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AN INTRODUCTORY GUIDE TO CLIL

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ABSTRACT

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) started at the end of the twentieth century and has gradually become the main European approach to bilingual teaching. However, CLIL has proved to be highly challenging for teachers, who need to master their subject content, the target language, and also be well-versed in CLIL methodologies. The aim of this dissertation is to construct an Introductory Guide to CLIL for teachers who are novices in this field. In order to do so, it is vital to first identify the competences that a CLIL teacher needs to display, indicate the challenges that CLIL teachers face, and determine their main training needs. Together, these make it possible to design a practical proposal that can hopefully help teachers navigate the uncharted waters of CLIL implementation and fill the current training niches.

Key words:

CLIL, guide, training needs, student-centered methodologies, cooperative learning

RESUMEN

El Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) comenzó su andadura a finales del siglo XX y se ha convertido gradualmente en el principal enfoque europeo de enseñanza bilingüe. A pesar de esto, el AICLE ha demostrado ser muy exigente para con el profesorado, que no solo debe dominar los contenidos de su asignatura y la lengua extranjera, sino también disponer de conocimientos sobre metodologías AICLE. El objetivo de este trabajo es la elaboración de una Guía Introductoria al AICLE para profesores que se aproximan por primera vez a este campo. Para poder conseguirlo, es fundamental identificar primero las competencias que se esperan de un docente de AICLE, así como los desafíos a los que se enfrentan dichos docentes y sus principales necesidades formativas. Solo de este modo será posible elaborar una propuesta que realmente contribuya a solventar las carencias actuales en materia de formación.

Palabras clave:

AICLE, guía, necesidades formativas, metodologías centradas en el estudiante, aprendizaje cooperativo

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1 . INTRODUCTION

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) emerged in the last decade of the twentieth century, gradually becoming the main European approach to bilingual education and generating great excitement among subject teachers with a certain command of a second language. However, the CLIL route poses high demands on educators, who do not only need to display an adequate knowledge of their content subject and be proficient in the target language, but also need to exhibit mastery of CLIL methodology (Pavón & Ellison, 2013). Based on this premise, the aim of this dissertation is to elaborate an Introductory Guide to CLIL for those teachers who are starting out in CLIL or considering doing so. In order to attain this overarching objective, we first need to characterize the CLIL teacher profile, drawing on teacher competences, challenges and training needs so that we can design a guide which addresses the previously identified needs.

Regarding its structure, this dissertation is divided into two main sections. In the first section, a theoretical overview will be provided, starting with a definition of CLIL and an account of its characteristics concerning language and learning theories, roles, methodology, and materials. Afterwards, the main benefits and shortcomings of CLIL will be presented. Finally, the last part of this section focuses on the CLIL teacher, in an attempt to elaborate an outline of the competences that CLIL teachers should display and identify the main challenges and training needs that need to be addressed. This section ends by concluding on the specific deficiencies that have been identified and that will inform the elaboration of the Guide, thus connecting this theoretical section with the following practical one.

In turn, the second main section of this dissertation is the Guide itself. The Guide starts with an introduction for the teacher, establishing its purpose and the audience for which it is intended. Afterwards, an explanation of the principles behind CLIL is provided, connecting each theoretical underpinning to how it applies in teaching practice. The next subsection is focused on presenting the main student-centered methodologies, including not only information about the different techniques, but also practical tips for classroom implementation. The guide finishes with a brief section on assessment, and includes extra information in the appendices: Appendix 1 provides a thorough explanation of a number of

cooperative techniques, together with some practical tips for their implementation; Appendix 2 includes an account of ICT resources that can be useful for CLIL teaching; and Appendix 3 offers a glossary of updated classroom language.

Approaching CLIL for the first time is not an easy endeavor. We sincerely hope that this dissertation can contribute to fill the training niches that have been identified in the theoretical section, and that the Introductory Guide can be of use for novice CLIL teachers, accompanying them as they progress on the challenging path to teaching content through an additional language.

2 . THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

2.1. Defining CLIL

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is an approach created and established during the 1990s by UNICOM, the University of Jyväskylä (Finland), and the European Platform for Dutch Education (Marsh, 2006). Its origins can be found in the 1950s, in Canadian and North American immersion and bilingual programs (Pérez Cañado, 2012). CLIL could be described as the European course of action towards bilingualism. It has been embraced as a possible solution to our continent's foreign language paucity (Pérez Cañado, 2016a) and as a catalyst for advancement in language acquisition (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015).

There are numerous definitions of CLIL by different scholars, although Marsh and Langé's is one of the most widely-known ones, describing CLIL as “a dual-focussed education approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Marsh & Langé, 2000, p. 2). According to this definition, CLIL has two clear objectives: the subject content and the additional language, which is usually a foreign language. This integration of the foreign language into the curriculum exposes pupils to the language more without requiring additional time, which can be interpreted as “killing two birds with one stone” (Ball, 2006, “Five definitions of CLIL” section).

Another key aspect that differentiates CLIL from other bilingual programs is that in CLIL the learners are not presumed to have a proficient command of the language necessary to approach the content before joining the program. On the contrary, as a teaching method, CLIL uses the medium of a language in order to teach curricular topics while also providing required linguistic assistance (Graddol, 2006). Consequently, this approach requires a methodological change, adopting student-centered techniques in order to target cognitive development, and an adaptation of teaching materials (Ball, 2006).

However, what really makes CLIL stand out among other bilingual models is what is usually referred to as the 4C's Framework, which represents CLIL's "planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice" (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 6). The different components of the 4C's Framework are described below:

- 1) Content: This refers to the specific content of the discipline taught in the additional language. This content should be the core that guides lesson planning, that is to say, teachers should develop their lessons having content as a priority, taking into account the learners' prior knowledge to help them not only acquire new knowledge, but also create their own (Coyle et al., 2010).
- 2) Communication: This relates to the utilization of the target language for learning purposes, in meaningful situations. Coyle et al. (2010) classify the language used in a CLIL classroom into language of learning (related to the content), language for learning (related to communication), and language through learning (language accidentally needed during the learning process). These three types of languages are interdependent.
- 3) Culture: This refers to the cultural elements involved in the study of a foreign language, which must be promoted in order to develop multicultural citizenship and global understanding (European Commission, 2008).
- 4) Cognition: This refers to the development of cognitive skills, which, according to Bentley (2010), can be defined as the cognitive processes that occur in our brain while thinking and learning. CLIL learners improve cognitively and their minds work more, since

understanding a subject in another language requires more effort than understanding it in one's mother tongue (Dale & Tanner, 2012). The CLIL approach tries to promote critical thinking and complex and analytical questioning, in order to develop what Bloom called Higher Order Thinking Skills (1956); that is to say, the ability to analyze, evaluate and create (Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001).

After having tried to provide an accurate definition of CLIL, we cannot conclude this section without pointing out that CLIL does not constitute a uniform educational approach. On the contrary, CLIL is widely regarded as a versatile operational framework for language learning, with a wide range of prototype models and application possibilities accessible for various situations and pedagogical demands (Dueñas, 2004). For this reason, some authors, like Bentley (2010) and Ball (2009), make a distinction between hard (or strong) CLIL, and soft (or weak) CLIL. Following Ikeda (2013), hard CLIL is the model in which non-native content instructors teach academic disciplines like Geography or Science, whereas “soft” or “weak” CLIL has a greater focus on language learning, and is carried out by native or non-native language instructors. Between these two concepts, we can find a range of models, depicted in the language and content integration continuum developed by Met (1999), which can be found in Figure 1:

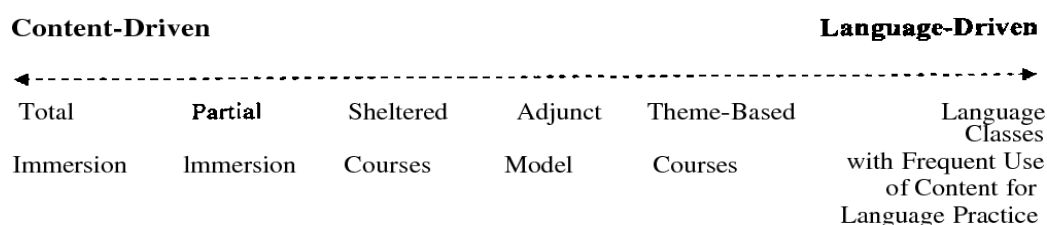


Figure 1. A Continuum of Language and Content Integration (Met, 1999)

This diversity allows for great flexibility and adaptation to a wide array of parameters that have been described by different authors as “operating factors” (Coyle et al., 2010), or “environmental parameters” (Wolff, 2005), among others. Flexibility is, indeed, one of the strengths of CLIL.

2.2. Characteristics of CLIL

In spite of the flexibility that CLIL allows for and the resulting diversity in CLIL versions, we can identify distinguishing characteristics that make it a distinct route to language learning (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012). These features, which are shared by all CLIL programs, can be analyzed in terms of the aspects that are detailed below.

2.2.1. Language theory

In CLIL, language is no longer regarded as a system of rules, but as a tool for meaning: it is the instrument that students use to manipulate content. Language is utilized to teach the subject content and to communicate in the classroom, so linguistic exposure is inevitably increased. Therefore, the main focus is on meaning, while language acquisition takes place as a side effect of that focus (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012). As a result, language learning is less explicit or, as Marsh describes it, like “learning out of the corner of one’s eye” (2002, p. 72). Fluency is prioritized over accuracy, and so is grammar over vocabulary. Nevertheless, language form is not neglected, since CLIL still requires formal language training, but synchronously with content instruction using the additional language (Coyle et al., 2010). All in all, CLIL occurs alongside, not in place of, foreign language instruction (Dalton-Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo & Nikula, 2014).

Since CLIL allows students to progress in their academic and cognitive development, and in their linguistic proficiency all at once, CLIL students simultaneously learn what Cummins (1999) coined as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (henceforth, BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (henceforth, CALP). BICS comprises the language used for everyday social interaction, which requires approximately two years to develop, and which, in the classroom, entails the functional language that is needed for class activities, instructions and general interactions. Conversely, CALP involves the language required for scholarly purposes, more particularly, to address and master content, specific technical vocabulary or formal register for academic purposes, whose development may require up to seven years. Since CLIL integrates content and language learning, it aims at both CALP and BICS.

Besides the BICS/CALP dichotomy, another widely-accepted model that analyzes the relation between language and learning in CLIL is that of the Language Triptych (Coyle et al., 2010). The Language Triptych model takes three interconnected viewpoints on language: language *of*, *for*, and *through* learning. To begin with, the language *of* learning is the language students need to interact with the content (for example, the use of specific vocabulary or specific structures related to a subject topic, such as the use of the past tense when reporting a science experiment). By contrast, the language *for* learning refers to the language required to function in a foreign language setting (Coyle et al., 2010). This comprises the language that learners need to participate in the activities done in class, when working in pairs or in groups, formulating questions, discussing, hypothesizing, writing, or presenting a project. Finally, the language *through* learning refers to the language that arises from the learning context and that the students will eventually acquire with the help of the teacher, that is to say, the linguistic needs that accidentally appear during a class (Llull, Fernández, Johnson & Peñafiel, 2016).

2.2.2. Learning theory

CLIL's learning theory, founded on communal constructivism and cognitive principles, aims to offer students meaningful learning opportunities tailored to their previous knowledge, skills, attitudes and interests (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012). This is referred to as education by construction rather than instruction by Wolff (2002) and Marsh (2006), as well as scaffolding by Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols (2008). The term "scaffolding" connects to Vygotsky's Sociocultural Learning Theory (1978), whose foundation is in the idea of the Zone of Proximal Development. The Zone of Proximal Development can be defined as the difference between what a student is capable of doing on their own and what they are capable of attaining with help from an expert (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2010). According to Bruner (1986), scaffolding is necessary when learners are ready to move on to a new challenge, but they are not still ready to face it on their own. Scaffolding entails fostering creativity and critical thinking, challenging students to move away from their comfort zone, repackaging information in simpler ways, catering for different learning styles, and taking into account the students' background, abilities and interests (Mehisto et al., 2008).

