare-up?

B)

I usually have an asthma flare-up	every day every week. every month. once in a year.
	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.

I have more flare-ups	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.	than	in winter. in spring. in summer. in autumn.

- A) What are the symptoms?
  B)

I can't	walk breathe sing, etc.
I feel	tired nervous, etc.

- A) What do you have to do when you have an asthma flare-up?
  B)

I have to	go to the doctor stay at home go outdoors have a shower sit down breathe very fast drink water take my medicines relax call an ambulance, etc.

School A - ELF teaching unit (Family reunion)

Concepts:

- To name the family members
- To describe the family Parts of the respiratory system in English
- To tell a story using the past (was/were)
- To talk about the past (personal experiences)
- To develop oral and reading comprehension through a story and a song.

Procedures:

- To produce vocabulary related with the unit.
- To use the grammatical structures of the unit productively.
- To analyse the contents of oral, written or visual texts.

Target vocabulary	**Target forms and structures**
aunt, uncle, mother, father, granny, pilot, police officer, journalist, shop assistant, taxi driver, football player, airport, plane, Greece, France, Australian, Canadian	- She's a taxi driver. - Where were you on Friday at eight o'clock? - Were you at the dentist's/at the cinema/at home/at the park/at the shops/at the sports centre on Saturday at half past eight? - There's an Australian family outside the airport. - He's got long brown hair - He's wearing blue jeans and a hat - Happy birthday, granny!

School B - CLIL teaching unit (The germination of plants)

Aims:

- To know how plants germinate.
- To make a hypothesis.
- To design an experiment to check if the hypothesis is correct.
- To ask themselves about plants.
- To observe systematically.

Teaching objectives	Learning outcomes
Contents	
Concepts: Conditions that seeds need to germinate. ***Procedures***: Making a hypothesis, designing an experiment to check if the hypothesis is correct. ***Attitudes***: Asking themselves about the lives of plants, observing a process systematically.	***Concepts***: Drawing and oral/written production. ***Procedures***: Drawing and oral/written production. ***Attitudes***: Giving as many answers as possible, giving results from observation.
Cognition	
- Observing, Hypothesizing, Listing	- Drawing and oral/written production.
Communication	
The activities have their own scaffolding to help the pupils to talk and write.	
Culture/Citizenship	
Curiosity about the edible beans they have at home that don't germinate.	

Target vocabulary	Target forms and structures
Air, glass, sunlight, soil, water, honey, chocolate, plant pots, kitchen paper, warm temperatures, metal and oil.	- I/We can put a seed … - I/We need … - Prepare (number) plant pots with soil and some seeds, then leave them … - Put one plant pot in a … - Don't water one pot. - The seed grew/didn't grow. - Seeds need … to germinate.

School B - EFL teaching unit (The legend of the Poplar Tree)

Concepts:

- To name the parts of a tree
- To describe the characteristics of a tree using "have got"
- To develop oral and reading comprehension through a story and a song.
- To identify the different stages in the cycle of a tree.
- To develop reading comprehension of short texts.

Procedures:

- To produce vocabulary related with the unit.
- To use the grammatical structures of the unit productively.
- To analyse the contents of oral, written or visual texts.

Target vocabulary	**Target forms and structures**
Fruit, leaves, branches, trunk, flowers, lime, oak, chestnut, poplar, spring, summer, autumn, winter, strong, angry, big, lazy, wide, young	- It's tall and it hasn't got branches - Which tree is it? - Who's the strongest giant? - Who's the tallest person in the class? - Who's got the longest hair in the class? - She is the youngest person in the class. - The seed and the roots/the plant/the flowers/the fruit grow. - The fruit falls on the ground.

APPENDIX C: OVERVIEW OF THE TEACHING UNITS

School A - CLIL teaching unit

Lesson 1

STAGES	Task/ Activity	What the teacher does	What the learners do	Interaction pattern	Material	Language skill(s)
PRE-TASK		The teacher presents the topic and elicits target words from L1 subject matter lessons related to the topic at hand.	The learners provide target words from L1 subject matter lessons related to the topic at hand.	T-Ls (whole class)	No material	Speaking
		The teacher presents the main activity that follows and checks comprehension of the target words (illnesses affecting the respiratory system).	The learners provide the meaning of the target words and ask about the meaning of the ones they do not know.	T-Ls (whole class)	Task 1	Speaking

TASK-CYCLE	**TASK**		The teacher monitors the learners' discussion on the illnesses that affect the respiratory system.	The learners discuss what are the illnesses that affect the respiratory system.	Ls (group work)	Worksheet: task 1	Speaking
	TASK		The teacher monitors the learners' discussion on the illnesses that affect the respiratory system.	The learners discuss the illnesses that affect the respiratory system.	Ls (group work)	Task 1	Speaking
	PLANNING		The teacher asks the learners to plan and report on the target illnesses that affect the respiratory system to prepare them for the whole class reporting.	The learners agree on the target illnesses affecting the respiratory system and get ready to report on them.	Ls (group work)	Task 1	Speaking
	REPORT		The teacher leads the learners' reporting on the illnesses that affect the respiratory system.	The learners report on their previous group discussion and name the illnesses that they consider affect the respiratory system. They provide both an oral report.	T-Ls (whole class)	Worksheet: task 1	Speaking

POST-TASK	The teacher elicits the parts of the upper and lower respiratory system and whether the target illnesses affect one part or the other in order to see which illness is the most dangerous.	The learners name the parts that made up the upper and the lower respiratory system and the target illnesses that affect them.	T-Ls (whole class)	Worksheet: task 1	Speaking

Lesson 2

STAGES	**Task/ Activity**	**What the teacher does**	**What the learners do**	**Interaction pattern**	**Material**	**Language skill(s)**
PRE-TASK		The teacher presents a video clip on the breathing process and how it gets affected by different illnesses. The teacher stops the video and provides explanations and formulates some questions.	The learners watch the video clip, listen to the teacher's explanations and answer the teacher's questions.	T-Ls (whole class)	Video	Listening/ Speaking

TASK-CYCLE	**TASK**	2	The teacher gives some cards to the learners with information related to "pneumonia", one of the target illnesses in the unit. She reads the information provided on the cards with the learners, checks comprehension and helps them classify the information.	The learners take turns and read the information provided on the cards. They stick the information under the corresponding answer to complete a poster on "pneumonia", one of the target illnesses in the unit.	T-Ls (whole class)	Worksheet: task 2	Reading/ Speaking
	PLANNING		---	---			
	REPORT		---	---			

