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THE IMPACT OF CLIL ON THE ORAL COMPETENCE AT THE END OF C.S.E.

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Abstract

This paper informs on a study carried out with 20 post-secondary Andalusian students at the end of their compulsory public education, preparing for their oral B1 English exam. The group is composed of 12 students who have participated in an intensive bilingual programme, during their 4 years of secondary school. The remaining 8 participants received 3-4 hours a week of ESL classes, but not integrated into their content subjects. They have answered a questionnaire to gauge their confidence and experience in L2 oral performance, before completing a spoken exam based on the Preliminary English Test (PET). This paper is framed by key elements of oral production and L2 teaching methodology through history, including recent research on the effects of CLIL. The study aims to determine whether post-secondary students are able to pass their B1 exams; the areas which were most problematic, and; whether CLIL affects the development of their oral competence.

Key words: CLIL, B1 exam, oral competence, bilingual programme.

Resumen

Este trabajo presenta un estudio llevado a cabo con 20 estudiantes andaluces que han finalizado su etapa educativa de secundaria, preparándose para su examen oral de inglés de B1. El grupo está compuesto por 12 estudiantes que han formado parte de un programa bilingüe, durante sus 4 años de educación secundaria. Los 8 participantes restantes han recibido clases de inglés como segunda lengua, pero no han formado parte del programa bilingüe en las asignaturas no lingüísticas. Los estudiantes han contestado un cuestionario para medir su confianza y experiencia en el desempeño de la segunda lengua, antes de completar el examen oral basado en el examen oficial de nivel intermedio de inglés. Este estudio está basado en elementos clave de la producción oral y las distintas metodologías de enseñanza de una segunda lengua a lo largo de la historia, incluyendo las investigaciones recientes sobre los efectos del AICLE. El estudio tiene como objetivo evaluar si los estudiantes están capacitados para aprobar un examen de B1 después de terminar secundaria, las áreas más problemáticas, y, si el AICLE influye en el desarrollo de su competencia oral.

Palabras clave: AICLE, examen B1, competencia oral, programa bilingüe.

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ANNEXES

1. INTRODUCTION.

1.1 Justification and relevance.

The decision to research on this topic has been motivated by my experience as an English teacher in Secondary and Baccalaureate education. The increase of international relationships has emerged from the improvement of mass media and the fast evolution and development of information and communication technologies. Society demands interaction between cultures and this is where the English language becomes integral. It is the language of the European Union, facilitating communication among its members.

In an effort to help students integrate in this language-demanding society, I have observed that despite the fact that teenagers have been studying English since they started school, they make basic mistakes when practising their oral skills. This issue affects different aspects of the oral competence of students who have been part of bilingual and non-bilingual programmes in Secondary Education. They usually refuse to speak in English in lessons or to participate in spontaneous conversations with their classmates and teachers. This is reflected in the results of the report published by Cambridge University Press (2017), where Andalusian students are located in the lowest positions.

The majority of the group analysed in this study presents evidence of evading the oral practice of the language. Sometimes this is due to their lack of linguistic competence; other times it is because of their feelings and state of mind. Finally, another possibility is that this is a consequence of their personality. Students who are shy usually find it more difficult to participate in class, particularly when they are required to do so in the Second Language (L2).

Students at this age are conscious of this problem. When they travel abroad, they notice that they have more difficulties communicating in English than their counterparts from other countries of the European Union (EU). Traditionally, Spain has been categorised as having low English as a Foreign Language (EFL) proficiency. However, with the implementation of the CLIL methodology, recent studies show that there have been significant improvements in the expertise of this language (Goris J., Denessen, E. & Verhoeven, L., 2019).

This study aims to analyse in detail the degree of skilfulness that students reach in oral competence with the help of this innovative methodology, and if CLIL will facilitate them

performing at the level of their European counterparts. With the aim of obtaining these data, the following research questions have been established.

1.2 Research questions.

Nowadays the paradigm of languages in Europe is regulated taking as a model the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001; 2018). Therefore, if all the learners follow this framework, why do Spanish students seem to present more difficulties in oral production? In order to study this issue, the following research questions will be addressed:

- RQ1: Are Andalusian students able to pass an oral B1 exam after secondary education?
- RQ2: Is there a direct relationship between those students who have been part of the bilingual programme and better results in oral exams?
- RQ3: What are the areas of oral production with more errors/mistakes?

These questions are going to be solved with the help of some objectives which have been established in the following section.