We can distinguish between two different types of scaffolding: verbal scaffolding (for instance, repeating students' utterances in order to model the language, adding pauses

between sentences, or slowing down the pace of speech) and procedural scaffolding (e.g. giving students more autonomy to construct their own knowledge by just providing them with a model and subsequent practice opportunities, using graphic organizers as a pre-task tool, working in small mixed-ability groups, or providing individualized guidance) (Echevarria et al., 2010).

Scaffolding is paramount in CLIL, since learning content through a language other than the L1 is particularly cognitively demanding. According to Bonnet (2007), there are three specific aspects that require scaffolding in CLIL, namely, language, content, and interaction. These three elements are indispensable to engage students in significant learning.

Scaffolding helps students to connect and link new material to what they already know, taking their cognitive skills to the next level. In addition, it helps pupils realize how learning works, which decreases frustration and makes them feel more secure and motivated (Mehisto et al., 2008).

2.2.3. Roles

As was previously mentioned, CLIL has a constructivist approach, which involves learning by doing. For this reason, learners are required to participate actively in the learning process, engaging in interaction and collaboration (Rennie, 1993), and displaying a higher degree of autonomy than in traditional learning. This way of operating can be quite challenging for students, who need to be cognitively prepared to respond to these new demands (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). All in all, interactive and student-led constructivism is fostered (Cummins, 2000).

The readjustment in the learners' role necessarily brings about a switch in the role of the teacher. Since CLIL is student-led, the teacher no longer acts as an instructor, but as a facilitator that guides students through the learning process. In fact, CLIL is quite challenging for teachers too, since they are expected to master the foreign language, be experts in their content subject, and know the principles of language acquisition, which usually involves having gone through intensive training in this field (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

2.2.4. Language proficiency levels

According to Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), there are a number of aspects that characterize the CLIL approach to language, which differentiate it from other immersion programs such as its predecessors.

First of all, it is vital to remember that, in CLIL, the language of instruction is actively taught; that is to say, students do not just acquire the language by being exposed to it. In fact, most CLIL students have been enrolled in foreign language instruction classes before joining a CLIL program. In addition, the target language is not present in the students' environment in CLIL. It is not spoken locally, as it happens in some immersion settings, so many students only have contact with it inside the classroom. This, added to the fact that the starting age in CLIL tends to be higher than in immersion programs, makes the amount of exposure in CLIL be lower than in other bilingual programs.

Secondly, CLIL educators are not required to be native speakers or to have a command of the language equivalent to that of a native speaker. It is more important that they have received proper training in the particular areas that they teach, as well as in the methodology that will enable them to successfully teach the content in the target language (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

Finally, it is worth underscoring that CLIL does not aim at achieving a native-like competence, but a functional command of the language on the students' part (Marsh, 2002). The goal of CLIL programs is not to get the learner to speak like a native speaker; it is to get them to effectively communicate through the additional language.

2.2.5. Methodology

CLIL methodology aims to introduce new ideas into the classroom and realign instruction with contemporary pedagogical techniques (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012), which brings about an opportunity to move away from the traditional teaching paradigm, based on the mere transmission of knowledge.

As it has already been mentioned, CLIL is based on constructivism and on an active learner role, so student-centered methodologies, namely, collaborative/cooperative learning, the task-based/project-based approaches, and flipped classroom techniques are paramount to a successful CLIL implementation.

2.2.6. Materials

CLIL materials are usually originally designed or adapted, in an attempt to minimize the huge cognitive load that studying a subject in a different language puts on the student, by scaffolding the language during the learning process. Therefore, when selecting and developing materials, teachers should be well-versed in the process of language acquisition, making sure that they expose students to authentic language and drawing their attention to the characteristics of realistic input (Tomlinson, 2012). In addition, materials should provide students chances to employ the language to communicate and produce output; promote interaction, creativity, and multicultural awareness; and be affectively engaging and cognitively demanding (Tomlinson, 2012).

Mehisto (2012) identifies ten criteria that should be applied when intending to design good CLIL materials that target both language and content and that take into account the challenges that CLIL means for both teachers and students. According to Mehisto, CLIL materials must:

- 1) Inform students about their learning objectives regarding both language and content.
- 2) Aim for academic language proficiency on a general basis.
- 3) Promote the learning-to-learn competence and students' self-direction.
- 4) Incorporate formative assessment, comprising self-assessment and peer-assessment.
- 5) Foster a secure learning climate.
- 6) Promote cooperative learning.
- 7) Try to include authentic language usage.
- 8) Promote critical thinking.
- 9) Use scaffolding techniques for language, content, and learning skills development, in order to help pupils to go above and beyond what they might accomplish alone.
- 10) Foster meaningful learning.

2.3. Benefits and shortcomings of CLIL

After providing a comprehensive definition and characterization of CLIL, we cannot but wonder whether CLIL actually works. Pérez Cañado (2013), after a meticulous literature review, provides a taxonomy of the dimensions into which the **benefits** of CLIL can be classified.

Regarding the *linguistic dimension*, CLIL brings about an increase in the number of hours that students are exposed to the target language in class, and, more specifically, to authentic and unrestricted input. As a result, specific language terminology is enhanced, and overall language competence and communicative skills are boosted. Besides, this whole process takes place without negatively affecting the students' L1. All in all, learners tend to generate language that is more sophisticated and meaningful, and their fluency increases.

In regards to *content knowledge*, the same as CLIL does not harm the learning of the students' mother tongue, it does not dilute the content of the discipline being taught in the foreign language either. The dual-focused approach produces, therefore, a concurrent progression in academic knowledge and communication abilities.

As far as the *learning dimension* is concerned, CLIL contributes to creating an environment that favors a more meaningful language learning with more efficient outcomes, since the foreign language is employed for genuine communication purposes. As a result, CLIL brings about more naturalistic, implicit and incidental learning that prioritizes acquisition over memorization of contents.

As for the *cognitive dimension*, CLIL targets Higher Order Cognitive Skills, developing practical, problem-solving and social skills, other than just communicative abilities. It provides cognitive engagement, pushing the learner's cognitive development a step forward.

Vis-à-vis *teaching*, it is worth pointing out that CLIL is applicable across all educational levels. It involves a modernization of classroom dynamics and methodologies, giving teachers

opportunities to refresh their teaching practices and to engage in cooperative learning techniques, or even team or tandem teaching.

Within the *volitional dimension*, CLIL brings about an increase in motivation (both in the L1 and the L2), since the student-centered methodologies it promotes, such as cooperative learning, tend to increase students' motivation per se. Moreover, CLIL boosts confidence and student expectations, and it lowers the affective filter.

As far as *the social dimension* is concerned, CLIL promotes social equality and inclusion, by providing all types of students, no matter their social or economic background, with the chance to study a foreign language in a meaningful manner.

Within the *cultural dimension*, CLIL fosters the students' intercultural communicative competence, and develops intercultural knowledge, understanding, and communication skills. It increases the students' intercultural and global citizenship awareness and provides more intercultural learning opportunities than traditional language learning.

Finally, from a *practical* angle, the CLIL approach is said to promote the learners' internationalization and European integration, as well as to equip them for lifelong learning. As a result, they will be more prepared to meet the demands of the new European context, and their employability will be increased.

Nonetheless, even though CLIL advocates vastly outnumber its detractors, not all that glitters is gold, and a number of **shortcomings** have also been pointed out (Pérez Cañado, 2013). These drawbacks mainly affect teachers, but also have an impact on learners and the curriculum.

In regards to *teachers*, the main difficulties stem from the fact that CLIL is a relatively recent approach. As a result, teachers sometimes struggle to find a clear reference model and can fall into certain misgivings or false myths that need to be debunked. For example, they might be inclined to believe that content learning is going to be negatively affected, or they might have misbeliefs about CLIL's suitability for all types of students. In addition, CLIL puts a considerable load on the teachers: they must have a strong command of the target language

and adequate knowledge of their subject content, but they are also expected to have been trained in language teaching methodologies. All this is hard to attain when they do not seem to be receiving the appropriate support from the educational authorities and to be offered subsequent training opportunities. Finally, it is worth mentioning the considerable workload that CLIL demands from educators, since it requires a lot of effort and time investment on their part, the same as do the coordination and collaboration among colleagues that CLIL also entails.

As far as *students* are concerned, CLIL is demanding as well. It indeed “poses a greater cognitive challenge which may cause the learner to feel confused, overwhelmed, or even frustrated” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 19). The study of complex academic content through an additional language makes understanding and assimilating such content a more challenging job, which may negatively impact the students’ confidence. Smith (2005) uses a metaphor to better depict this fact, describing learning content through an additional language as doing it in “misty” weather.

Regarding *content*, some authors, such as Smith (2005) or Darn (2006), claim that it can end up being watered down. On the contrary, an excessive concern for the content can lead to both foreign language teaching and the students’ L1 being neglected.

Another drawback that is frequently pointed out is the scarcity of published *materials*, which forces educators to have to create them themselves. Needless to say, this entails a considerable amount of time on the part of the teachers.

In regards to *methodology*, one of the most significant challenges is that teachers may not be familiar with the pedagogical practices they are expected to implement, not having been sufficiently trained in them or not having experienced them as students.

Finally, the issue of *evaluation* is no less challenging, since there are no definitive answers as for the best way to simultaneously evaluate content and language, or as to what extent the focus should be on the former or the latter.

2.4. The CLIL teacher

2.4.1. Competences of the CLIL teacher

Since the CLIL approach poses high demands on educators, different authors have endeavored to elaborate an outline of the CLIL teacher competences. One of the most exhaustive models is *The CLIL Teacher's Competences Grid* (Bertaux et al., 2010), divided into two main sections, “underpinning CLIL” and “setting CLIL in motion”, which are, at the same time, subdivided into eleven areas of competence consisting of a total of twenty-nine competences. Another well-known model is that by Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff and Frigols-Martín (2010), which establishes eight areas of competence, namely, personal reflection, CLIL underpinnings, content and language consciousness, pedagogy and assessment, investigation and evaluation, resources and learning environments, classroom management, and CLIL management. A third taxonomy widely accepted is that by Hansen-Pauly et al. (2009), which also presents eight domains of competence: learner needs, planning, multimodality, interaction, subject-related academic language, evaluation, cooperation and reflection, and context and culture.

In Spain, Pavón and Ellison (2013) have tried to summarize CLIL teacher competences into three key elements: knowledge of their content subject, appropriate command of the target language, and knowledge of CLIL methodology. Finally, Pérez Cañado (2017), after a comprehensive literature review of the most salient taxonomies that include the previously mentioned proposals and some others (Lorenzo, Trujillo, & Vez, 2011; Madrid Manrique & Madrid Fernández, 2014; Pérez Cañado, 2015), has elaborated a model comprised of seven competences which are fleshed out below.

First of all, CLIL teachers need to display appropriate *linguistic competence*, which includes intercultural elements. Thus, the CLIL teacher must master BICS, that is to say, the language used in everyday social interaction, which is necessary to communicate in any type of classroom interactions, but also CALP, the language used for academic purposes in their subject that is required in order to manipulate the content (Cummins, 1979). In addition, there will be incidental language needs in the classroom that the teacher will need to address, also

known as language *through* learning (Coyle et al., 2010). Since these needs are unpredictable, linguistic proficiency on the part of the teacher is paramount.

The second competence has to do with *methodology*. The CLIL approach moves far from the traditional education model and demands for an active and interactive role of the learner. This entails the implementation of student-centered methodologies, so CLIL teachers must be trained in cooperative techniques, and in approaches such as those of the flipped model, and task-based and project-based instruction. A mastery in Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), some notions about integrated curriculum design, materials reshaping and elaboration, and more diversified and formative evaluation strategies would also be desirable.