Lesson 3

STAGES		Task/ Activity	What the teacher does	What the learners do	Interaction pattern	Material	Language skill(s)
PRE-TASK			The teacher shows some pictures of different sorts of substances (pollen, dust mites, animal fur, etc.) that can cause asthma flare-ups to people suffering from asthma.	The learners have a look at the pictures and follow the teacher's explanations.	T-Ls (whole class)	Extra teacher material (images)	Listening/ Speaking
TASK-C	TASK	3	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' role play.	One member of the group is a real asthma sufferer and the other members in the group play the role of doctors that want to know about the patients' experience.	Ls (group work)	Task 3	Speaking

CYCLE	**TASK**		The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work.	They carry out a role play that consists in interviewing the patient who suffers from asthma.	Ls (group work)	Task 3	Speaking
	PLANNING		The teacher walks around and asks some of the questions related to the interviewee's answer to prepare them for the whole class reporting.	The learners provide answers to the teacher questions related to the individual case of their patient	T-Ls (group work)	Task 3	Speaking
	REPORT		The teacher asks each group to report on each individual case. They all together reflect on the similarities and differences among the different cases and draw some conclusions.	One member in the group reports on the case of the person who suffers from asthma. They reflect on the similarities and differences among the different cases and draw conclusions.	T-Ls (whole class)	Task 3	Speaking

School A – EFL teaching unit

STAGES	Lesson/ Activity	What the teacher does	What the learners do	Interaction pattern	Material	Language skill(s)
PRESENTATION	1/1	The teacher brainstorms already covered vocabulary and elicits new vocabulary by asking the learners to describe a picture on a poster. The teacher asks the students to predict the topic of the unit based on the picture.	The learners describe what they can see in the picture and predict the topic of the unit.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook poster	Speaking
	1/2	The teacher formulates questions related to the learners' daily routine to get learners exposed to the language forms on focus in the unit.	The learners answer the teacher's questions by incorporating the target language forms.	T-Ls (whole class)	No material	Speaking
	1/3	The teacher draws their attention to the target language forms and asks them to complete a grid including these forms.	The learners complete a grid with the target verb forms and reflect on the form and use of such forms.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook language grid	Speaking

P R A C T I C E	2/4	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work.	One student looks at the picture and describes it using the target verb forms. The other student checks the sentence is correct from the list of possible sentences.	Ls (pair work)	Textbook picture description	Speaking
	2/5	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work.	One student goes the wall, reads the sentence on the wall, goes back to his/her seat and reproduces it to his/her partner. They take turns.	Ls (pair work)	Textbook dictation sheet	Reading / Speaking / Listening / Writing
	2/6	The teacher makes them check spelling and whether the sentences are true or false based a picture from the book.	They finally check the sentences from the wall dictation in terms of spelling and if they are true or false. They turn false sentences into true ones.	Ls (pair work)	Textbook dictation sheet	Speaking/ Writing
	2/7	The teacher plays the audio CD and monitors the learners' work.	The learners listen to the audio recording and put the pictures in the correct order.	Ls (individual work)	Textbook listening	Listening
	2/8	The teacher asks the learners to report on the correct order of the	The learners provide the correct order of the pictures.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook listening	Speaking

		pictures.				
	3/9	The teacher walks around and monitors their work.	They learners read about the family members of the characters from the textbook and complete a family tree.	Ls (individual work)	Family tree worksheet	Reading
	3/10	The teacher helps the learners' to report on the family tree.	The learners report on the family tree.	T-Ls (whole class)	Family tree worksheet	Speaking
	4/11	The teacher walks around and monitors their work.	The learners move around the classroom and ask questions to find someone who did the actions on the table.	Ls (pair work)	"Find someone who" game	Speaking
P R O D.		--				

School B – CLIL teaching unit

STAGES		Task	What the teacher does	What the learners do	Interaction pattern	Material	Language skill(s)
PRE-TASK		1	The teacher presents the topic and elicits the elements a seed needs to germinate and introduces new subject-specific terms while checking comprehension.	The learners provide the target words from by looking at the pictures on the blackboard.	T-Ls (whole class)	Pictures of elements on the blackboard	Speaking
			The teacher asks the students to work out a hypothesis about the conditions that are necessary for a seed to germinate.	The learners first discuss the necessary elements with a partner and then share them in order to work out a hypothesis.	Ls (pair work) / T-Ls (whole class)	Language support provided on the blackboard	Speaking / Writing
TASK-C	TASK		The teacher takes the lead in preparing the experiment in front of the classroom.	The learners assist the teacher in preparing all the materials.	T-Ls (whole-class)	Materials to conduct the experiment (seeds, plant pots, etc.)	Speaking

CYCLE	**TASK**		The teacher takes the lead in preparing the experiment. They prepare plant pots with seeds and expose them to different conditions.	The learners help the teacher to prepare the experiment. They prepare plant pots with seeds and expose them to different conditions.	T-Ls (whole class)	Written language support worksheet	Speaking
	PLANNING		The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. The teacher asks them questions at the same time.	The learners draw a picture of what they are doing to check the initial hypothesis.	T-Ls (whole class)	Written language support worksheet	Drawing/ Speaking
			The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. The teacher asks them questions at the same time.	The learners draw and label all the material they have used for the experiment.	T-Ls (whole class)	Pictures of elements on the blackboard	Drawing/ Speaking
			The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. The teacher asks them questions at the same time.	The learners list the steps follow to conduct the experiment.	T-Ls (whole class)	Written language support worksheet	Writing/ Speaking
	REPO		The teacher monitors the learners' oral reporting of the whole process and the results obtained.	The learners report on the process and the results obtained in order to reach a conclusion as for the	T-Ls (whole class)	Written language support worksheet	Speaking

	R T			elements/conditions that are necessary for a seed to germinate.			