1.3 Objectives.

The objectives of this research are the following:

- To investigate if Andalusian students of both programmes (bilingual and non-bilingual) are able to pass an oral B1 exam after Secondary Education.
- To make systematic comparisons between the mistakes made by a group of students of different educational backgrounds; some formerly in the bilingual program, others not.
- To determine the area of oral production with more errors/mistakes.

1.4 Sections.

Considering that the goals of this study are already delimited, different sections have been developed to carry out the research. The literature review is included in the following sections, where the basic processes of oral production are explained. Then, there is a description of the methods and approaches employed in the teaching of a foreign language, and their degree of focus on oral skills. There is a special mention to present-day communicative methodology trends and their implementation in Andalusian schools, as well as a section devoted to prior research on the effects of CLIL methodology in students.

In the subsequent section the methodology is expanded, including the research design, sample, variables, instruments, data collection and data analysis.

Finally, the conclusion includes the limitations of the study and lines for future research.

2. ORAL PRODUCTION.

The Council of Europe (2018) defines oral production as the speaking activities that language users produce and which are received by an audience of one or more listeners. Speakers are required to use elements of their body, such as their brain and vocal tract to communicate.

In order to better understand how utterances are generated and identify which parts of the process cause the most errors/mistakes, the steps that speakers follow when expressing themselves orally have to be examined. According to Levelt (1993), the communicative process is structured in the following stages:

1. Recover the words from memory and give ideas a shape with the correspondent grammatical roles and sentence arrangement.
2. Identify the phonetic specifications for producing the utterance.
3. Articulate the meaning conveyed.
4. The listener tries to decode the sender's message.
5. The speaker is able to retract the message in case there is a mistake.

These stages are mentioned in Luque (2008), and they entail five basic processes that take place quickly and fluently: conceptual preparation, grammatical encoding, phonological encoding, articulation and self monitoring and repair. It is pertinent to consider them in detail to comprehend the origin of the utterances of our learners and where their mistakes are initiated.

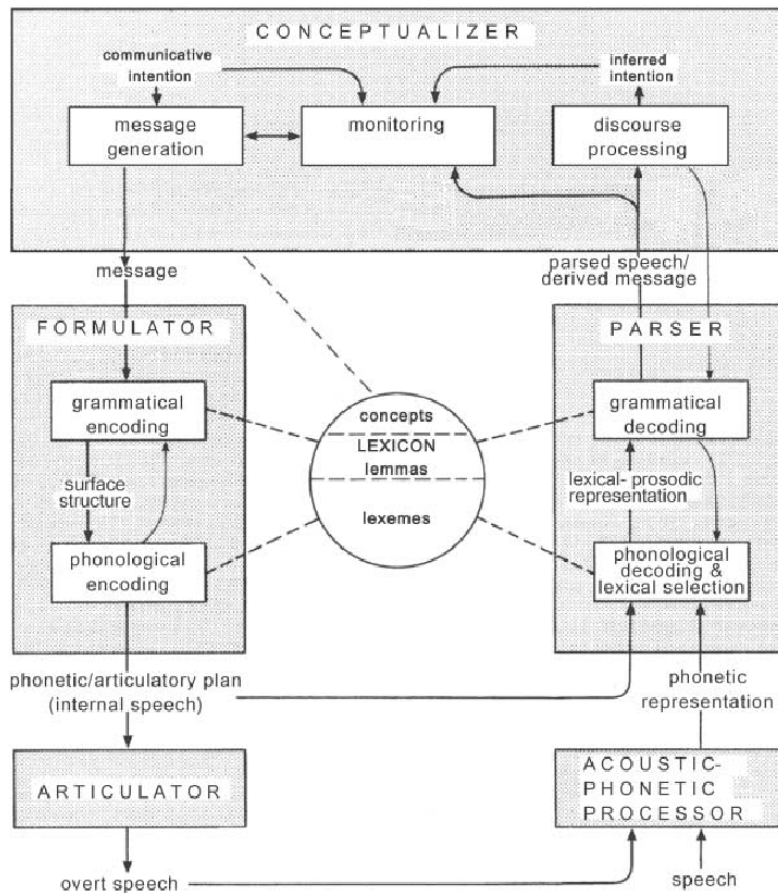


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the processing components involved in spoken language use. Google Images¹.

2.1 Conceptual preparation.

For Levelt (1993), speech starts with the intention of the speaker to communicate. There is something to say, and the speaker is willing to share it. With the intention of sharing the information, the speaker gathers it and selects what the best expression is to execute this function. In this stage, the speaker decides if the information is going to be delivered as a statement, directive, commissive, expressive or declarative, depending on the effect pursued.