Organizational competence comes as a result of the aforementioned methodology. Having learners performing a more active role requires teachers to have excellent classroom management, and be well-informed on the different ways of grouping students and arranging the desks in the classroom.

The fourth competence is connected to *scientific knowledge*. CLIL teachers must be knowledgeable of the contents of their subject, but they also need to be trained on the fundamental principles of CLIL: its features, the theories that it is grounded on, and the different types of CLIL models.

In regards to *interpersonal competence*, it is connected to the field of emotions, and it is essential in order to build a safe environment in the classroom where students feel heard and considered. Participation and risk-taking will only happen naturally if students are in a position of comfort and ease.

Collaborative competence, on the other hand, has to do with the ability to work with other teachers, a condition sine-qua-non for the success of a CLIL program. This collaboration can take place at three levels, namely, between the content and language teacher, between content teachers, and between the teachers of the different languages in the curriculum (Pavón, Ávila, Gallego, & Espejo, 2014).

The last competence in Pérez Cañado's taxonomy is the *reflective and developmental competence*, which has to do with lifelong learning. Teachers need to be well informed about new educational trends, by reading about CLIL, attending professional development training events, and trying to stay up-to-date with the latest investigations on this field. It is equally important to train teachers on the basics of action research, so that they can conduct investigations in their classrooms (Pérez Cañado, 2016b).

2.4.2. Teacher challenges and training needs

Considering all the competences that have been abridged in the previous section, it is clear that CLIL is a challenging endeavor for the teachers implicated (Pavón & Ellison, 2013). Several aspects are necessary in order for teachers to succeed in implementing CLIL: content subject mastery, a sufficient proficiency in the target language to attain communication objectives in the classroom, expertise in teaching and learning practices, an amalgamation of all three previous elements, and also success in the blending of CLIL within their school (Marsh et al., 2010). However, according to Pavón and Rubio (2010), many teachers feel insecure when undertaking the challenge of teaching their subject in the target language, since their mastery of the language does not allow them to express their ideas in a fluent way.

Following Pavón and Ellison (2013), there are two main issues in the way that content teachers employ the additional language in the classroom. On the one hand, their insufficient proficiency in the target language may lead teachers to first teach the content in the L1, and then resort to the target language to just give a summary of what has previously been taught. This usually happens when teachers do not feel capable of delivering the whole lesson in the L2. Although the silver lining is that this way of operating can foster vocabulary assimilation, since students are exposed to the content in both languages almost at the same time, this does not comply with one of the fundamentals of CLIL: language and content integration. Quite the opposite, CLIL teachers should implement a methodology that encourages the manipulation of content in the target language, directed towards communication goals that lead to understanding and retaining while using the target language.

The second error in which CLIL teachers may incur is feeling that they need to address the students' need to improve their linguistic knowledge. As a result, their lessons may turn into endless grammatical explanations that have little to do with teaching content through a foreign language. It is important to not lose perspective that CLIL teachers are not language teachers (Pavón & Ellison, 2013), and that language in CLIL should be regarded as a vehicle for content, and not as the goal of the lesson.

In the view of the competences that are required from CLIL teachers and the challenges that they have to face, it is important to draw on the current CLIL teacher training needs. Since CLIL programs started in the 90s, universities and local and regional administrations have been launching teacher training courses specifically for CLIL (Madrid Manrique & Madrid Fernández, 2014). These initiatives have mainly been aimed at ameliorating the teachers' linguistic competence and methodology and, even though they have had a beneficial effect in the progression of CLIL, they are still seen as insufficient (Cabezas Cabello, 2010). Thereby, authors such as Pavón and Ellison (2013), for example, claim that the most important areas that a CLIL training program should include are the CLIL underpinnings, methodology, assessment and self-reflection. All in all, if training programs do not highlight the fundamentals of CLIL, the latter might end up becoming something else.

Several different studies have tried to ascertain the training needs of CLIL teachers (Hillyard 2011, Pérez Cañado, 2016b), most of them focusing on in-service teachers. A taxonomy of the key areas where training needs have been identified will now be fleshed out, based on Cabezas Cabello (2010), Coonan (2011), and Pérez Cañado (2013, 2016b): language, methodology, materials, collaboration, and assessment.

2.4.2.1. Language

According to Cabezas Cabello (2010) and his study on the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan, language is one of the areas that needs more attention in CLIL training, since the majority of CLIL teachers do not put into practice the linguistic skills required in a CLIL lesson due to their own lack of proficiency.

Coonan (2011) concurs with the importance given to language proficiency and underlines three specific needs connected to this area: the need for a linguistic competence sufficient to navigate CLIL scenarios; the need for linguistic flexibility that allows for the teacher to address any incidental language necessity, also known as language *through* learning (Coyle et al., 2010); and the need for an experience abroad in order to ameliorate their language level.

Finally, Pérez Cañado (2016b) has also identified some weaknesses in relation to language and intercultural competences, pronunciation, and functional language use in authentic contexts, not to mention the need for more preparation in both BICS and CALP dimensions.

2.4.2.2. *Methodology*

According to Coonan (2011), teachers wanting to join a CLIL program must be aware that CLIL demands a change of mentality regarding their teaching practices. Nonetheless, educational authorities have not been able to foresee the difficulties of integrating the CLIL methodological approach into the syllabus, which has led to the adoption of a subject-centered curriculum (Cabezas Cabello, 2010).

In fact, following Pérez Cañado (2016b), the main lacunae in the methodology area comprise difficulties to design a curriculum for CLIL and to integrate it in their lessons, and problems to adopt student-centered methodologies. Finally, another important deficiency has to do with the principles behind CLIL, with many teachers not being well-versed on the theories of language and learning backing it up, its main characteristics, and the different models within this approach (Pérez Cañado, 2016b).

2.4.2.3. *Materials*

In order for CLIL to be effective, it needs to be grounded on proper materials (Cabezas Cabello, 2010). This is a problem, since the amount of materials specifically designed for CLIL is still scarce. As a result, teachers are usually forced to adapt authentic materials or create their own, which is a time-consuming task. According to Pérez Cañado (2016b), one of the main issues related to the field of materials is that, even though teachers seem to be

familiar with the resources and ICT options available, they lack knowledge on how to adapt and design materials, or how to carry out collaborative work for curriculum integration. For these reasons, more training is needed in this area.

2.4.2.4. Collaboration

This is another area that requires improvement, since, in order for any CLIL program to be a success, it is essential to procure the coordinated involvement of all stakeholders. Coordination between language and content teachers, for example, is highly advisable in order to design proper materials, and it is the sine-qua-non for integrated curriculum development, which requires a coordinated effort between content and language teachers, and language assistants (Pérez Cañado, 2016b). Moreover, according to Cabezas Cabello (2010), a deficiency in the coordination between different bilingual schools has also been detected in Andalusia, catalyzed by the absence of support from educational authorities.

2.4.2.5. Assessment

The last area in which important needs have been identified is that of assessment. Provided that the very nature of CLIL entails the integration of language and content, it is logical to think that this integrated approach should also concern assessment. However, this poses many questions regarding the extent to which each of these aspects should be assessed, or the evaluation tools that should be employed for an accurate assessment (Pérez Cañado, 2013).

2.4.3. Conclusions pertaining the elaboration of the Guide

The study carried out by Pérez Cañado (2016b) yielded the following results: the linguistic and intercultural competence of teachers seems to be at a better level than in the past, whereas the theoretical principles of CLIL and ongoing professional development are areas where there is still great room for improvement. The investigation also showed mixed conclusions concerning the fields of materials and methodology, where an important number of teachers still state that their level is unsatisfactory.

After analyzing all the factors concerning the CLIL teacher that have been presented in this section, and provided that one of the main deficiencies, as acknowledged by in-service teachers, is that concerning the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL, the Guide elaborated for this dissertation has been designed with the intention to provide an informational basis on the main principles behind CLIL, on the one hand, and on the main student-centered methodologies, on the other. The Guide has been conceived for those teachers that are starting out in CLIL or considering it. Thus, a theoretical basis is absolutely needed, but so is a practical approach. For this reason, reflecting on how the CLIL fundamentals translate into teaching practice is paramount, as is offering practical ideas for classroom implementation of the different methods suggested, two niches which this Guide strives to fill.

3 . AN INTRODUCTORY GUIDE TO CLIL

3.1. Introduction for the teacher

Approaching CLIL for the first time can be very overwhelming. There are numerous journals, books, websites, and blogs with an incredible amount of information and resources that can raise many questions: Where should I start? What do I really need to know? How can I tell what information is reliable?

This guide has been designed for those teachers that are either about to embark on the venture of teaching their subject in a foreign language, or considering it for the future. Its aim is to provide essential information about the basics of the CLIL approach that will prevent teachers from not “seeing the forest for the trees”. Throughout the Guide, the reader will find not only a clear explanation of key concepts in CLIL, but also a number of practical ideas and reflections on how those concepts relate to their daily teaching practice. The author of this guide is a secondary teacher, so all the examples, tips, and ideas provided come from a secondary education perspective, but can easily be adapted to other levels.

The Guide starts with a definition and justification of the CLIL approach, together with an account of the main principles behind CLIL. Knowing the principles on which CLIL is based is paramount in order to understand the necessity of mastering student-centered methodologies, which are the focus of the second half of the Guide. In this section, a clear explanation of the different student-centered approaches has been provided, together with practical tips for those intending to apply them for the first time. Of course, the Guide is not extensive enough to offer thorough details about each one of the topics dealt with, so most sections include a series of links for those interested in expanding their knowledge on any particular matter. The Guide finishes with a brief section on the CLIL approach to assessment, followed by three appendices, the first of which provides a suggestion of a number of cooperative techniques that can be used in the classroom, together with a set of practical tips for the implementation of each one of these techniques. Finally, in the second and third appendices, a proposal of ICT resources and a glossary of useful classroom language have been provided.

We sincerely hope that this Guide can be of use for the novice CLIL teachers, and accompany them as they advance on the challenging but rewarding path of teaching their subject through an additional language.

3.2. What exactly is CLIL?

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an education approach that involves utilizing a language that is not the students' in order to teach them both content and language (Marsh & Langé, 2000). It is the European route to bilingual education.

Here are its main features (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2012):

- In CLIL, language is regarded as a tool: it is the instrument that students use to manipulate the content. The main focus is meaning, and fluency is prioritized over accuracy, although language form is not neglected. Both content and language are evaluated.

When you become a CLIL teacher, you also become a language teacher.

- CLIL is based on constructivism, so scaffolding both language and content is essential.

Teachers are usually aware of the importance of content scaffolding, but language scaffolding may be a whole new world for someone who has not taught a language before. However, it is an essential tool to help students reach their full potential in the subject content. In some cases, it can make the difference between language being an instrument or an obstacle.

- CLIL is not aimed at achieving a native-like competence, but simply as a means to get students to communicate successfully in the language of instruction (Marsh, 2002).

Designations such as “bilingual section” can be misleading for some teachers, who understand that this means getting their students to speak the target language as if it was their own.

- In CLIL, the learner plays an active role, interacting and collaborating (Rennie, 1993), while the teacher becomes a facilitator that guides students through the learning process. For this reason, student-centered methodologies like collaborative/cooperative learning, flipped classroom techniques, and task-based/project-based instruction become fundamental.

CLIL students should always be “doing something” and interacting with their peers as much as possible.

- CLIL materials are usually originally designed or adapted, so teachers must have the knowledge of how language acquisition works when developing materials.

As a CLIL teacher, you cannot just translate your non-CLIL materials into the target language: the language level would be too challenging for the students. For the same reason, you cannot directly use materials from an English-speaking country made for the same grade level. You need to create your own or linguistically adapt them, always bearing in mind the language level of your students and providing the necessary scaffolding.

- CLIL requires the collaboration and coordination of language and content teachers (Davison, 2006).