School B – EFL teaching unit

STAGES	**Lesson/ Activity**	**What the teacher does**	**What the learners do**	**Interaction pattern**	**Material**	**Language skill(s)**
PRESENTATION	1/1	The teacher initiates a brainstorming of already covered vocabulary and presents new target vocabulary.	The learners provide the name of target vocabulary	T-Ls (whole class)	Picture of a tree from the textbook	Speaking

PRACTICE	1/2	The teacher plays the CD tape and monitors the learners' work.	The learners listen to descriptions of trees and identify the tree that is being referred to.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook	Speaking
	1/3	The teacher walks around and monitors their work.	One member of the pair describes one tree and the other guesses what tree it is.	Ls (pair work)	Textbook	Speaking
PRESENTATION	2/4	The teacher tells the story "The Legend of the Poplar tree".	The learners listen to story "The legend of the poplar tree" told by the teacher.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook	Listening
	2/5	The teacher plays the CD to listen to a song related to the previous story. She helps them reproduce the song.	They learners listen to a song related to the previous story. They read and sing it out loud later on.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook	Listening / Reading

	2/6	The teacher draws the learners' attention to the language forms (comparative and superlative forms of adjectives) from the story and the song. She makes them reflect on the form and function of these language forms and complete a grid.	The learners reflect on the form and function of the target language forms and complete a grid.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook	Speaking
PRACTICE	3/7	The teacher formulates a number of questions containing the target language forms.	The learners provide an answer to the teacher's questions.	T-Ls (whole class)	No material	Speaking
	3/8	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. She collects these exercises at the end to correct them at home.	The learners label the parts of a tree.	Ls (individual seatwork)	Tetxbook	Writing
	3/9	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. She collects these exercises at the end to correct them at home.	The learners match descriptions of trees with pictures.	Ls (individual seatwork)	Textbook	Writing

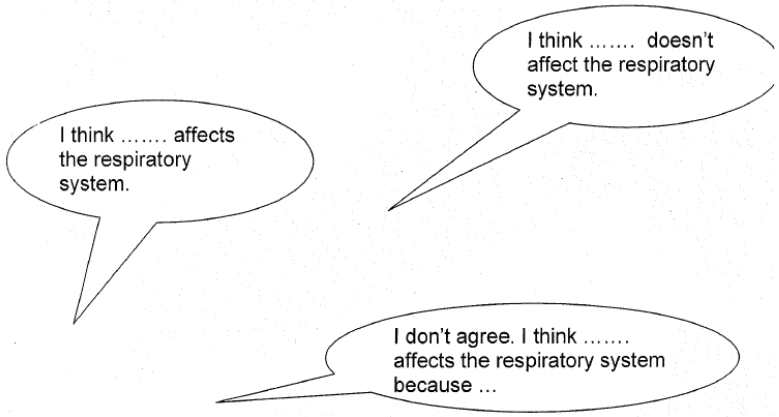
	3/10	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. She collects these exercises at the end to correct them at home.	The learners put sentences in order according to the cycle of a tree.	Ls (individual seatwork)	Tetxbook	Writing
	3/11	The teacher walks around and monitors the learners' work. She collects these exercises at the end to correct them at home.	The learners complete the blanks with expressions of time in relation to the story they previously covered in the unit.	Ls (individual seatwork)	Tetxbook	Writing
	4/12	The teacher monitors the learners' work.	The learners take turns to read a text and to answer the comprehension questions.	T-Ls (whole class)	Textbook	Speaking
P R O D.		--				

APPENDIX D: TEACHING MATERIALS

School A: CLIL teaching unit

Task 1: Illnesses affecting the respiratory system

Asthma	Broken leg	A cold	A pneumonia
Flu	Stomach-ache	Tonsillitis	A heart-attack



Present your conclusions to your classmates.

WE THINK THAT :

-
-
-
-

AFFECT THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM.

Important information:

....., ..., ..., and ....., are illnesses that affect the respiratory system.

A cold affects .....

A Pneumonia affects .....

Flu affects .....

Asthma affects.....

Which one is the most dangerous?

I think the most dangerous is ..... because it can cause death.

Task 2: Creating a poster about "pneumonia"

The information in bold is presented in different pieces of paper as well as the questions or headings:

What is it?

- *It is an infection of one or both lungs*

What are the causes?

- *A cold or flu can turn into pneumonia*

What are the symptoms?

- *You can't breathe*
- *You have chills and a high temperature.*

Which parts of the respiratory system are affected?

- *Pneumonia creates a fluid that it blocks the alveoli and makes difficult the oxygen to get into the lungs*

What can you do to feel better?

- *I go to the doctor.*
- *The doctor orders a chest X-ray. The area is cloudy and with a white area.*
- *Rest will help your immune system.*

Task 3: Doctor-patient role-play

1. What is your name?

2. How old are you?

3. When did you have your first asthma flare-up?

4. What causes you an asthma flare-up?

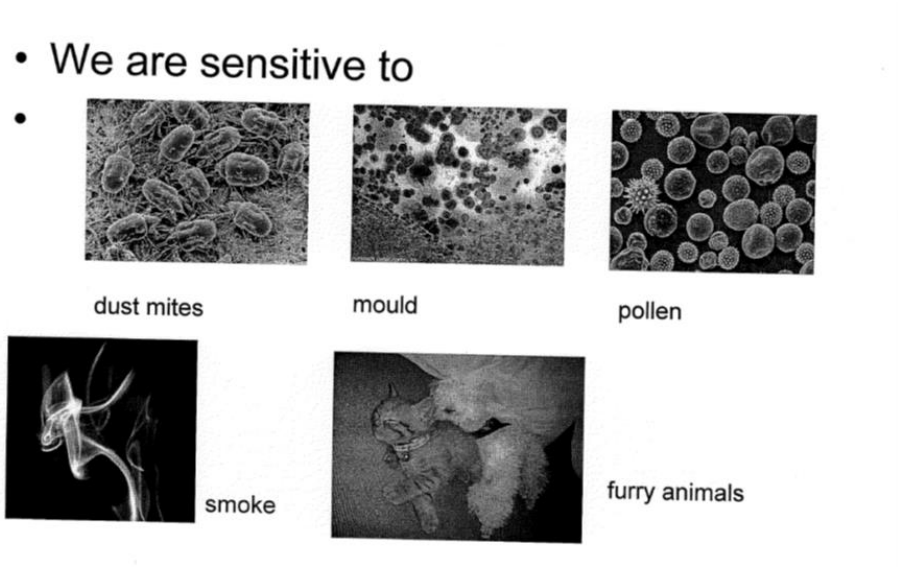
5. Have the causes changed along your life?