¹

https://www.google.com/search?biw=1024&bih=489&tbm=isch&sxsrf=ACYBGNQAhzwo3lIPA_PbNI5byUdKvadoJg%3A1580197848734&sa=1&ei=2OcvXvm8LIGU1fAPk-qymAg&q=Schematic+representation+of+the+processing+components+involved+in+spoken+language+use.+Google+Images&oq=Schematic+representation+of+the+processing+components+involved+in+spoken+language+use.+Google+Images&gs_l=img.3...28089.28089..29276...0.0.0.2269.8759.5-1j8-1j3.....0.....2j1..gws-wiz-img.....35i39j0i19j0i30i19.asTwIurXfPY&ved=0ahUKEwj5iMvb56XnAhUBShUIHRO1DIMQ4dUDCAc&uact=5#imgsrc=Wrm2LrzTrIr9zM:

In the conceptual preparation of a message, the speaker could be implicated in the arrangement of a sequence of speech acts. It involves “macroplanning”: the selection of the information and its linearization; and “microplanning” is required in order to take perspective in the preparation of the message. For example, to delimit backgrounds in a description, going from what is further from what is closer. These factors may have an influence on morphology or syntax (Levelt, 1993).

These two processes of conceptual preparation (macroplanning and microplanning), which are essential in the production of an utterance, allow speakers to offer an organised and structured performance. Therefore, the mistakes that could be produced at this point could be related to the management of the discourse; being able to provide relevant contributions instead of jumping from one step to the next without any logical connection, giving a sense of incoherence.

Keeping this inner composition in mind, the addresser continues to the following process, which is the formulator. It is separated into grammatical and phonological encoding.

2.2 Grammatical encoding.

In this stage, the speaker knows the message he/she wants to communicate, and conveys a surface structure. This structure contains a hierarchical chain where the lowest elements are “lemmas”, referring to all the words stored in a speaker’s lexicon.

The retrieval of these terms is still undefined as any theories of lexical selection seem dubious and polemical (Levelt, 1993). Nevertheless, it is undeniable that in this stage, the mistakes in range and accuracy are originated.

Following the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2018), the stage of formulating a speaker’s thoughts is not easy and learners concentrate their efforts in the accomplishment of the task. This is the reason why grammatical accuracy tends to drop in complicated tasks. This paper (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 133) adds that “research in English, French and German suggests that inaccuracy increases at around B1 as the learner is beginning to use language more independently and creatively.”

On the contrary, the control of familiar vocabulary starts being possible in an A2 level. It is in B1 level when the learner develops the ability to choose from a repertoire. As this

ability improves, the learner experiments a linking process and learns how to relate words, leading to the construction of collocations and lexical chunks, “with one expression triggering another” (Council of Europe, 2018, p.134).

Once the surface structure is provided, the phonological encoding becomes possible. This stage is presented in the following section.

2.3 Phonological encoding.

Phonological encoding refers to the retrieval of the sounds needed to pronounce the utterances which have been assembled. When a chain of words is presented, their shape may be determined by the sounds of surrounding words in the sentence (Levelt, 1993).

The moment that phonological words are assembled, they create ‘phonological phrases’ which are thereupon integrated into ‘intonation phrases’. There is not a strict regulation about the tone a speaker should use, but each language presents varied meanings determined by their tones. Different feelings and emotions may be expressed by the speaker due to the existence of differing tones (for instance, ‘high-fall’ and ‘low-rise’) (Levelt, 1993).

In the examination of the B1 level, intonation is analysed in the pronunciation section.

The CEFR (2018) has changed the scale which measures the phonological encoding because it was not successful. Traditionally, the goal was for a speaker to sound as similar to a subject with a native accent as possible, and the presence of a foreign accent was penalised. The scale has been improved considering instead intelligibility in the message, taking into account context, sociolinguistic aspects and learners’ personal needs. In the present study, the updated scale has been the norm for evaluating phonological encoding.

2.4 Articulation.

When speakers reach the moment of articulation, they do not always strictly follow their phonetic plan. There are indications of the existence of an “articulatory buffer²” which can

² A phonological output buffer “hold(s) on to phonological representations while these are converted into the corresponding articulatory programs (e.g., Fromkin, 1973; Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1979; Ellis, 1980; Garrett, 1980; Dell et al., 1997a).”

facilitate the production of phonetic items. The fewer phonetic items there are, the easier it is for the speaker to produce an utterance.

In the fulfilment of the articulatory programme, a motor system takes the main role encompassing three main parts: the respiratory system, which controls the flow of air; the laryngeal system that governs voicing and loudness in speech; and the vocal tract. The vocal tract consists of three cavities which influence the manner and placement of consonants and vowels.