Since CLIL teachers also teach language, it makes sense that they work together with the language teacher. The language teacher can provide support in and out of the classroom, advising you about language when designing your materials, and providing additional support for your subject during the language class, by addressing topics connected to your content, and helping work on subject-specific language and vocabulary, for example. This collaboration should not be something exceptional: in the best case scenario, language and content teachers should plan together.

3.3. Why CLIL?

Despite some shortcomings, CLIL **does** work. According to different studies, the CLIL approach has the following benefits (Pérez Cañado, 2013):

- It increases the amount of time that students are exposed to the foreign language without increasing the amount of hours devoted to the foreign language subject in the curriculum.
- It improves language competence and communicative skills without negatively affecting the students' L1 or the subject content.
- It promotes more meaningful and natural language learning.
- It improves students' overall cognitive development, targeting Higher Order Cognitive Skills.
- It involves a modernization of classroom dynamics and methodologies.
- It increases students' motivation and confidence.
- It promotes social equality and inclusion.
- It develops the intercultural dimension, regarding not only knowledge of the different cultures, but also intercultural awareness and communication.
- It fosters students' readiness for EU integration, international perspectives and lifelong learning.

3.4. Principles behind CLIL

3.4.1. The 4 Cs Framework

One of the main aspects that distinguishes CLIL from previous bilingual models is the fact that it is aimed at integrating content, cognition, communication and culture (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). This is usually referred to as Coyle's 4 C's Framework:

- Content: It is the content of the class that is being learned in the target language.
- Communication: It is the use of the target language in order to learn the content. The language used in a CLIL classroom can be categorized according to the **Language Triptych**, which will be explained later.
- Culture: It refers to the cultural elements inherent to the study of a foreign language, which help develop students' global citizenship and multicultural understanding.
- Cognition: It affects the development of cognitive skills (learning and thinking processes). Cognitive skills are explained by **Bloom's Taxonomy**.

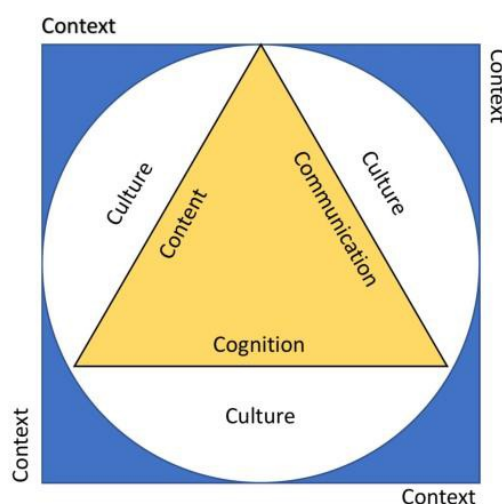


Figure 2. Coyle's 4C's Framework (2010)

A PRACTICAL REFLECTION:

How does this translate into your teaching practice?

You need to keep the 4 C's in mind while planning your CLIL lessons, making sure that you are targeting not only content and language, but also culture and cognition. When you design a lesson plan, it is a good idea to divide the lesson objectives into content, language, culture and cognition. Then, when deciding on the different tasks and activities that are going to be carried out, make sure that some of them include a cultural element and that they push students to engage Higher Order Thinking Skills (explained in the next section). At the end of the lesson, when designing assessment tasks, do not forget to include the 4 C's. For example, if you are going to use a rubric to assess the students' work, you can classify the different descriptors according to the 4 C's.

3.4.2. Bloom's Taxonomy

Knowledge of Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) is vital to understand the relationship between cognition and CLIL. Originally, Bloom's educational goals were divided into six different levels, ordered from less to more cognitively demanding: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation. In 2001, Anderson and Krathwohl updated Bloom's taxonomy to a new version in which nouns were replaced by verbs, and the two upper categories switched positions, as can be seen in Figure 3:

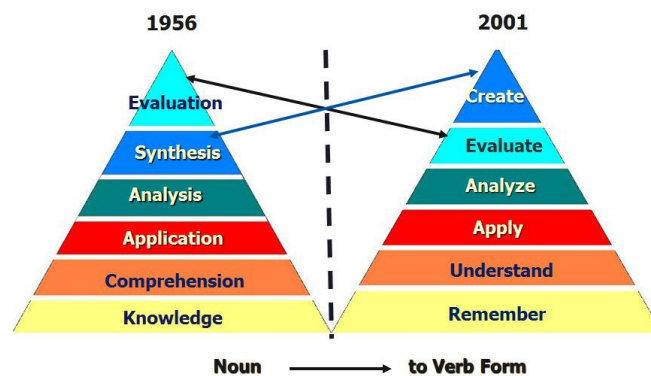


Figure 3. Bloom's Taxonomy Revised (Wilson, 2001)

In both models, cognitive processes are divided into two blocks: Low Order Thinking Skills (henceforth, LOTS), which comprise the first three levels, and High Order Thinking Skills (henceforth, HOTS), which include the higher levels. CLIL fosters the growth of all cognitive skills, but the work in the classroom should target HOTS in particular. For this reason, teachers must be aware of the verbs associated to each cognitive skill so that they can use them to define classroom objectives:

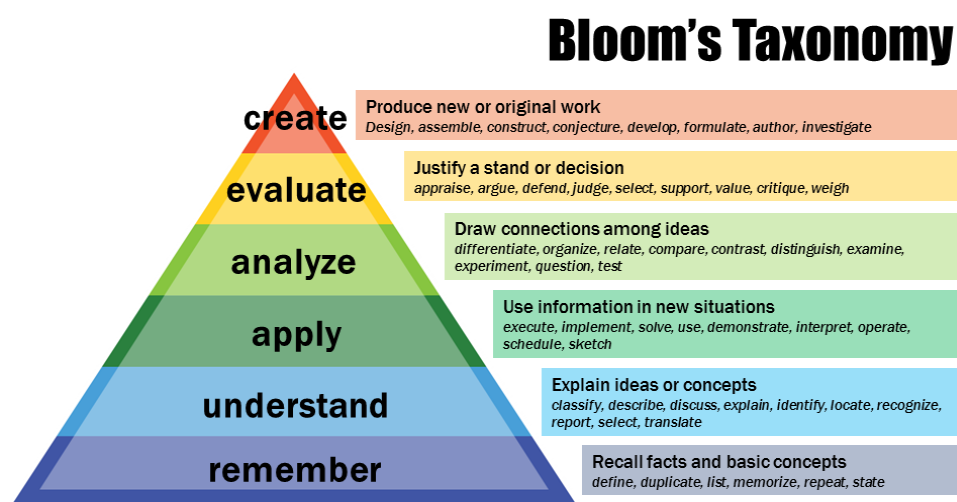


Figure 4. Objective verbs classified according to Bloom's Taxonomy (Armstrong, 2013)

A PRACTICAL REFLECTION:

How does this translate into your teaching practice?

Get one of your CLIL lesson plans and compare the list of objectives to the right side of Figure 3. How many of your objectives start with verbs connected to HOTS?

Next time you plan a teaching unit, try to include verbs that target HOTS in your objectives. Ideally, the tasks in a teaching unit should progress from the lower to the upper part of the pyramid, in order to guarantee that you are providing the necessary scaffolding.

3.4.3. *Language theories in CLIL: BICS and CALP, and the Language Triptych*

According to Cummins (1979), when analyzing the language present in a CLIL classroom, we need to differentiate between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (henceforth, BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (henceforth, CALP). BICS comprises the language used for everyday social interaction, which, in the classroom, concerns the functional language needed to communicate with the teacher or to work in groups. On the other hand, CALP comprises the language used for academic purposes, which, in the classroom, is the language required to manipulate the content, like specific technical vocabulary. CLIL teachers must be familiar with this distinction, and try to target both BICS and CALP in their classes.

Another CLIL fundamental that analyzes the relation between language and learning is the Language Triptych (Coyle et al., 2010). According to this model, the language in CLIL can be classified into three categories: language *of* learning, language *for* learning, and language *through* learning (cf. Figure 5):

- The language *of* learning is the language needed to interact with the content, which includes, for example, the use of specific vocabulary or specific structures related to a subject topic, such as the use of the past tense when reporting a science experiment.
- The language *for* learning comprises the language that learners need in order to interact with other people in the classroom, when working in pairs or in groups, formulating questions, discussing, hypothesizing, writing, or presenting a project.
- The language *through* learning refers to the language that is incidentally needed by individuals during the class and that arises from the learning context, that is to say, to the linguistic needs that accidentally appear during a class (Llull, Fernández, Johnson & Peñafiel, 2016). This type of language, therefore, cannot be predicted in advance.

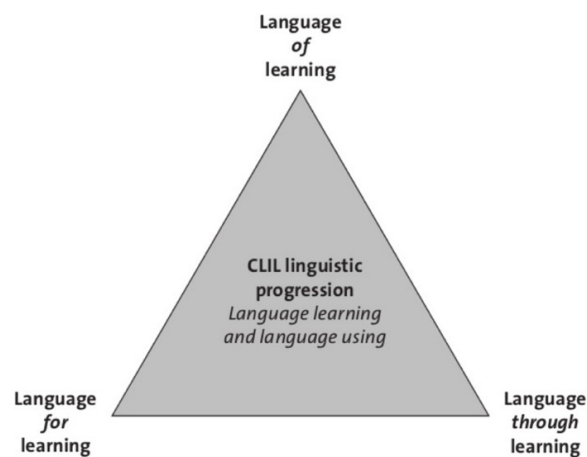


Figure 5. The Language Triptych (Coyle et al., 2010)

A PRACTICAL REFLECTION:

How does this translate into your teaching practice?

CLIL teachers must be aware of the different types of language that are present in a CLIL classroom, since CLIL is expected to target all of them. When planning a CLIL lesson, the same way you divided the lesson objectives according to Coyle's 4 C's, you could now subdivide the "Communication" C (the objectives that concern the language) according to the BICS/CALP or the Language Triptych distinction, or both. This helps you reflect on and predict the type of language that will be needed in order to address the content (CALP, language *of* learning). As for the language required to interact in the classroom (BICS, language *for* learning), it will mostly depend on the type of activities you design, that is to say, how and to what extent you are asking your students to interact throughout the lesson.

Coordination with the language teacher is paramount in order to target the different types of language, but can be particularly useful regarding BICS, which is their main field of expertise and what they actually develop in their classes.

Finally, regarding daily classroom practice, it is essential that you become an accurate model not only of subject-specific language (CALP), but also of social language (BICS), without losing perspective of the fact that incidental language needs (language *through* learning) will arise and need to be addressed.

3.5. Student-Centered Methodologies

In CLIL, students are expected to play an active role, which requires the implementation of student-centered methodologies (henceforth, SCM). SCM engage students in interaction and collaboration (Rennie, 1993), pushing them to display a higher degree of autonomy than in traditional learning. Students learn by doing, taking decisions and reflecting on their own learning. The teacher, on the other hand, no longer acts as an instructor, but as a facilitator who guides students through the learning process, providing models and support when needed.

SCM are highly beneficial to students because they foster personal autonomy, motivation and self-confidence, which produce far better learning outcomes. From the teacher's perspective, it allows them to cater for different learning styles in a more effective way. Over the next subsections, a brief explanation of the main student-centered methodologies will be provided.

3.5.1. *Cooperative Learning*

Cooperative learning means getting students to work together, in teams or pairs, in order to achieve common goals (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1999). This is particularly interesting in the CLIL classroom, since working cooperatively necessarily entails interacting in the target language.

3.5.1.1. *Possible classroom arrangements*

Cooperative learning takes place in pairs or teams, and this does not match up with the traditional classroom arrangement in individual rows of desks. According to Finnley and Wiggs (2016), some of the most appropriate classroom arrangements for cooperative learning are pair rows, clusters, and horseshoes:

- **Pair rows** and **clusters** benefit pair work and small team work, since they favor face-to-face interaction and communication in small groups. The downside is that it may be

harder to assess the students' individual level of understanding and their individual performance.