6. How often do you have an asthma flare-up?

7. What are the symptoms?

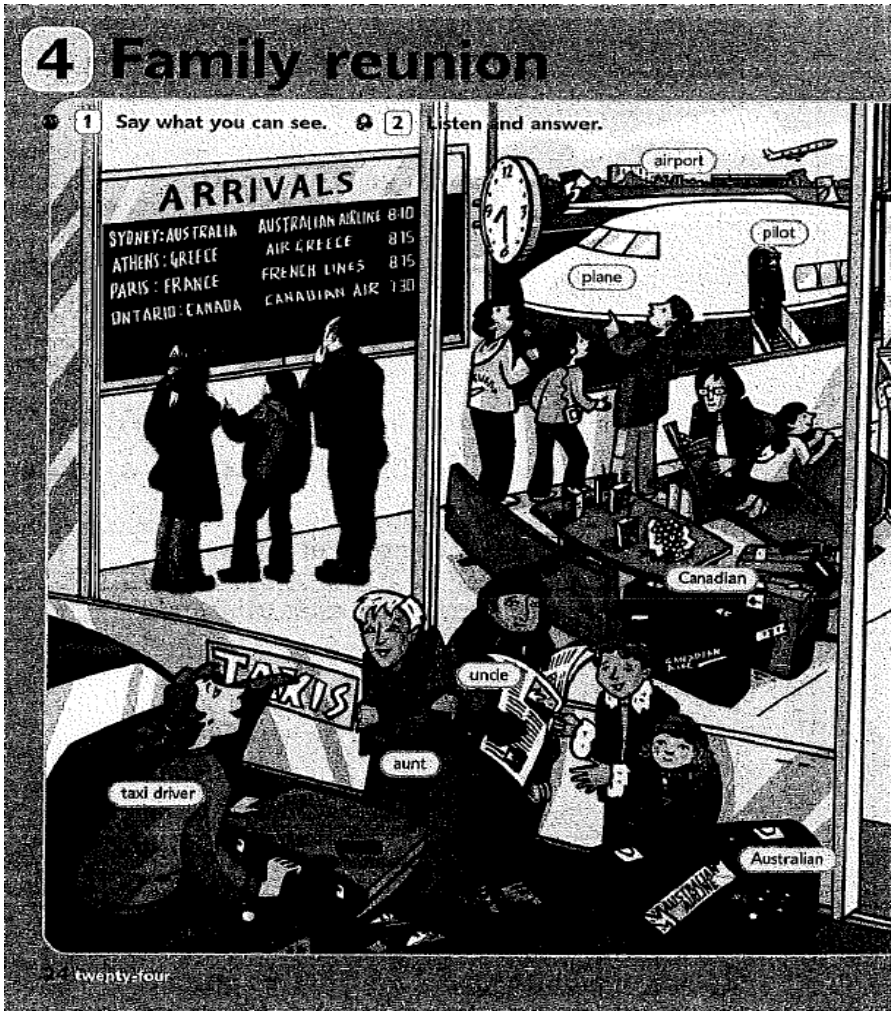
8. What do you have to do when you have an asthma flare-up?

Extra teaching materials



School B: EFL teaching unit

Activity 1



Activity 4

UNIT 4. FAMILY REUNION.

1. Look at page 24 and tell your mate 8 true sentences. Then copy them .

The police officer	isn't	
The photographer	is	
Howard	wasn't	on the plane at eight o'clock .
The shop assistant	was	
The taxi driver	weren't	
Aunt and uncle	were	at the airport at half past eight.
The pilot	aren't	
Lisa's cousins	are	
Lisa's Granny		

PAST (EIGHT O'CLOCK).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

PRESENT (HALF PAST EIGHT)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

The police officer **wasn't** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
The police officer **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
The photographer **wasn't** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
The photographer **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
Howard **was** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
Howard **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
The shop assistant **wasn't** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
The shop assistant **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
The taxi driver **wasn't** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
The taxi driver **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
Aunt and uncle **were** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
Aunt and uncle **are** at the airport at half past eight.	
The pilot **was** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
The pilot **is** at the airport at half past eight.	
Lisa's cousins **were** on the plane at eight o'clock .	
Lisa's cousins **are** at the airport at half past eight.	
Lisa's Granny **wasn't** on the plane at eight o'clock.	
Lisa's Granny **isn't** at the airport at half past eight.	

Activity 5

WALL DICTATION.

1. It's eight o'clock in the morning.
2. There is an Australian family outside the airport.
3. They're Lisa's uncle and aunt, and her two cousins.
4. Aunt Sally's talking to a policeman.
5. She's very cold and is wearing a hat.
6. Uncle Mike is reading a book.
7. There are many people in the airport.
8. Howard is there. He's playing football.

Activity 6

UNIT 4. FAMILY REUNION.

How do you spell .....?

Can you repeat, please?

WALL DICTATION.

1. It's ..... o'clock in the ..... .
2. There is an Australian ..... outside the ..... .
3. They're Lisa's ..... and aunt, and her ..... cousins.
4. Aunt Sally's ..... to a ..... .
5. She's very ..... and is ..... a ..... .
6. Uncle Mike is ..... a ..... .
7. There are many ..... in the ..... .
8. Howard is ..... . He's ....

Listen to the CD and check .

I think sentence .... is false because ....

Open your books and decide if the sentences are true or false.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Change the false sentences into true sentences.

.....

.....

.....

.....

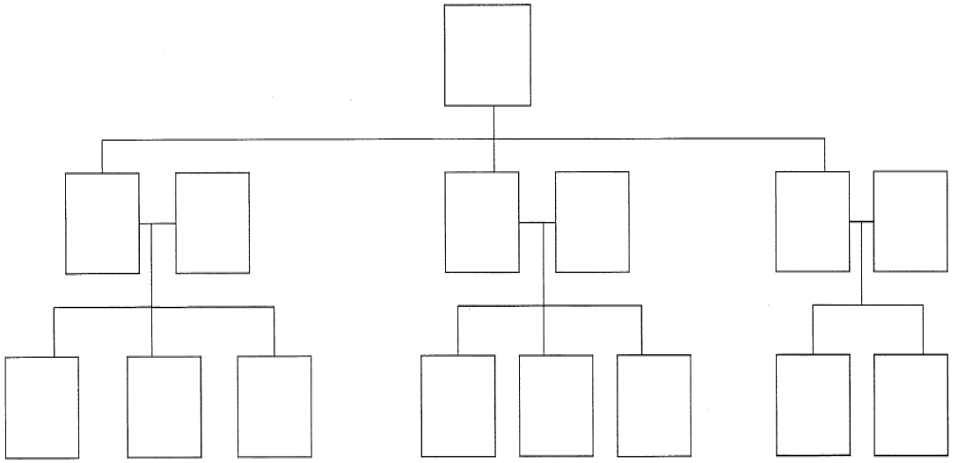
.....

.....