2.5 Self monitoring and repair.

Speakers are able to detect external and internal mistakes. This occurs in three stages, as we can observe in Figure 1.

Firstly, they have the ability to correct themselves in form and meaning and interrupt their own production process to repair the sentence conveyed. This phenomenon happens even before the utterance is completed. A speaker can also interrupt his/herself before completion of an utterance to repair mistakes in vocabulary and grammar. Finally, repair can be detected after the production of the utterance, when both the speaker and the hearer are able to correct it.

Monitoring involves a complex process and high-level linguistic competence (Luque, 2008). Therefore, the CEFR (2018, p.80) considers that this stage: "covers both the spontaneous realization that one has made a slip or run into a problem and the more conscious and perhaps planned process of going back over what has been said or written and checking it for correctness and appropriateness." Each situation happens depending on the level of the learner. In the CEFR this procedure has its starting point in the B1 level and states that speakers who achieve this level are able to (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 80):

- Correct mix-ups with tenses or expressions which lead to misunderstandings provided the interlocutor indicates there is a problem.
- Ask for confirmation that a form used is correct.
- Start again using a different tactic when communication breaks down.

The term linguistic competence was first coined by Dell Hymes (1974). Whereas monitoring requires a comparably high level of competency, even the most basic

comprehensible interactions will include eight factors defined by Hymes' S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model; outlined in the following subsection.

2.6. Oral production in context.

For Hymes, these eight factors are the core of oral production and constitute the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G mnemonic. They are present in every instance of speech and interaction, and model its structure and manner:

- Setting and Scene: the place where communication takes place.
- Participants: the people involved in the process.
- Ends: the aim of communication.
- Act Sequence: the structure of the act.
- Keys: the tone in which the speech is uttered (formal/informal).
- Instrumentalities: the linguistic and non-linguistic means used to communicate.
- Norms: social rules of the event.
- Genre: the kind of speech.

This model represents the elements which are present when oral production occurs. They delimit communication guidelines and are a clue to suggest that not only language instruction is required to be able to speak a language, but also some innate knowledge of what is contextually acceptable. Learners need to understand that there are external factors that are paramount in exchanges and adapt to these situationally.

If a group of communicatively competent people were given the task of writing a dialogue with a S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model to outline the framework of the communication; it is likely that the members of the group would produce similar dialogues because all of them followed the same guidelines. Although the number of possible human utterances is infinite, the number of contextually acceptable utterances is often much more limited. Thus the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model defines the ethnographic limits of communication.

Further limits of general acceptability have been defined by Grice's maxims (1989).

- The Maxim of Quantity: Be informative.

- The Maxim of Quality: Be truthful.
- The Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.
- The Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous.

These maxims are guidelines to cooperative communication. Whereas Hymes' model is mandatory in any comprehensible interaction, Grice's maxims are a suggestion of ways in which conversation partners can be helpful to one another. The maxim of quantity dictates that speakers should neither say too much nor too little. The maxim of quality suggests that a speaker should only provide information they know to be true or factual. Relation proposes that a speaker should stay on topic and avoid non sequiturs. And finally, the maxim of manner proposes that speakers should attempt to be as clear and concise as comfortably possible. The disobedience of these maxims may not disrupt the intelligibility of the conversation, but can make it more difficult for the next speaker to take their turn or follow the thread of speech.

To summarise, in this section, the stages of oral production have been detailed from the thought in the speaker's mind to the realisation of the utterance and the capacity to rectify one statement. Moreover, speaking in context has been approached through Hymes' S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model and Grice's conversational maxims. In the following section, the role of oral production in language learning and teaching has been analysed within the main methods and approaches.

3. BRIEF HISTORY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING.

If we take a look at the history of language teaching, it seems evident that oral reception and production have not always been a priority in the instruction of languages. In this section, different methods and approaches of language learning and teaching are developed chronologically with a focus on their connection to the oral skills. However, it is pertinent to define what constitutes the difference between a method and an approach.

According to the website of the educator Richards (2013), all the patterns to teach an L2 rely on different sources to establish the principles and practices that are promoted. This refers to the specification of:

- Learning objectives: determine the goals.
- The syllabus: The organization of the primary units for a language course.
- Teacher and learner roles: What they are expected to perform in the classroom.
- Activities: The tasks proposed.

With these specifications in mind, Richards describes that an approach entails the objectives, teacher and learner roles and activities. When teachers decide to choose an approach they may present different procedures to develop the same principles. For instance, Communicative Language Teaching is an example of an approach and it will be expanded in section 3.3.1.