In addition, pair rows can easily and quickly be transformed into clusters (and then moved back to the original layout), provided that we have trained our students to do so. This can be done by appointing odd rows as the mobile ones, and even rows as the static ones. When required, the mobile tables would turn in order to face the rows behind them and form a group of four, as can be appreciated in Figure 6:

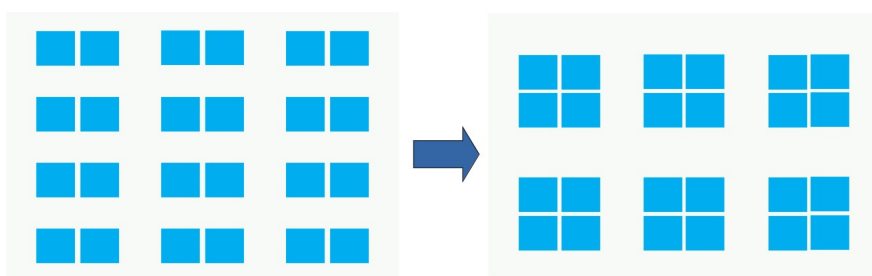


Figure 6. Pair rows to clusters of four

- **Horseshoes** are particularly suitable for presentations, discussions and demonstrations. In this layout, the class interacts as a whole group, although the teacher can work with students one on one too:

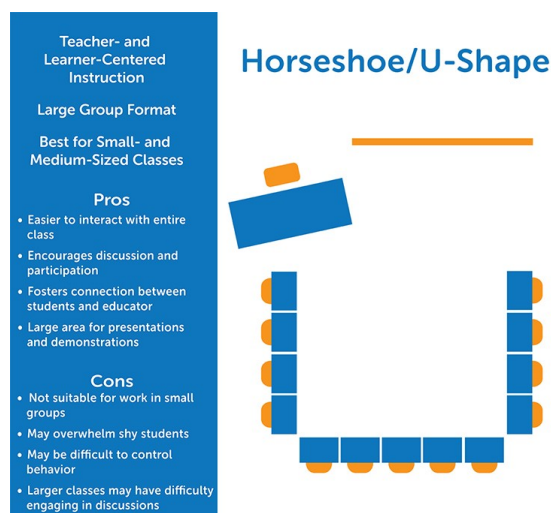


Figure 7. Horseshoe/U-Shape layout. Source:

<https://www.displays2go.com/Article/Tips-Most-Effective-Classroom-Seating-Arrangement-32#article-section->

A PRACTICAL REFLECTION:

How does this translate into your teaching practice?

When deciding on classroom arrangements, it is important that you take into account not only the possible options, but also the reality of your teaching context. Do you have a classroom of your own, or do you teach in a classroom shared with other teachers? Does the school have policies in place that affect classroom arrangement (COVID protocols, for instance)?

If different teachers use the same classroom, a compromise about desk arrangement needs to be reached. If the faculty decision is to have desks arranged into individual rows, for example, the transition towards pair rows (and the associated clusters) is easy and fast. On the contrary, trying to make students switch the desks daily to a horseshoe arrangement might not be a good decision, since it can create chaos or take excessive time.

FIND OUT MORE ON THIS TOPIC HERE:

<https://www.displays2go.com/Article/Tips-Most-Effective-Classroom-Seating-Arrangement-32>

3.5.1.2. Making groups

When forming groups for cooperative activities, we should try to make sure that they are balanced and include students with different levels, gender, and ethnic backgrounds (Smith & Spindle, 2007). This entails carrying out a comprehensive initial evaluation.

In order to guarantee a balanced distribution of students in teams regarding their ability levels, the suggestion by Pujòlas (2004) could be followed, which involves placing their names into three columns. Next, we would put the strongest quarter of the students into the first column,

and the weakest 25% into the third one. The rest of the class (the 50% left) would go in the middle column. Finally, we would make teams of four by picking two students from the central column, and one from each of the exterior columns. When pairing students, we could follow the same procedure, making sure we avoid pairing students from the first and third columns together.

3.5.1.3. Assigning team roles

Once the teams have been made, it is important that we assign specific roles to each member of the team. This provides students with a clear guideline about what exactly is expected from them, and also prevents weaker learners from feeling left out, since everyone has their own area of responsibility. It is actually a good idea to assign roles to the weaker students first, thus guaranteeing that we are giving them a task that we know they can accomplish. As for the rest of the members, it is advisable to perform rotations when assigning roles for different tasks or projects, so that every student gets the chance to perform different roles over time (Pujolàs, 2009).

There are different possible group roles and role names (Pujolàs, 2009), sometimes depending on the type of task the teams are expected to accomplish. The model presented here has been adapted from the proposal by the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga (Millis, 1996):

- ◆ **Leader:** To coordinate the work of the team, to keep the team focused on the task, and to make sure that all team members are participating.
- ◆ **Recorder:** To keep records of all group activities and each member's contributions, to write down the solutions to problems, and to prepare presentation materials.
- ◆ **Reporter:** To communicate with the teacher or the other teams and to report the results and conclusions of the team to the class.
- ◆ **Monitor:** To make sure that the work area is left clean and tidy, to keep the materials, and to track times.

- ◆ **Wildcard:** This is an optional member for situations in which we have groups of five. In such cases, the wildcard works as a leader assistant, and replaces any other team members that may be absent.

3.5.1.4. *Cooperative techniques*

There are numerous techniques that can be used for cooperative learning. Likewise, different authors have elaborated different taxonomies to categorize cooperative techniques, such as Torrego (2011), who divides these techniques into formal and informal, or Barkley and Major (2014), who present an account of thirty-five different techniques organized in six categories.

Here is a selection of some cooperative techniques that can be used in the CLIL classroom (Torrego, 2011; Barkley & Major, 2014). Due to a lack of space, a user-friendly explanation of these techniques has been provided in Appendix 1 of this guide, together with some practical tips for the implementation of each one of them.

IN PAIRS:

- ➔ **Think-Pair-Share.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Note-Taking Pairs.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **I Know, We Know.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Think Phrase.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Silent Demo.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Think-Aloud Pair Problem-Solving.** Function: problem-solving.

IN TEAMS:

- ➔ **Round Robin.** Function: discussing.
- ➔ **Talking Chips.** Function: discussing.
- ➔ **Word Game.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Three-Minute Stops.** Function: processing information.
- ➔ **Round Table.** Function: processing information.

- ➔ **Send-a-Problem.** Function: problem-solving.
- ➔ **Pens in the middle.** Function: building knowledge.
- ➔ **Jigsaw.** Function: building knowledge.

3.5.2. Task-Based Learning

In Task-Based Learning (henceforth, TBL), language is by no means the main focus of the lesson, but the task itself (Bilborough, 2013). The main goal is to complete the task, and not to learn a specific grammar point or lexical area. Therefore, the language is used as an instrument for communication and is learned through its use in context (students choose the language they employ according to their needs and the task needs). By asking our students to do a collaborative task, for example, we are engaging BICS (since students will be using social language in order to make arrangements, negotiate, or take decisions, among other aspects), and also CALP (the specific language of the topic to which the task is connected).

Tasks vary in their complexity and length, and usually have a predictable outcome. A task can be something as simple as classifying animals according to a given criterion, which might take only a few minutes. However, tasks can also be more complex, like planning a trip to a foreign country and calculating its overall cost (Bilborough, 2013).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), TBL is usually carried out in three phases:

Phase 1: Pre-task

- The teacher explains the task, provides context and engages the learners' interest. They should also try to activate prior knowledge and support the students with content and language (by anticipating the language structures and the vocabulary that might be needed in order to carry out the task, for example).
- The teacher gives instructions and clearly establishes the task goals.

Phase 2: Task

- Students work on the task in pairs or groups, while the teacher monitors. Since communication is a priority, language may not be accurate at this point.
- When the task is completed, students plan on how they are going to report their work (they may need to research about the language they need, and also to practice their presentation).
- This phase finishes with the students' presentation.

Phase 3: Post-task

- Students evaluate their performance and the teacher provides content and language feedback, focusing on accuracy and correcting mistakes.
- Based on the students' linguistic production during the presentations (and on the linguistic problems that may have emerged), the teacher will conduct subsequent language practice, focusing on those key aspects.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- In order for TBL to be successful, it is essential to select a task that is highly motivational for the students, so that incidental language learning occurs without them being aware. It is therefore important to think about the task in terms of its outcome, which is what students will mostly have in mind as they work through the task.
- When planning tasks, we must make sure that they are adequate to the learners' linguistic level. In this sense, it is a good idea to design simpler, input-based tasks for beginners, gradually moving towards more complex, output-based tasks as their linguistic proficiency level progresses to intermediate or advanced (Ellis, 2009).
- Still in need of ideas? Here are a list of task types that could serve as a source of

inspiration, ranked by complexity:

- Simpler tasks: to list, to order, to match, to classify, to compare
- to answer questions
- to solve a problem
- experiments
- interviews
- presentations (supported by slides, a poster, or some other product, such as a work of art or an engineering product)
- videos, movies
- a product of design (a business plan, a diet for a particular health problem, a work-out routine, a budget for a household)

3.5.3. *Project-Based Learning*

Whereas in TBL a task is the main focus of a lesson or unit, Project-Based Learning (henceforth, PBL) is even more ambitious, since it usually integrates several content areas at school level and makes the project become the focus of a whole trimester or academic year (Bilsborough, 2013).

Meaningful projects include eight elements (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010), which can be seen in Figure 8:

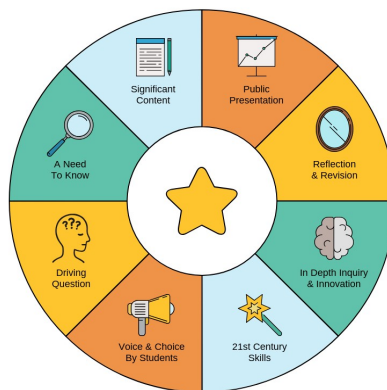


Figure 8. Elements of PBL¹

1 Image taken from <https://venngage.com/templates/education/elements-of-project-based-learning-teaching-aid-e770d1e1-9f34-4e7d-a3db-4280927e52bd>

The same as with TBL, there is not a unique way of implementing PBL. It is possible, for example, to carry out a project during a trimester or a whole academic year, whereas some schools may decide to dedicate a certain amount of time to project work alongside the curriculum. There are even some schools that try to base their whole curriculum on it. However, no matter the approach, project work tends to share the following **aspects** (Bilsborough, 2013):

- All the activities stem from a central topic.
- A research component (usually, through the Internet), which entails data collection, analysis and application.
- Potentiality for interaction, communication, collaboration, and idea sharing.
- An ultimate outcome or product, such as a website, a presentation, a movie, a magazine, an event, a series of podcasts, or a poster.
- A final product in the form of posters, presentations, reports, videos, websites, or blogs.

Teachers can make the most of PBL in CLIL by following the ten steps by Alan and Stoller (2005) for Foreign Language learning:

- ➔ **Step 1: Students and teacher agree on the project theme.** The extent to which the teacher outlines the project can make it span from completely structured to unstructured. In any case, the teacher should try to find a way to encourage students to build a feeling of ownership.
- ➔ **Step 2: Students and teacher decide on the project's final output.** Depending on the project's characteristics and goals, the final product can be a video, an oral presentation, a brochure, a theater play or a bulletin board display, for example. At this point, students and teacher should also agree on the best audience for the project (it could be students from other classes, other teachers, parents, or the general public).
- ➔ **Step 3: Students and teacher organize the work.** This stage involves the negotiation of project specifics that will lead students from the start of the project to the final product. In addition, students can also negotiate their specific role, responsibility, and decide on work

teams. After setting a project completion date, agreements should also be reached about the timetable for obtaining, sharing, and gathering data, as well as presenting their final project.

➔ **Step 4: The teacher prepares the students for the information-gathering demands.**

The teacher has to provide the learners with the language they need, according to their linguistic level, so that they can collect the necessary data. If students have decided to do interviews with people in order to obtain information, their teacher should design activities in which students must formulate questions and follow-up questions, ask for clarification, and take notes.