Activity 8, Activity 9

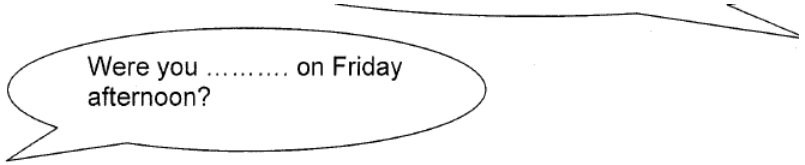
UNIT 4. FAMILY REUNION.

FAMILY TREE.



Lisa's Granny has two daughters: Sally and Sarah and one son Tony. Sara's Lisa's mother. Sally is married to Mike, they have two sons Ben and Sam, and one daughter Jennie. They live in Australia. Tony is married to Anna and they live in Canada with their son Joe and their daughter Katie, their daughter Isabel is 23 and lives in the USA, in Chicago.

Activity 11



Find somebody who was

	on Friday afternoon.	on Saturday.
at the dentist's		
at the cinema		
at the shops		
at the sports centre		
at home		
at the language school		
at the park		

School B: CLIL teaching unit

Main task

Name: *Date:*

PLANTS

GERMINATION

Activity 1

Let's investigate germination.

A) What do you think a seed needs to germinate? Draw it.

I think a seeds needs _____

_____ to germinate.

B) What can we do to find out what a seed needs to germinate?

Diagram

Name: *Date:*

C) What do we need to find out what a seed needs to germinate?

D) Instructions:

	Draw	Write
1.		
2.		

Name: *Date:*

E) What happened? Draw the different seeds and cross out (×) the ones that didn't grow.

F) CONCLUSION:

_____

_____

Activity 1

B) - *I/We* can put a seed ……..

C) - *I/We* need ……..

D) - Prepare *(number)* plant pots with soil and some seeds, then leave them ……..

- Put one plant pot in a ……..
- Don't water one pot.

E) - The seed *grew/didn't grow.*

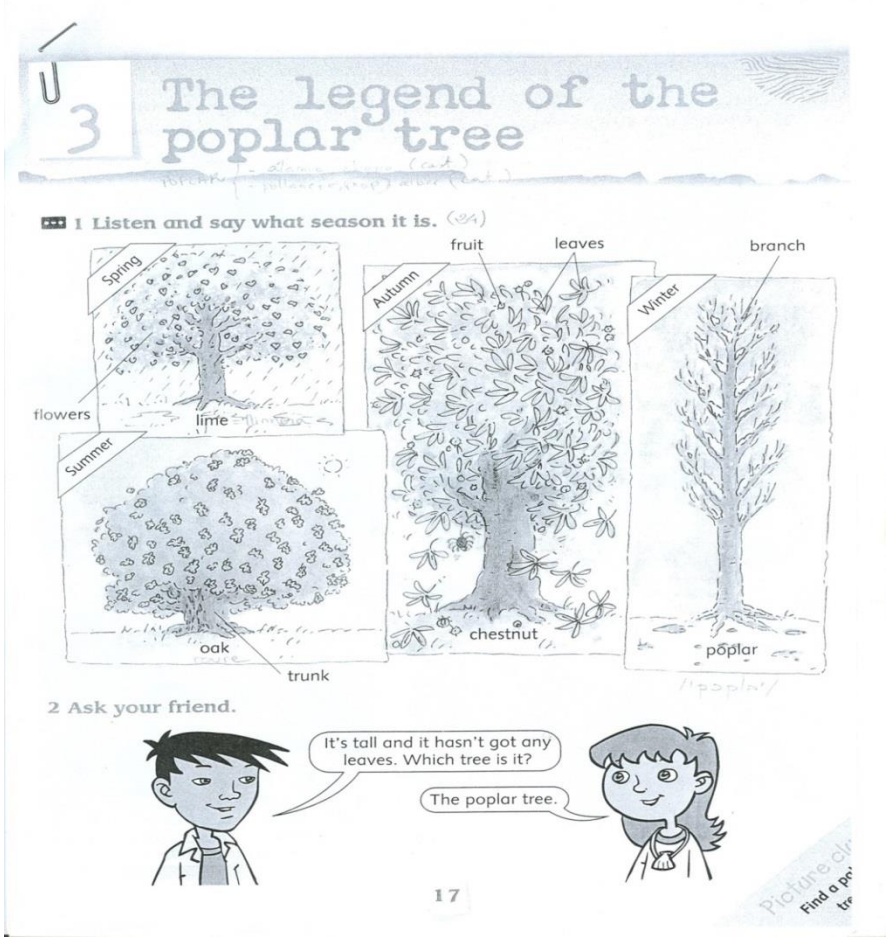
F) - Seeds need …….. to germinate.

Extra teaching material

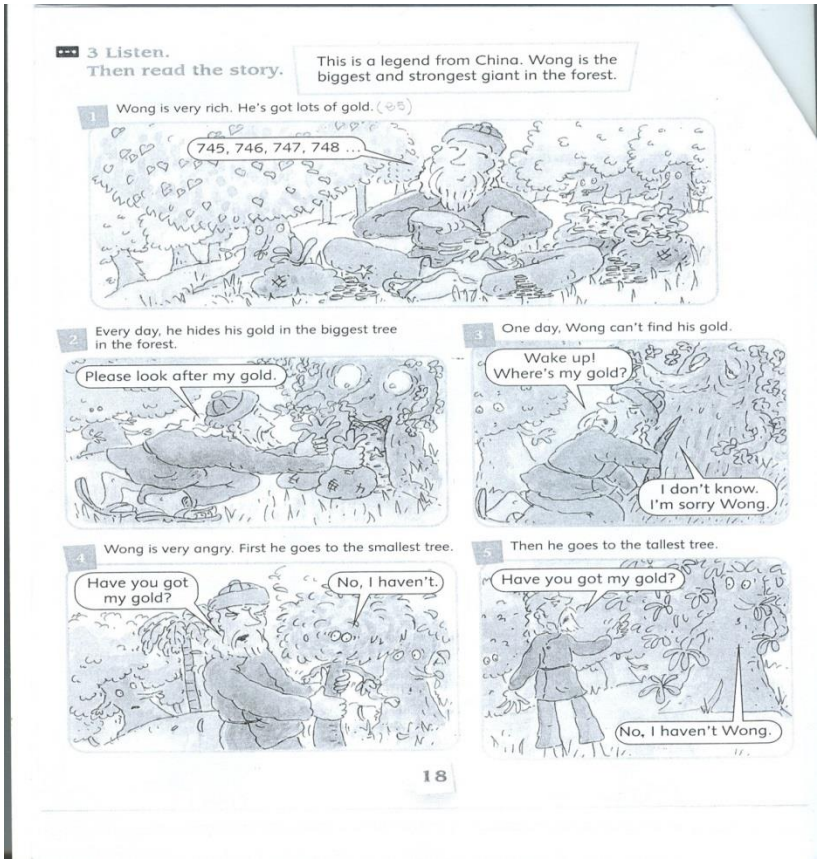
I/We think a seed needs/doesn't need **air** to germinate.