On the other hand, a method introduces the prescribed objectives, the roles of the teacher and learners and classroom activities. Teachers that follow a method will have similar practice as they allow little flexibility or space for improvisation. Examples of methods are Audiolingualism (Section 3.2.3), The Silent Way (Section 3.2.4) or Total Physical Response (Section 3.2.7).

3.1 Traditional Methods.

3.1.1 Grammar Translation Method (GTM).

Traditional methods, such as GTM, left little or no space for oral interaction. The main characteristics of this method which focused on the literal translation of sentences or texts were:

- Explanations were given in the mother tongue.
- Exercises were practiced to apply the knowledge deductively.
- Words were learnt in isolation.
- Literary texts were translated.

As a result, evidence showed the impossibility of learners to communicate in the L2. As the oral skills were not practised there was harsh criticism of this excessively theoretical method (Tejada, Pérez-Cañado & Luque, 2013).

3.1.2 Direct Method (DM).

It was in the middle of the 19th Century when practical use of the language was introduced through the DM, which started to include the practice of oral comprehension and production. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001, pp. 9-10), DM is based on the following principles, all related to the practise of the oral skills:

Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
Grammar was taught inductively.
New teaching points were introduced orally.
Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

Table 1. Oral skills for Direct Method.

The features of this method represented the directives needed to work on the oral skills of the L2. This method was more immersive, not only providing feasible examples of the L2 at work, but simultaneously introducing theoretical features without overtly explaining them.

However, at that time, the drawbacks seemed to be stronger than the advantages it could offer, and it was criticised. Those who were against the Direct Method, argued that

teachers needed to be fluent in the L2 and avoid use of the mother tongue (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Also, this method seemed to rely too heavily on oral skills and it suggested that a more structured basis was required to develop grammatical knowledge of an L2.

3.1.3 Reading Approach (RA)

In the learning of an L2, both written and oral skills are demanded. It is not possible to master a language while lacking one skill. Therefore, in an attempt to select the best features of each converse method and offer a more complete instruction, the Reading Approach was proposed; presenting the following procedures (Tejada et al., 2013, p.165):

- Oral introduction
- L1 is permitted for explanations and meaning.
- Intensive and extensive reading exercises.

Although this method developed listening comprehension, the drawback of this proposal was a negligence of oral production until a more advanced stage. It addressed learner needs that were not covered by GTM and DM: oral reception and lack of theoretical instruction; but students were not applying this knowledge through speech.

Practice of pronunciation by reading aloud.

Comment on aspects of the texts read.

Table 2. Oral skills for Reading Approach

3.2 Major Approaches of the Twentieth Century.

3.2.1 The Oral Approach (OA).

The 20th Century brought other methods which focused on oral skills. The Oral approach was developed by Harold Palmer, A.S. Hornby and other linguists of the 1920s and focused on vocabulary control and reading skills. Basic grammatical patterns were taught orally. Palmer, Hornby and associates carefully selected content to be presented and studied sequentially, along with techniques to carry this out efficiently. This is what makes the Oral approach different from the Direct Method, which lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory and practice.

The main characteristics of this approach are (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.34):

- Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
- The target language is the language of the classroom.
- New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
- Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
- Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
- Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

In this case, it can be seen that this approach centres on the oral competence and it goes one step further in the practice of the oral skills, as there is a sequenced implementation of concepts in order to reach advancement in oral practice.

Instruction in the L2.
Speaking comes first.
Oral production is practiced through situations.

Table 3. Oral skills for Oral Approach.

3.2.2 Situational Language Teaching (SLT).

Taking as a reference the third characteristic, the term “situational” began being used to refer to the Oral Approach, which was named Situational Language Teaching and widely used until the 1980s. The main principle of this approach is not to explain the theory of the language, but to introduce it the way it is used in a real situation.

The Situational Approach followed a Presentation, Practice and Production approach (or P-P-P cycle), according to Richards and Rodgers (2001):

- Presentation: Presentation of new grammatical structures by using dialogues or a short text. The teacher makes an explanation and make sure that learners have understood it.

- Practice: Students work the structure learned in a regulated activity by using drills or performing substitution exercises.
- Production: Learners are ready to use the new structure in different situations, achieving a greater fluency with the new knowledge.

The P-P-P lesson structure has been widely used in language teaching materials and it is still used today in a modified form. Its focus on the oral skills is, by some means, limited. Learners are provided with possible situations in which they can use the language, but these are only basic and controlled steps to reinforce structures. This approach may lead to an entire group having similar answers to one question, as they all follow a model given. There was a need to go further surfaced as oral skills were becoming increasingly integral in the teaching and learning of an L2.

Dialogues or short texts.