➔ **Step 5: Students collect data.** At this point, students gather data using techniques like interviews or web searches. The teacher brings in relevant content resources, whenever feasible, to get students started on their data quests.

➔ **Step 6: The teacher prepares the students to analyze the information.** Students must grasp the language, abilities, and techniques required to organize, analyze, and summarize the knowledge gleaned from various sources at this level. The teacher should prepare pupils for this by assigning tasks that require them to classify, compare, or use graphic organizers.

➔ **Step 7: Students organize and analyze the data.** After the previous preparatory activities, students compile material in teams and then analyze the value of the data that they have gathered, removing what is not useful or necessary. The objective is to determine what information is crucial to successfully complete their projects.

➔ **Step 8: The teacher prepares the students for the final activity's linguistic needs.** As it happened in the fourth and sixth steps, the teacher carries out class activities intended to assist students in delivering the project's ultimate product. These exercises might concentrate on developing abilities for effective oral presentations, written revisions, or debates. At this point, attention to form is paramount.

➔ **Step 9: Students present their project's final outcome.**

➔ **Step 10: Students assess their project.** Following their presentation, students should be encouraged to reflect on the language and content that they learned throughout the process. Students should also receive feedback on their language and content acquisition from their teacher. In addition, the teacher should ask the students for their opinion on how to improve similar projects in the future.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- If you are intending to develop a project that integrates several content areas, you want to have the teachers of those subjects on board. No one knows your colleagues better than you: will they be open to new ideas? Try to think of a project idea that is really motivating and interesting, and then figure out what subjects would need to be involved. Then, present a fully developed idea to those teachers, trying to be as concrete as possible about the contribution of their subject to the project. No one can resist participating in something that is motivational for the students when it is well thought out.
- Aim at creating authentic, real-world products, instead of classroom-oriented products. This is, indeed, one of the things that differentiates PBL from just “doing projects” (“*Doing a Project*” vs. *Project Based Learning*, 2019).
- If you are new to the world of PBL, it might be wise to stick to structured models at first. Decide on one product for all students, the same one if possible. This will help you monitor the students’ work better, and will allow your students to thrive in PBL dynamics before they attempt to design their own products.
- At first, it is important to give students a structured framework that drives their work. Give clear, step-by-step instructions the first times: before they can be asked to plan things on their own, students must first learn how to do them.
- Provide students with adequate resources to carry out their investigations, and frequent formative assessment focused on feedback, in order to help students steer their work in the right direction.

FIND OUT MORE ABOUT TBL AND PBL HERE:

<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/tbl-and-pbl-two-learner-centred-approaches>

<https://venngage.com/blog/project-based-learning-examples/>

<https://www.shsu.edu/centers/project-based-learning/examples.html>

3.5.4. Flipped Classroom

Students in a Flipped Classroom approach experience first exposure to new content outside the classroom, usually through new technologies (for example, by watching videos or reading), and later utilize class time to accomplish the more difficult task of acquiring that content, by carrying out more challenging activities. This method greatly differs from the traditional education paradigm, in which students get their initial exposure to content through a lecture in the classroom, and then assimilate it through home assignments; hence the name “flipped classroom” (Brame, 2013). A general comparison between the two education models can be seen in Figure 9:

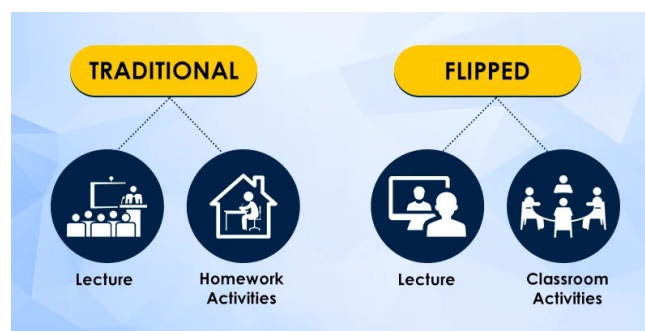


Figure 9. Traditional vs. flipped model ²

² Image taken from <https://www.globsyn.edu.in/blog/how-is-flipped-classroom-flipping-the-role-of-traditional-classroom-pedagogy>

If we connect the idea of Flipped Classroom with Bloom's taxonomy, it translates into students doing the lower levels of cognitive work, that is to say, developing LOTS (remembering and understanding) outside the classroom, by reading, writing, watching, doing online quizzes, and reviewing materials. Class time is then used to focus on the higher cognitive levels, developing HOTS (applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating) in an interactive environment where they have the support of their peers and teacher (Brame, 2013). A comparison between the traditional and the flipped models in terms of Bloom's taxonomy can be observed in figure 10:

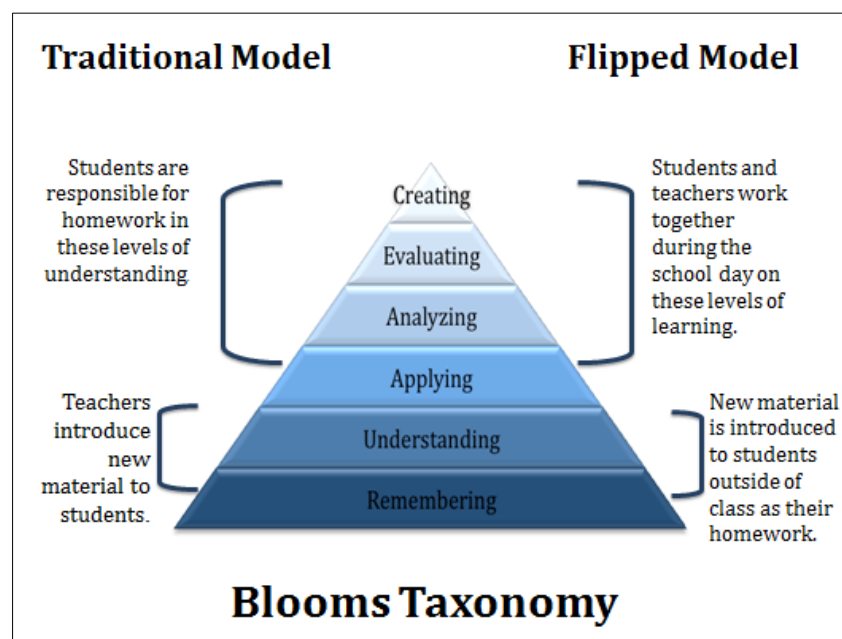


Figure 10. Bloom's taxonomy on traditional vs. flipped models (Williams, 2013)

The Flipped Classroom approach can be carried out in three phases (Estes, Ingram & Liu, 2014):

Phase 1: Pre-Class

While at home, students receive:

- First exposure to content: The resources used for this purpose can be, for example, lecture videos, screencasts, or podcasts. However, this exposure does not always have to be high-tech: students can be asked to carry out book readings, for example.

- An incentive to prepare for class: Students should be asked to complete an assignment linked to the previous exposure. It can be anything from an online quiz to a worksheet or a short writing. Grading completion of the work, in this case, would act as the incentive (Brame, 2013).

Phase 2: In-Class

At this stage, we should try to engage HOTS through tasks that usually involve interaction, cooperation and collaboration, prompting students to communicate through the target language.

Phase 3: Post-Class

The teacher provides feedback and assesses the students' work, which can be done through a rubric.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- The key for the success of a Flipped Classroom implementation is to get students to do the pre-class work. Without it, a flipped model is not even possible. For this reason, the first exposure to the content must be motivational enough (a video tutorial, for example, is a great idea).
- In the same vein, the assignment connected to the first exposure should be accomplishable (not too complex) and not excessively time-consuming. Also, for some students, grades are a very important incentive, and what separates “what is important” from what is not, so grading the pre-class assignment is recommended.
- It would be really interesting to provide students with feedback on their pre-class assignment before starting the in-class phase. This can be easily done through online self-graded quizzes and similar formats.
- If the pre-class phase is key, so is the in-class phase. We must carefully design activities that are cognitively challenging and foster interaction. In order to make sure that we are working on the right direction, we can consult Figure 3 and use the verbs linked to the last three levels of the pyramid in Bloom's Taxonomy to devise our classroom tasks.

FIND OUT MORE ABOUT THE FLIPPED APPROACH HERE:

<https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/flipping-the-classroom/>

<https://www.theflippedclassroom.es/>

<https://kitzu.org/flipped-classroom-model/>

<https://www.primariaelcastillo.blogsek.es/2014/09/26/the-flipped-learning-programme/>

3.6. Assessment in CLIL

Assessment and evaluation are another key area in implementing CLIL successfully. It is important, first of all, to clearly differentiate the concepts of evaluation and assessment. Evaluation involves the collection of information about a program, and its aim is to establish the degree to which such program is accomplishing its objectives (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003). Therefore, evaluation affects a number of aspects and elements (methodology, teachers, syllabus, or materials) other than just learners.

Assessment, on the other hand, can be defined as the process of collecting information about the learner's comprehension, knowledge, skills, progress, and attitude (ibid); that is to say, it only concerns the student. Also, it is important to highlight that the main goal of assessing students is not to give them a grade, but to make learning-related judgments and decisions that will improve their learning (Le Grange & Reddy, 1998). It is, all in all, an instrument for learning and not the culmination of the learning path (Williams, 2003).

But what should we assess in CLIL: content, language, or both? Provided that CLIL is dual-focused, it is logical to think that both language and content should be assessed (Massler, 2011). Actually, since what makes CLIL different is its integration of the four C's, adding cognitive and cultural elements to the assessment equation seems to make sense. This raises the question of how to assess language and content, especially considering the absence of specific regulations or a CLIL curriculum that establishes how important language should be

in CLIL assessment (Otto, 2019). Let us not forget that language is a vehicle for content, so language should be assessed in relation to content goals (ibid). A good rule of thumb is to assess in the target language the content that was studied in the target language (Massler, 2011). On another note, it is advisable to clearly establish distinct assessment criteria concerning language and content, which does not mean that language and content cannot be assessed through the same task (ibid).

PRACTICAL TIPS:

Think, for example, of an assessment task in which you ask students to write a brief essay about a particular topic dealt with in class. Then, by using a rubric such as the one proposed in Table 1, you would be assessing content and language separately:

	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Almost satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
Content: /5	5 Student shows a complete and thorough knowledge of the subject.	4 Student shows a complete knowledge of the subject.	3 Student shows sufficient knowledge of the subject.	2 Student lacks essential knowledge of the subject.	1 Student shows no knowledge of the subject.
Language: /2.5	2.5 Consistent grammatical control and appropriate use of subject-specific vocabulary. Very few mistakes (1-2).	2 Good grammatical control and generally appropriate use of subject-specific vocabulary. Some mistakes (2-4).	1.5 A few inaccuracies in grammar and vocabulary that do not lead to misunderstanding. Several mistakes in structures and verb forms (5-8).	1 Systematically makes mistakes in grammar and vocabulary use, but the message can be understood. Several mistakes in structures and verb forms that interfere with meaning (5-8).	0.5 Systematic mistakes in grammar and vocabulary use prevent understanding of content.
Organization: /2.5	2.5 Very clear and logically arranged structure. Proportions observed. Appropriate length.	2 Very clear and logically arranged structure. Appropriate length.	1.5 Clear and logically arranged structure. Too short.	1 It is possible to follow the ideas. Paragraphing may be wrong or absent. Too short.	0.5 Organisation is hard to follow or trace. Too short.
TOTAL: /10					

Table 1. Rubric adapted from Nakanishi & Nakanishi, 2015; and from Barkovska, 2012

Finally, it is important to mention Ana Otto's particular view of language assessment in CLIL, according to which language should be approached from a functional perspective, that is to say, not in terms of grammar and spelling accuracy, but of effectiveness to convey the required meaning in a specific subject context and CLIL genre (Otto, 2019). What this idea could look like in an assessment rubric can be seen in Table 2:

Genre
Stages and phases of the text are logically organized according to the genre and the task
All the stages and phases are included
Each of the stages and phases achieve their purpose
Field
The text includes all the field knowledge expected
Students' vocabulary is varied and adapted to their level
The student has expanded the nominal groups in relation to his/her level
The level of technicality and/or abstraction in the text is appropriate
Tenor
The student shows appropriate level of expertise in the academic field
Appropriate level of uncertainty is used
Appropriate level of objectivity is used
Mode
The student chooses theme (orientation) appropriately
Conjunctions are well selected and facilitate readability
Text is presented in a cohesive way
Grammatical elements are accurate
Spelling is accurate
Punctuation is accurate and facilitates the text readability

Table 2. Functional model for text analysis (Otto, 2019; adapted from Polias, 2006)

4 . CONCLUSIONS

As explained from the very introduction, the main aim of this dissertation has been to elaborate an Introductory Guide to CLIL, especially designed for those teachers about to embark on this approach or who are considering it for the future. In order to do so, it has been vital to analyze the CLIL teacher profile, drawing on the main teacher competences, challenges and training needs, so that our Guide could fill the identified niches.