School B: EFL teaching unit

Activity 2, Activity 3

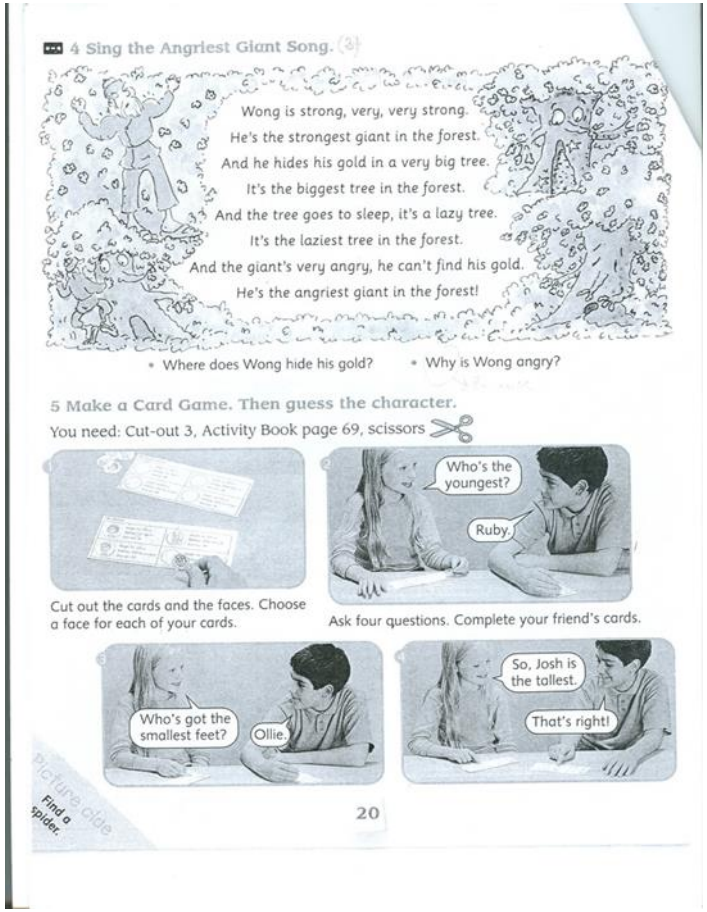


Activity 4

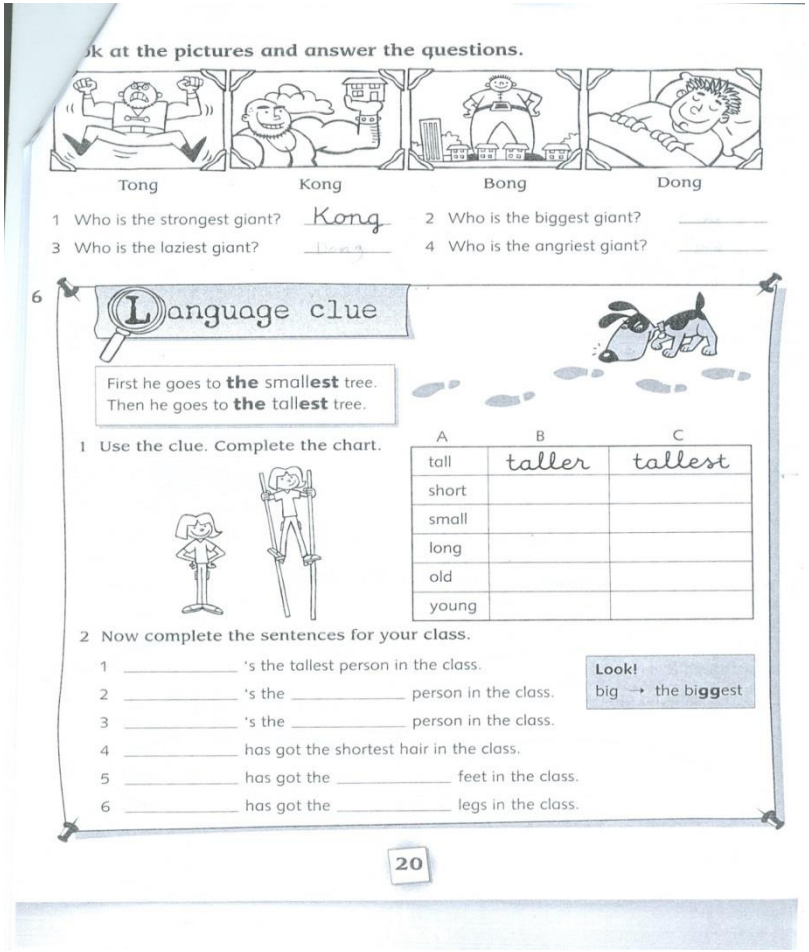


Activity 4 (cont.)

Activity 5



Activity 6



k at the pictures and answer the questions.

Tong Kong Bong Dong

1 Who is the strongest giant? Kong
2 Who is the biggest giant? _____
3 Who is the laziest giant? Kong
4 Who is the angriest giant? _____

6 Language clue

First he goes to **the** small**est** tree.
Then he goes to **the** tall**est** tree.