Table 4. Oral skills for Situational Language Teaching.

3.2.3 Audiolingual Method (AM)

The government of the United States showed interest in this matter and desired an intense method to learn foreign languages, to avoid becoming isolated from the scientific discoveries made in other countries. The attention given to foreign language teaching towards the end of the 1950s resulted in the emergence of the Audio-lingual method. Teachers were trained to develop a method called Audiolingualism, based on the experience of army programs. The principles of this method are (Tejada et al., 2013):

- The mother tongue is disregarded.
- Use of mimicry and memorization.
- Drills: in order to consolidate patterns.
- Practice of structures through prefabricated dialogues.

This method pursued the practice of the L2 through habit-formation, making students repeat sentences recorded on a tape and practice structures in repetitive drills (Cook, 2017). The result is that despite the quantity of input that learners receive, their only production is

pre-arranged and all of them provide equal interventions without the possibility to reflect on oral production.

Repetition of sentences.

Prefabricated dialogues.

Table 5. Oral skills for Audiolingual Method.

3.2.4 The Silent Way.

The Silent Way is a method which was introduced by Caleb Gattegno (2010), in his book *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*. With this method, he suggested that the teacher would remain silent as much as possible and the learner is encouraged to produce speech and to participate (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

It was a proposition opposite to the traditional way of teaching, in which the teacher explains, and students take notes. In the Silent Way, the mimicry of Audiolingualism and the focus on the oral aspects of the Oral Approach were present. The main features of the Silent Way were (Tejada et al., 2013, p.181):

- Humanistic position: Avoidance of anxious situations.
- Learners as active participants in learning process.
- View of language as structures and vocabulary.
- Learner autonomy promoted.
- Self-correction is fostered.
- Teacher is silent most of the time.
- Teacher as leader and decision-maker.
- Use of repetition.
- Use of Cuisenaire rods.

One positive aspect that this method brought to the development of the oral competence was the designing of roles. Teacher speaking time was limited, which allowed more time for participants to be actively involved in speech production.

Repetition of words and structures.
More possibilities to practice the L2
Self and peer correction.

Table 6. Oral skills for The Silent Way.

3.2.5 Community Language Learning (CLL).

Community Language Learning is a method developed by Charles A. Curran (1976) in which interaction is encouraged between one individual (the counselor) and another individual (the client). The counselor is in charge of giving advice, assistance and support, whereas the client is the learner. Due to its characteristics, representative of a humanistic approach, the method tries to rely on learners' feelings and thoughts, piquing their curiosities and exchanging the roles of counselor and client.

The way to apply this method was with learners placed in a circle and the teacher outside. In Richards and Rodgers (2001) there is a comparison between client-counselor psychological counseling and learner-knower Community Language Learning. The main features of this method are:

1. Both parties accept to take part in the language learning process.
2. Learner conveys the message for another person in the L1.
3. The teacher and learners pay full attention to the speaker.
4. The teacher utters the message in the L2.
5. Learner repeats the message and sends it to the receiver.
6. The receiver responds and every student reflects about the information transferred to the community.

If the steps are correctly followed, Community Language Learner offers multiple benefits for oral expression and interaction. Nevertheless, some authors have seen a drawback which is the number of students. It works in small groups, but in big groups it is impossible for the teacher to attend all their queries.

Nowadays, this method has developed thanks to technology, and learning communities are created in online platforms, in which learners are able to improve their

competence in a language. It is common to see how students are eager to share their knowledge of their native language and they receive answers to their doubts, both written and orally.

Repetition of messages in the L2.

Interaction between learners by answering messages.

Table 7. Oral skills for Community Language Learning.

3.2.6 Suggestopedia.

Suggestopedia is a learning method developed by Georgi Lozanov in the 1970s. The term is shaped with the words “suggestion” and “pedagogy”. As its components suggest, it is an attempt to apply the principles of suggestology in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. It tries to stimulate the human brain to develop a better memory and a greater capacity to learn.

The factors that he took into account in the classrooms were (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.151):

- The decoration, which invites to stay calm and quiet.
- The furniture and arrangement of the place, as it might allow students perform activities such as yoga or relaxation.
- Classical music in the background as a therapy.
- The performance of the teacher. According to him, the instructor should have an authoritative behavior, acting as parents with their children.

The oral skills are implemented through role-play activities after the input provided in the relaxation time. With the knowledge that learners acquire unconsciously, they are able to interact in academic conversations (Tejada et al., 2013).

Role-play activities

Interaction in educational conversations

Table 8. Oral skills for Suggestopedia.