This dissertation has started with a theoretical overview of CLIL that has dealt with its definition, its characterization, and an identification of the main benefits and shortcomings of the CLIL approach. Next, we have moved on to frame the CLIL teacher profile, by conducting a literature review of the main competences of the CLIL teacher, the challenges that CLIL poses for teachers, and the training needs that have been identified by different studies. As a result, we have concluded this section by stating that the main aspects on which CLIL teachers seem to demand more training are the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL, ongoing professional development, and methodology.

Based on the previous premises, we have proceeded to the second section of this dissertation, the Guide itself, striving to fill the aforementioned niches by structuring it around two main cores: the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and student-centered methodologies. However, we need to bear in mind that the purpose of knowing the theories behind CLIL is to apply them in practice. For this reason, even the most theoretical sections of the Guide have been enriched with comments and reflections about how those theories translate into daily teaching practice. In regards to student-centered methodologies, not only does the Guide provide an explanation of the main techniques, but it also offers practical tips for their implementation in each of the sections. Finally, the Guide is complemented by three Appendices with further explanations and information about cooperative techniques, ICT resources, and classroom language.

We strongly believe that the Introductory Guide to CLIL, subject of this dissertation, addresses the teacher training needs that have been identified in the theoretical section. Therefore, we sincerely hope that it can be of use for those teachers approaching CLIL for the

first time, since it explains the most essential CLIL fundamentals from a practical perspective, and it offers practical tips and ideas for classroom implementation.

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6 . APPENDICES

6.1. Appendix 1: Cooperative techniques explained

Here is a description of some cooperative techniques that are suggested for their use in the CLIL classroom, accompanied by some practical tips for their implementation (Torrego, 2011; Barkley & Major, 2014):

IN PAIRS:

➔ **Think-Pair-Share.** Function: processing information.

Students reflect individually about a question posed by the teacher, and then discuss their answers with a peer. Finally, they agree on a joint answer to the question, and share it with the whole class.

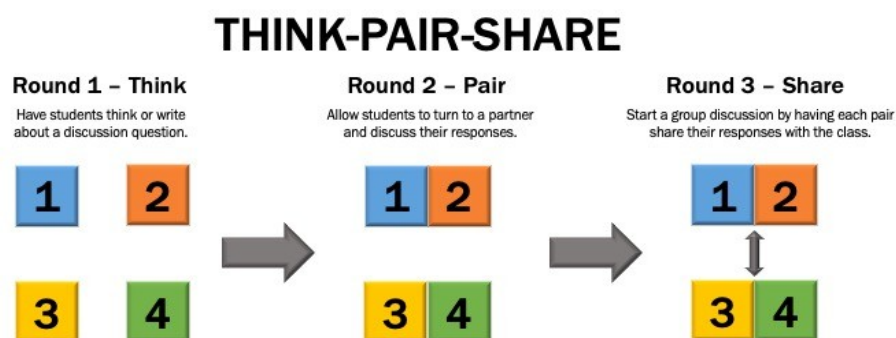


Figure 8. Think-Pair-Share³

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- Selecting the right question is key to this activity. Try to think of a question that is engaging and does not have a unique straightforward answer. By selecting an adequate question, you can engage students' HOTS (*What are the features of a healthy diet? What is the social impact of globalization? What characteristics does a product need to have in order to be considered a work of art?*).
- It is important that students have enough time to reflect and elaborate their individual

3 Image taken from <https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/setting-up-and-facilitating-group-work-using-cooperative-learning-groups-effectively/>

answers. Depending on the students' level and context, it might be a good idea to make them write their answers first. You can also pose the question at the end of class, so that students leave and have time to think of an answer as "homework".

- Discussing with a partner provides the necessary "rehearsal" of their speaking skills, so that students feel more confident when they are expected to report to the whole class. If the size of the class or the time constraints do not allow for every pair to share, students could be asked to also record their joint responses in writing.

➔ **Note-Taking Pairs.** Function: processing information.

Students take notes individually, and then they explain to a peer what they think the most important information is, based on their notes. Finally, they complete their notes with the information they missed and they correct possible inaccuracies, making their notes better.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- Make sure students know how to take good notes. If necessary, devote some time in class to guide them in such task before carrying out this technique.
- The selection of the source of information about which the students will be asked to take notes plays a key role. If it is a lecture, make sure you provide the necessary scaffolding, by speaking slowly, using simple language, and providing necessary pauses. If it is a text, make sure that the structure is clear, and that you use appropriate titles and subtitles. In both cases, visual support (e.g., images or graphs) can help scaffold the content.

➔ **I Know, We Know.** Function: processing information.

The teacher presents a topic, gives students a worksheet split into two parts, and students individually write down the information that they know about the topic on the left side of the paper. Then, students get in pairs and, together, they write a text with all their ideas on the

right side of the paper. The teacher then collects the papers, and the students' answers are shared in a whole-class discussion.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- We can offer students alternative ways of presenting the information, such as graphic organizers.
- In this activity, the main focus is the process of activating prior knowledge, so we should not give great importance to inaccuracies.
- We should try to integrate the ideas that have come up in this activity into the development of the topic, so that students can establish a link between new and prior information.

➔ **Think Phrase.** Function: processing information.

The teacher presents a phrase to the students and asks them to reflect on it. Students then work in pairs to comment their views on it. Finally, there is a whole-class discussion in which students need to present their partner's opinion.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- The success of this technique depends greatly on the phrase that we have selected, which must be designed in line with our lesson objectives.
- It may be interesting to use, instead of a phrase, some other resource that can also engage critical thinking and discussion, such as a picture, a video, or a comic strip.
- The same as in the Think-Pair-Share technique, it is important that students have enough time to reflect and elaborate their individual answers. Depending on the students' level and context, it might be a good idea to let them write down their individual ideas first.

➔ **Silent Demo.** Function: processing information.

This is a very useful technique to teach procedures that consist of several steps, such as experiments. First, the teacher demonstrates the whole procedure in silence. Next, students make pairs, and the teacher demonstrates again the first stage of the procedure. The students then have to talk about what they have seen and there is a whole class discussion. Finally, students try to replicate it.

This process is followed for each stage of the procedure, until the pairs are able to conduct the whole procedure without help.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- After having the pairs discuss a step of the process, you can ask a volunteer to explain what they saw to the class, thus making sure that everybody is on the same page and providing additional scaffolding.
- Once the students are capable of conducting the whole procedure on their own, you can ask students to tape themselves doing the whole demonstration while they explain what they are doing, thereby fostering the students' language production skills.

➔ **Think-Aloud Pair Problem-Solving.** Function: problem-solving.

Students work in pairs to solve a series of problems with which they are presented. One of the students works as the problem-solver, and the other one is the listener. Students will alternate in their roles for each new problem provided.

The problem-solver has to explain what they are thinking and doing as they try to solve the problem, while their partner listens to them, trying to understand the process that the problem-solver is following, and helping their partner if they detect errors.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- This is a great technique to apply in subjects like Math. Its success will greatly depend on the teacher making an appropriate selection of problems that can be solved

by the students in a particular amount of time.

- This technique works best with problems that have a single solution.
- Some pairs will definitely work faster than others, so it is a good idea to have a couple of more challenging problems for fast finishers, so that these students are busy and are still being challenged while the others are still trying to solve the initially proposed problems.

IN TEAMS:

➔ **Round Robin.** Function: discussing.

This is a brainstorming strategy in which students are presented with a question. The different members of a team are expected to alternately answer the question. They speak in turns, so that all students have the opportunity to participate, and they are not allowed to comment on each other's answers until they have finished.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- For this activity, it is important to choose a question that can elicit a sufficient number of answers in a limited amount of time.
- This activity is supposed to be dynamic: if the question is too complicated and requires a lot of thinking time, the pace will be slowed down and the activity will become boring. For this reason, it works best to choose questions that can be answered in one or a few words (making lists, for example), which are easy enough so that everyone can contribute (and do it fast). In such case, this technique should take no longer than 5 minutes.
- Before starting this activity, the students need to know how many rounds they are expected to do, or whether there is a time limit.
- It is a good idea to appoint a “recorder” to write down everyone's answers.

➔ **Talking Chips.** Function: discussing.

Team members are given three to five objects that will work as tokens. Students then engage in a discussion, surrendering an object every time they talk. When they run out of the tokens they are given, they cannot speak again until all the team members run out of tokens.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- This activity is intended to “democratize” controversial discussions or debates, encouraging the most timid students to contribute and establishing limits for the most dominating students.
- The second goal of this technique is to make students reflect on how they participate in discussions. For this reason, a good follow-up activity would be asking students to write a brief essay reflecting on how the tokens impacted the way they usually engage in debates.

➔ **Word Game.** Function: processing information.

The teacher writes on the board a set of words connected to the topic that is about to be introduced. In teams, students write sentences connecting those words, trying to predict the topic. Then, there is a whole-class discussion in order to identify the contents.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- It is important to choose words that are representative of the content that is going to be studied (key ideas).
- This activity can be made more challenging by including words that are new to the students, so that there needs to be previous research before students can actually write their sentences.

➔ **Three-Minute Stops.** Function: processing information.

In the middle of a lecture, the teacher makes a three-minute stop, during which the teams try to orally summarize what has been dealt with and come up with two questions to ask the other teams about the lecture. At the end of those three minutes, each team shares a question (if it has already been discussed, they share the other one) with the other teams. Once all the questions have been dealt with, the teacher resumes the lecture, until they decide to make another stop.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- In order to make sure that all team members participate, we can ask students to individually come up with two questions each, thus adding a “think” phase to the activity. Students then share what they wrote with the rest of the team, and choose the two questions that they are going to ask the other teams.

➔ **Round Table.** Function: processing information.

The teacher gives each team a paper with a prompt, divided into four parts. Students take turns answering to the prompt in a couple of lines before passing the paper along to the other members, who do the same.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- This activity is the written version of Round Robin, but it allows for more individual reflection time.
- After the first student has written their contribution, they should read it aloud before passing the paper on to the second student, in order to make sure that ideas are not repeated.
- The same as in Round Robin, we should not choose a complex prompt if we do not want the activity to become slow and boring. If the prompt requires a lot of thinking time, we should consider combining this technique with another activity (with a

lecture, for example), so that it keeps on going while the students are doing something else in class.

- We can carry out an online version of this activity, with the whole class, by using a digital noticeboard such as Padlet.

➔ **Send-a-Problem.** Function: problem-solving.