1 Use the clue. Complete the chart.

A	B	C
tall	taller	tallest
short		
small		
long		
old		
young		

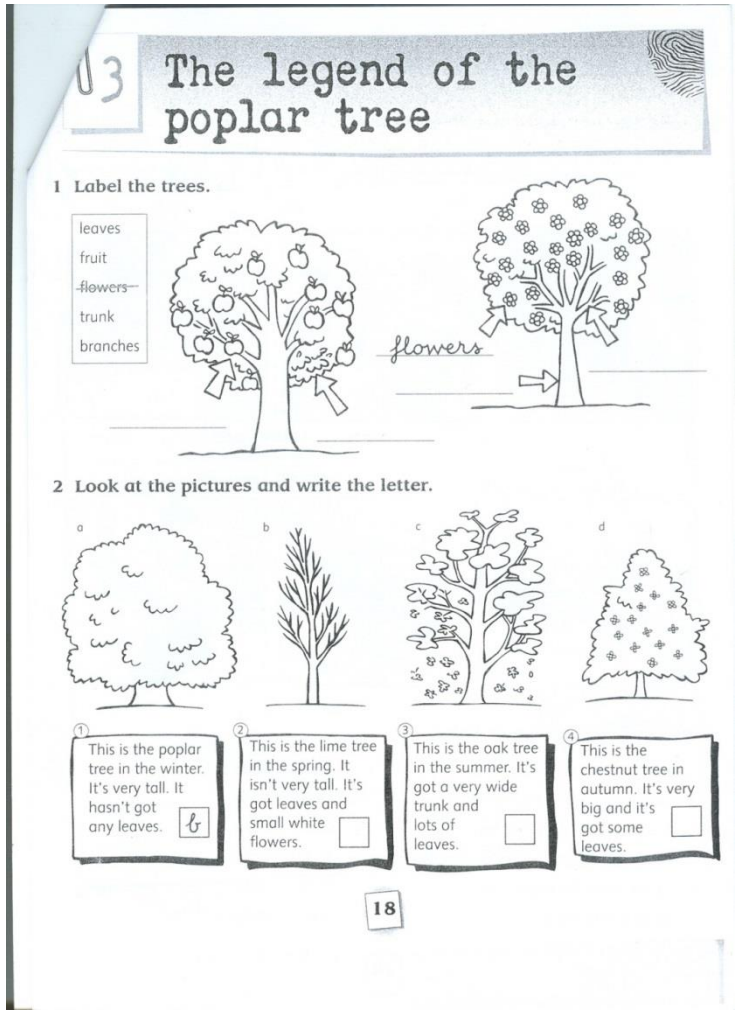
2 Now complete the sentences for your class.

1 _____ 's the tallest person in the class.
2 _____ 's the _____ person in the class.
3 _____ 's the _____ person in the class.
4 _____ has got the shortest hair in the class.
5 _____ has got the _____ feet in the class.
6 _____ has got the _____ legs in the class.

Look!
big → the big**g**est

20

Activity 8, Activity 9



U3 The legend of the poplar tree

1 Label the trees.

leaves
fruit
~~flowers~~
trunk
branches

flowers

2 Look at the pictures and write the letter.

a b c d

1 This is the poplar tree in the winter. It's very tall. It hasn't got any leaves. b

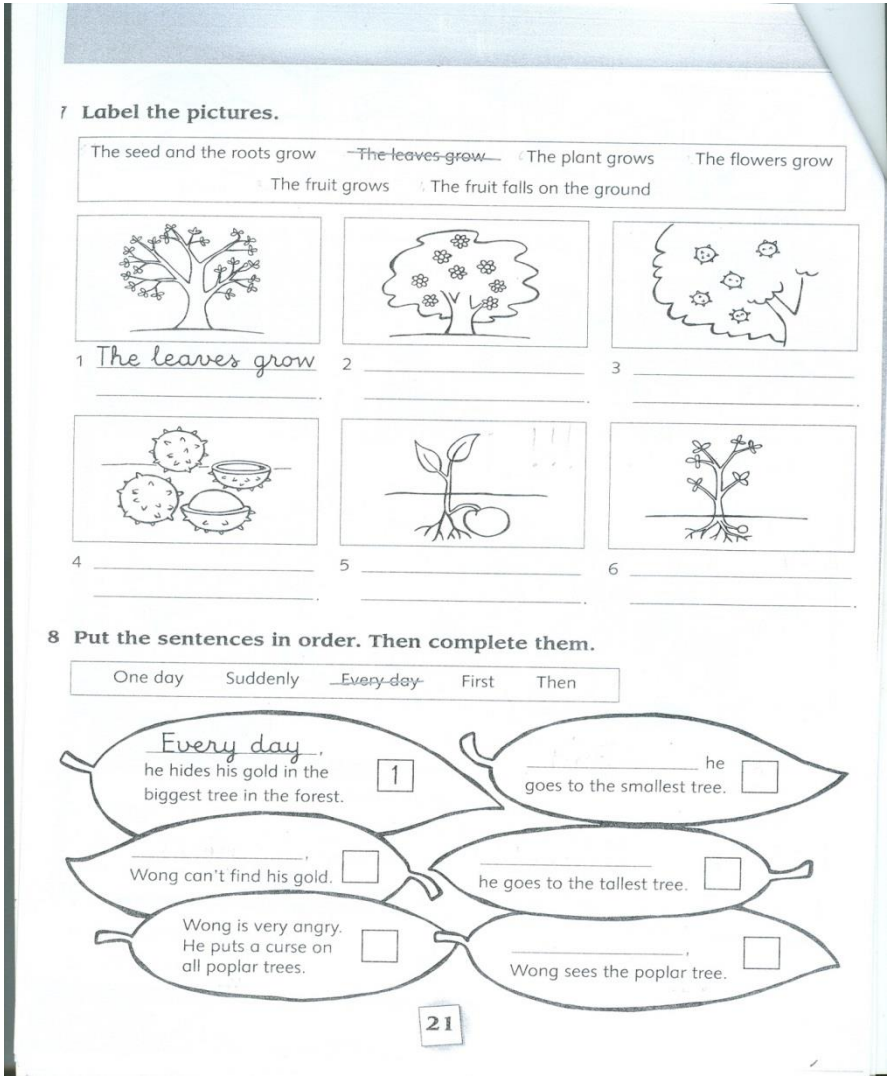
2 This is the lime tree in the spring. It isn't very tall. It's got leaves and small white flowers. ☐

3 This is the oak tree in the summer. It's got a very wide trunk and lots of leaves. ☐

4 This is the chestnut tree in autumn. It's very big and it's got some leaves. ☐

18

Activity 10, Activity 11



7 **Label the pictures.**

The seed and the roots grow ~~The leaves grow~~ The plant grows The flowers grow
The fruit grows The fruit falls on the ground