3.2.7 Total Physical Response (TPR).

TPR was developed by James Asher (2012), a professor of psychology at San Jose State University of California. The proposal was the development of adult Second Language Learning in the same way as children acquire their First Language (L1). For him, the repetition of statements that are related to a motor activity would lead to memory association and, therefore, language learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The main characteristics of this method are:

- Contents are introduced through commands. For Asher, the verb in imperative is the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized. In this way, statements were structured in short imperative sentences.
- Oral comprehension is the most basic skill, to be developed before all others. Following TPR, learners show that they understand what they are hearing.
- Learners do not speak until they are ready to do so. They are not required to answer, they are just commanded to perform an action, and their answer is the correct accomplishment of it.
- Grammar is taught inductively. Grammatical structures are converted into actions and if they want to make a more complex speech act, such as a petition: “Dan, ask Patrick to give you the book”.
- Attention is paid to language structure.

This method is favourable for beginners, but it presents inconveniences when dealing with more advanced learners. As it is stated in Richards and Rodgers (2001), Asher does not elaborate on the relation between comprehension, production and communication. Therefore, this was not the correct method to catalyse oral interaction but it is a procedure to start understanding the language. Still, there was the need to find a method to improve oral skills.

Rephrasing of sentences

Table 9. Oral skills for TPR.

3.2.8 The Natural Approach.

In an effort to make learners sound more natural, without the systematised practice of Audiolingualism, Krashen (1985) developed a theory based on the way children learn their L1, referred to as the Natural Approach. It consists of five hypotheses (Tejada et al., 2013, p.175):

1. Acquisition versus learning hypothesis.
2. Natural Order hypothesis.
3. Monitor Hypothesis.
4. Input Hypothesis.
5. Affective filter Hypothesis.

As this approach deems how children acquire the L1, oral production is not required from the first moment, as in TPR. Firstly, there is comprehensible input to later be able to produce a response and communicate. Therefore, Krashen's proposal is not only for beginners but also for more advanced speakers, as the input advances from simplest to most complex, an aspect which is not possible in TPR. Another main difference between these approaches is that the Natural Approach takes into account the feelings of the learner when providing a response.

L2 as classroom language.
Oral production after oral comprehension.
Speaking is not enforced.
Focus on communication rather than form.
Learner monitor utterances.

Table 10. Oral skills for Natural Approach.

These methods and approaches of the second part of the Twentieth Century are the bases of the communicative movement (Tejada, Pérez-Cañado and Luque, 2013). They have developed into current approaches in teaching and learning a foreign language, which are detailed in the next section.

3.3 Present-day Trends.

Communicative Language Teaching has its origins in the late 1960s. At this point, British applied linguists considered more eminent the teaching of what Hymes (1972) designed as communicative competence rather than concentrating on the expertise of grammar structures. At that time, the communicative approach arose as a reaction to traditional fundamentals of methods such as GTM or Audiolingualism (Tejada et al., 2013).

3.3.1 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Communicative Language Teaching arises as the answer to develop communicative proficiency in the target language, instead of memorising rules of grammar or vocabulary, as it was common in some mentioned methods such as Audiolingualism or GTM (Tejada et al., 2005). The appearance of CLT dates from the 60s, when the writings of the scholars of that time, together with the work of the Council of Europe (2001), led to the employment of these practices in textbooks and the quick acceptance of these ideas by British language teaching specialists (Tejada et al., 2013). The promotion that governments conferred to this approach motivated its recognition as the Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

According to Richards (2013), “Communicative language teaching is generally regarded as an approach, because the principles underlying it can be applied in many different ways.” (<https://www.professorjackrichards.com/difference-between-an-approach-and-a-method/>).

From that moment onwards, the CLT approach expanded presenting as its main goals the achievement of communicative competence, and the development of the four central language skills (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, CLT seeks that learners are able not only to produce utterances, but also to be fluent and accurate in the L2. Through this method, the language is acquired by means of communication (Tejada et al., 2013).

L2 as classroom language.

Use the language in different situations and environments.

Production of texts of different nature.

Keep the interaction in spite of the possible deficiencies that the learner may have.

Compensate deficiencies by using communication strategies.

Activities that foster oral production, such as information sharing, interviews and role play.

Table 11. Oral skills for Communicative Language Teaching (Cook, 2017).

These oral skills are developed through the performance of tasks, which leads to the method introduced in the next section, Task Based Learning.

3.3.2 Task Based Approach (TBA).

TBA sees learning as arising from particular tasks that students do in the classroom and has increasingly been seen as a logical development from communicative language teaching (Cook, 2017). This approach concentrates on the completion of tasks with a communicative purpose. The performance of these tasks allows a real use of the language by learners.