The teacher gives each team a different problem to solve. Then, the teams are given a certain amount of time to try to find a solution. When time is up, each team gives the problem and their answer to the problem to a different team. The next team, without looking at the answer, works to solve the problem and passes the problem again to another team. When all the teams have already solved the problem, each initial team reads the answers to 'their problem' and reports the best solution to the class.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- This activity can easily turn into chaos if it is not well-structured and the students do not receive detailed instructions. Before starting, make sure they are aware of what the time limit is, and which team they need to pass the problem to when time is up.
- It is essential that you choose problems with a similar level of complexity, so that the students take a similar amount of time to solve each one.
- In addition, you need to decide which format is going to be used to keep together both the problem and the teams' answers. You could, for example, give each team index cards to write their answers, use a paper for the problem prompt, and staple an envelope to the paper in order for the teams to put their answers inside it.

➔ **Pens in the middle.** Function: building knowledge.

The teams receive a problem, question, or exercise to solve, and a team member is put in charge. Students start working on the problem, under the supervision of the person in charge. All team members put their pens in the center of the table, to signal that it is discussion time (they are not allowed to write). Students start talking about the best way to solve the problem

until they reach a common agreement, while the student in charge makes sure that all team members get the chance to participate. Finally, students grab their pens and individually solve the problem in the way they have agreed, in silence.

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- Students should take turns being the moderator. For this reason, it is advisable to give each team as many problems as team members.
- If a student gets stuck or confused while they are individually writing the solution to the problem, it is a good idea to offer them a second chance, by allowing them to call “pens in the middle” at any point, so that everyone stops writing and the problem can be discussed again.

➔ **Jigsaw.** Function: building knowledge.

The teacher divides the material into several parts and makes teams of four people. Then, each team works on one of the parts until they grow into “experts”. Finally, the teacher rearranges the class, making new teams that are formed with one member from each of the original teams. The new teams now start a process by which each member will teach their teammates the content that they master.

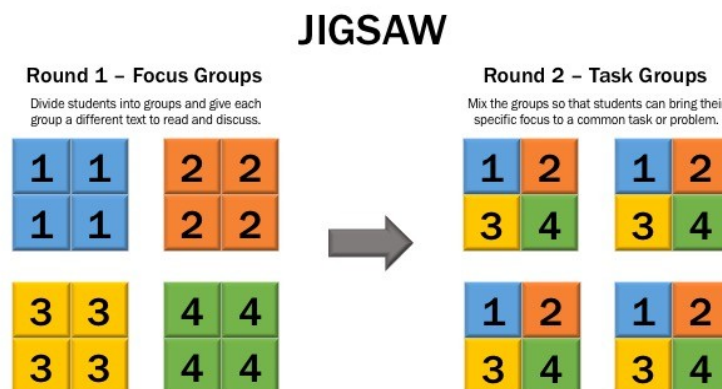


Figure 13. Jigsaw⁴

⁴ Image taken from <https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/setting-up-and-facilitating-group-work-using-cooperative-learning-groups-effectively/>

PRACTICAL TIPS:

- Try to divide the materials in an accomplishable, balanced way. Remember that you will need as many expert teams as material sections you make.
- You can let the students choose the part of the material on which they are interested in becoming an expert.
- Expert teams need guidance about what exactly is expected from them. This can be done by providing each team with aids connected to their assigned topic, such as:
 - reading articles
 - an outline with the subtopics they should tackle
 - guiding questions
 - a list of websites or other resources

6.2. Appendix 2: ICT Resources

The following is a selection of ICT resources that might be useful for CLIL teachers. It includes online tools that can be used to create materials and ready-to-use online resources (materials made by other people).

Tools to make worksheets, bingo cards, puzzles, and games

Worksheets, bingo cards, and puzzles are the perfect tool to work on subject-specific vocabulary, and can be used for a flipped class or task-based/project-based learning, either as a pre-task or post-task. The teacher can create their own worksheets, bingo cards, or puzzles, but we can also ask our students to make their own. Games, on the other hand, are a great tool to wrap up a unit or to revise previous content. Again, we can create games for our students or have students make their own. Here are some suggestions:

<https://www.theteacherscorner.net/>

<https://quickworksheets.net/>

<https://www.superteacherworksheets.com/full-generators-index.html>

<https://www.toolsforeducators.com/>

https://www.teach-nology.com/web_tools/work_sheets/

<https://www.cerebriti.com/>

<http://www.contentgenerator.net/>

<https://www.proprofsflashcards.com/>

<https://www.popplet.com/>

Tools to create quizzes and surveys

Surveys are a great way to ask for your students' opinion or feedback. Quizzes, on the other hand, can be used to test students, as a wrap-up, for homework, or as the pre-class in a flipped approach.

<https://kahoot.com/> (quizzes and surveys)

<https://get.plickers.com/> (quizzes)

<https://quizizz.com/> (gamified quizzes)

<https://es.surveymonkey.com/> (surveys)

Tools to create presentations, websites, and digital noticeboards

You can create your own in order to use them with your students, or you can ask your students to create them.

<https://prezi.com/> (presentations)

<https://genial.ly/es/> (presentations and websites)

<https://www.symbaloo.com> (to create a website repository)

<https://padlet.com/> (digital noticeboards)

<https://www.weebly.com/es> (websites)

<https://www.webs.com/> (websites)

<https://es.wix.com/> (websites)

<https://www.blogger.com/> (blogs)

<https://wordpress.com/es/create-blog/> (blogs)

<https://edublogs.org/> (blogs)

Tools to create lecture videos and record audio files

You can record your voice in order to create podcasts (or have your students record them), and also in order to add it to a presentation. Lecture videos can be used as the “first exposure” of a flipped class, and students can make them as a final product in a task or project.

<https://www.vocaroo.com/> (voice recorder)
<https://audioboom.com/> (podcasting)
<https://www.spreaker.com/> (podcasting)
<https://edu.glogster.com/> (multimedia posters)
<https://screencast-o-matic.com/> (screen recorder)
<https://www.techsmith.com/screen-capture.html> (screen recorder)
<https://www.loom.com/> (screen recorder)
<https://www.thinglink.com/> (annotated videos or photos)

Tools to create comics

Making your students create comics can be a very interesting activity for subjects like, for example, History or Science (to learn about scientific discoveries).

<https://makebeliefscomix.com/> (comics)
<https://www-es.pixton.com/> (comics)
<https://www.voki.com/> (avatars)

Educational platforms

Educational platforms can be used to organize your class in groups, give students assignments, and keep track of their progress.

<https://classroom.google.com/>
<https://www.classdojo.com/es-es/>
<https://new.edmodo.com/>
<https://www.toovari.com/> (gamification)
<https://www.classcraft.com/es-es/> (gamification)

Ready-to-use online resources

You can use materials created by others directly in your classroom, or employ them as a source of inspiration to create your own. If you are planning on using materials from English-speaking countries, always remember that you should adapt them to your students' language level.

- Resources in English:
<https://edu365.cat/eso/angles/index.html>
- Lesson plans in English for different subjects:
<http://teachersnetwork.org/>
- Lesson plans with animated presentations for different subjects:
<https://www.brainpop.com/>
- Material for different subjects:
<https://www.neok12.com/>
- Virtual labs and simulations (for Math and Science):
<https://gizmos.explorellearning.com/>
- Blog with resources for CLIL teachers:
<https://aclil2climb.blogspot.com/>

- Website with materials, examples of lesson plans, and links to many other interesting CLIL websites:
<https://www.andomi.es/clilmaterials/clil.htm>
- Probably the ultimate CLIL resource: a comprehensive account of ready-to-use activities and links to the most important CLIL resources (websites, blogs, etc.):
http://www.isabelperez.com/clil/clicl_m_6.htm

6.3. Appendix 3: Classroom Language

Here is a suggestion of classroom language that you might use for your daily teaching practice (Pérez Cañado & Ojeda-Pinar, 2018; Willis, 1981):

STARTING THE LESSON:

- ➔ *Hey, guys!*
- ➔ *How's it going?*
- ➔ *How you doing?*
- ➔ *What's up?*
- ➔ *Who's absent today?*
- ➔ *Let's kick off with...*
- ➔ *Let's get cracking.*
- ➔ *Can anyone remember what we did/saw last ...?*
- ➔ *Today we're going to...*

GIVING INSTRUCTIONS:

- ➔ *Now, listen (carefully).*
- ➔ *Here's/ This is what I want you to do.*
- ➔ *What I want you to do/ you're going to do is...*
- ➔ *Get your books.*
- ➔ *Open your books at page...*

ELICITING STUDENTS' OPINIONS:

- ➔ *What do you think?*
- ➔ *What's your opinion/view/take?*
- ➔ *Where do you stand on this?*

ELICITING STUDENTS' RESPONSES:

- ➔ *Raise your hand/ Put your hands up/ Hands up if you know/can tell me/can say...*
- ➔ *Does anyone know.../Can anyone tell me...?*
- ➔ *Who knows/ can tell me/ can say...?*
- ➔ *Who wants to start?/ Any volunteers?/Who's up for it?*
- ➔ *Give it a shot!*
- ➔ *Anybody else?*
- ➔ *Any objections?*

ELICITING STUDENTS' QUESTIONS:

- ➔ *Shoot!*
- ➔ *Fire away!*
- ➔ *Hit me!*

CHECKING UNDERSTANDING:

- ➔ *Does that make sense?*
- ➔ *You with me?*
- ➔ *We good?*

ASKING STUDENTS TO REPEAT/CLARIFY:

- ➔ *Say that again?*
- ➔ *Say what?*
- ➔ *Come again?*
- ➔ *What was that again?*
- ➔ *Sorry, I didn't get that/ you lost me there.*

ENCOURAGING STUDENTS:

- ➔ *Go for it!*
- ➔ *You can do it!*
- ➔ *You've got this!*
- ➔ *Take your time.*
- ➔ *Yes, go on.*

GETTING ATTENTION:

- ➔ *Listen up!*
- ➔ *Eyes on me!*
- ➔ *Hey, yo!*
- ➔ *Look here.*

PAIR OR GROUP WORK:

- ➔ *Work with the person next to/ in front of/ behind you.*
- ➔ *I want you to get into groups of four.*
- ➔ *You're going to form groups of four.*
- ➔ *Find a partner.*
- ➔ *Does everyone have a partner?*
- ➔ *Off you go!*
- ➔ *Try to get on the same page.*
- ➔ *Hey, no slacking!*
- ➔ *Help him/her out.*
- ➔ *Follow his/her lead.*
- ➔ *Don't breathe down his/her neck.*

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT:

- ➔ *Please, stay on task.*
- ➔ *Keep it down!*
- ➔ *Hush!*
- ➔ *Turn it down a notch!*
- ➔ *Zip it!*
- ➔ *Stop talking/ playing.*
- ➔ *Don't do that, please.*
- ➔ *Give that to me, please.*
- ➔ *Quit mucking around!/ No horsing around!*
- ➔ *Give it a rest!*
- ➔ *Watch it!*
- ➔ *You're skating on thin ice.*
- ➔ *You're way out of line!*
- ➔ *Knock it off!*

EVALUATING:

- ➔ *Let's set a date for the test.*
- ➔ *There's a lot riding on this test.*
- ➔ *Study up/ Get your act together/Gear up/ Buckle down!*
- ➔ *Eyes on your paper.*
- ➔ *Time's up!/ Pencils down!*

PRAISING STUDENTS:

- ➔ *That's great/perfect/excellent!*
- ➔ *Way to go!*
- ➔ *Kudos to you!*
- ➔ *Nice going!*
- ➔ *Off the charts!*

- ➔ *Top-notch work!*
- ➔ *You're on a roll/ on fire!*
- ➔ *You've done a bang-up job!/ You've passed with flying colors!*

SUMMARIZING:

- ➔ *So, what have we learned/said?*
- ➔ *So, to recap/ to summarize/ to wrap up...*
- ➔ *The broader take-aways of this lesson are...*
- ➔ *Our overarching conclusions are...*

FINISHING THE LESSON:

- ➔ *All right, let's stop here/ finish here/ call it a day.*
- ➔ *For homework, I want you to...*
- ➔ *(In the) next lesson, we'll/ we're going to...*
- ➔ *See you on.../later.*
- ➔ *Have a good/great one!*
- ➔ *Bye!*