1 The leaves grow 2 _____ 3 _____

4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____

8 **Put the sentences in order. Then complete them.**

One day Suddenly ~~Every day~~ First Then

Every day, he hides his gold in the biggest tree in the forest. 1

_____ he goes to the smallest tree.

_____, Wong can't find his gold.

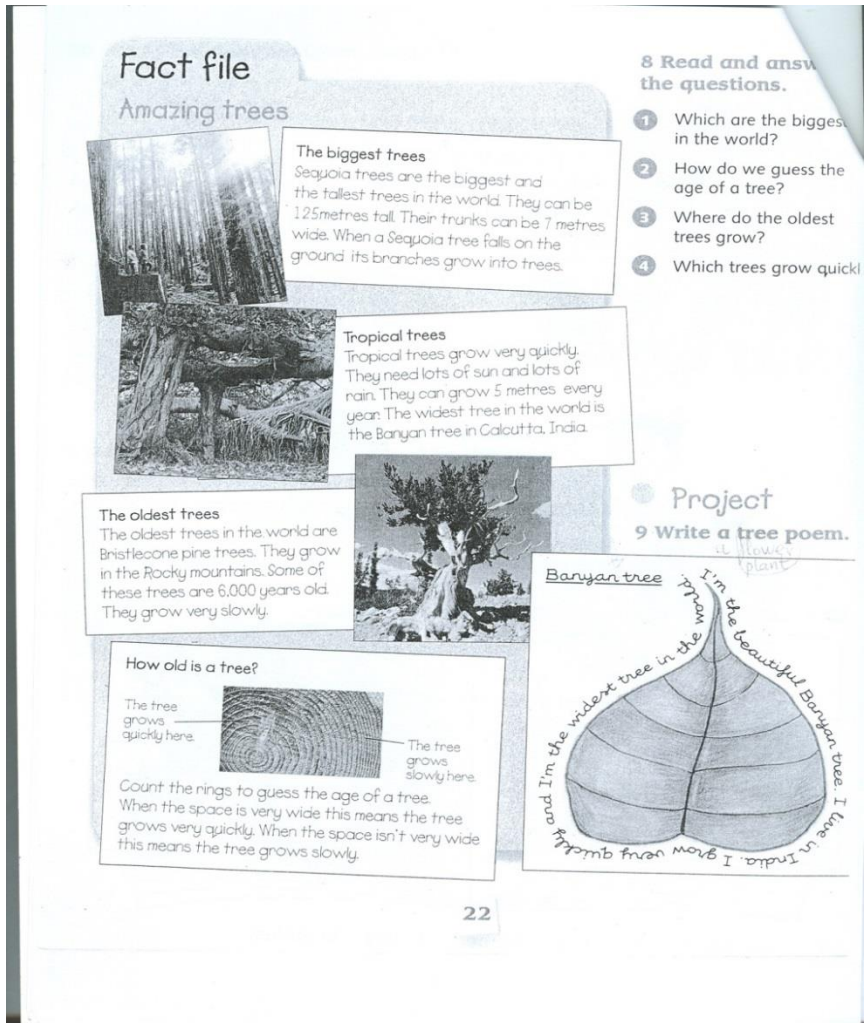
_____ he goes to the tallest tree.

Wong is very angry. He puts a curse on all poplar trees.

_____, Wong sees the poplar tree.

21

Activity 12



Fact file

Amazing trees

The biggest trees
Sequoia trees are the biggest and the tallest trees in the world. They can be 125metres tall. Their trunks can be 7 metres wide. When a Sequoia tree falls on the ground its branches grow into trees.

Tropical trees
Tropical trees grow very quickly. They need lots of sun and lots of rain. They can grow 5 metres every year. The widest tree in the world is the Banyan tree in Calcutta, India.

The oldest trees
The oldest trees in the world are Bristlecone pine trees. They grow in the Rocky mountains. Some of these trees are 6,000 years old. They grow very slowly.

How old is a tree?

Count the rings to guess the age of a tree. When the space is very wide this means the tree grows very quickly. When the space isn't very wide this means the tree grows slowly.

8 Read and answ the questions.

1. Which are the bigges in the world?
2. How do we guess the age of a tree?
3. Where do the oldest trees grow?
4. Which trees grow quickl

Project

9 Write a tree poem.

Banyan tree

I'm the beautiful Banyan tree I live in India. I grow very quickly and I'm the widest tree in the world.

22

APPENDIX E: LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITAT DE BARCELONA

Facultat de Filologia
Dept. Filologia Anglesa i Alemanya

Gran Via de les Corts Catalanes, 585
08007 Barcelona

Dades personals

1. Nom i cognoms:
2. Edat:
3. Curs:
4. Llengües que parles normalment:

   - amb els teus pares: …….
   - amb els amics a l'escola: ……...
   - amb els amics fora de l'escola: ……..

5. a) Estudis de la mare:
   □ Escola Primària
   □ Institut de Secundària / Mòduls professionals
   □ Universitat

   b) Estudis del pare:
   □ Escola Primària
   □ Institut de Secundària / Mòduls professionals
   □ Universitat

Qüestions diverses sobre l'aprenentatge de l'anglès

6. A quin curs vas començar a estudiar anglès a l'escola? .....
   I altres continguts (ciències socials, matemàtiques, etc.) en anglès? .....
   .....

7. Fas anglès extraescolar (fora de l'escola) en una escola d'idiomes o amb un/a professor/a particular?

   □ Sí □ No

   Si has contestat que **Sí**, especifica:
   Quants anys fa que hi vas? …….....

8. Has realitzat mai una estada de colònies a un país de parla anglesa?

   □ Sí □ No

   Si has contestat que **Sí**, especifica:
   Edat: ..... Durada: .....

Qüestions diverses sobre l'aprenentatge a l'aula

9. Què prefereixes les classes d'anglès o les classes de "Science"?
□ Anglès □ Science □ Les dues

10. T'agradaria continuar fent "Science" el curs que ve"?

□ Sí □ No □ M'és indiferent

11. Què és el que més t'agrada de les classes de "Science"?
(especifica almenys DUES coses)
.....
.....
.....
.....

I el que menys? (especifica almenys DUES coses) .....
.....
.....
.....

12. Què és el que més t'agrada de les classes d'anglès?
(especifica almenys DUES coses)
.....
.....
.....

I el que menys? (especifica almenys DUES coses)
.....
.....
.....
.....

Altres comentaris: (aquí tens espai per escriure qualsevol cosa que tu consideris que és necessari destacar)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Gràcies per la teva atenció i col·laboració!

APPENDIX F: TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

T	teacher
L	one unidentified learner contributes to classroom interaction
Ls	more than one unidentified learner contributes to classroom interaction
J	one identified learner contributes to interaction; the letter stands for the learner's fictional name (J for John, S for Sara, etc.)
xx	unintelligible speech
[?]	best approximation to incomprehensible speech
&	incomplete word
*asterisk	non-target-like production
(no response)	silence
…	pause of more than 3 seconds or unfinished turn
(text)	extra information including contextual information and paralinguistic information (body language, gestures, facial expressions, tone and pitch of voice)
<u>underlined</u>	produced with emphasis
(=)	English translation of the preceding L1 word or structure
bold + *italics*	language production under analysis

(Adapted from Allwright & Bailey, 1991)