Richards, et al. (1986, p.289) cited in Nunan (2004), refers to a task as: an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks.

The gap to be completed in a task may undergo actions of different nature. In this respect, Prabhu (1987) distinguishes three categories of tasks:

- Information-gap activity.
- Reasoning-gap activity.
- Opinion-gap activity.

Given that the task is the epicentre of this method, any possible lapse of concentration on other aspects such as vocabulary or grammar, may distract the attention from the main focus, which is the task. A solution to avoid this to happen is to prepare carefully all these aspects in advance. This means that a task requires several steps to be successful:

- Pre-task. Learners are informed about what they are expected to perform.
- While-task. In groups, students perform the task while the teacher walks around the classroom offering help or just supervising.
- Post-task. It is a review of the work produced.

The stages of TBA present similarities with the P-P-P structure of Situational Language Teaching. Nevertheless, there is a fundamental difference: while in SLT grammar

is “Presented”, in TBA, on the other hand, learners use their own linguistic resources to solve the task, and there is no need to present grammar.

Tasks are indispensable to develop communication successfully. Ellis (2003, p. 6) points out that in TBA, ‘The literature on tasks, both research-based or pedagogic, assumes that tasks are directed at oral skills, particularly speaking’ (Cook, 2017).

Exchanges of information.
Make inferences.
Provide personal opinions.
Oral presentations of outcomes.

Table 12. Oral skills for TBA.

The following section is dedicated to a resource which has existed since the introduction of computers in education. Communicative language teaching has contributed to the efficacy of Computer Assisted Language Learning, and even led to the development of modern cornerstone L2 teaching methodologies.

3.3.3 Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

CALL is defined by Levy (1997, p.1) as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". This resource has its origins in the 1960s, and although it is not a method of L2-teaching, it has emerged as a popular tool in modern L2 learning.

Before the internet, communication was limited, but with the arrival of the Internet, everything changed. Communication became more global, with the obvious impediment of language barriers. This fact gave greater importance to the teaching and learning of languages and online learning programmes emerged.

Whereas the earliest versions of CALL (such as video cassettes, DVDs, etc.) seemed to focus on aspects of grammar, vocabulary, and possible avenues into pronunciation, provided that the learner had the self-motivation to repeat when prompted and self-correct, they neglected important real-life aspects of L2 usage. Finally, through newer tools such as Skype or other devices which create a sort of virtual classroom, skills like discourse management and interaction can be fostered.

In-person education has benefited from the use of smartboards. In relation to oral skills, smartboards can provide visual cues and inspiration for speech production without the teacher having to give the cue in the L1; allowing them to translate, or the L2; allowing them to repeat.

However, the implementation of CALL as a tool in L2 learning has still unfairly disadvantaged the development of oral skills. Oral skills seem to be an afterthought to most applications of CALL which focus heavily on theoretical aspects of an L2, to the deficit of practical application. Although virtual classrooms allowing oral interaction through microphones or cameras have taken a step in the right direction, they can ignore important subtleties of oral comprehension such as body-language, facial expression, and subtler means of perception. These nuances of speech can be lost in something as simple and common as a pixelated image, or audio delays/distortion.

Although CALL can be an effective tool in supporting or catalyzing L2 learning, it still requires a central methodology to use as a basis. One of the most effective modern takes on language learning has been discovered in CLIL.

3.3.4 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

CLIL refers to situations where subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language. The teacher helps students to develop the four skills through authentic materials (Ball, Kelly & Clegg, 2015).

This methodology has been adopted as a response to the EU claims that everyone should be multilingual and the evidence that previous approaches did not help learners accomplish this ability. According to Navés (2002), a CLIL programme maintains learners engaged with demonstrations or visuals and they answer with verbal and non-verbal responses.

L2 as a tool to communicate and to learn.

Authentic exchanges in the L2 with the language assistant.

Oral participation in the lessons, thus fostering active learning.

Integration of the contents of the subject and the knowledge needed to express and understand them in the foreign language.

Mistakes in oral production are allowed and considered a way of learning.

Table 13. Oral skills for CLIL.

CLIL is the methodology followed in bilingual schools and high schools of Andalusia. They are given the opportunity to receive a native language assistant in the bilingual subjects, providing a direct help to bilingual teachers and allowing active learning. Nonetheless, CLIL has garnered criticism about the skills of content teachers in the foreign language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). This is expected to change in the coming years, as the government is considering mandating a higher level of linguistic competence in CLIL instructors.

As we have observed over time, the use of L2 oral skills has been increasing from zero or limited to what we find nowadays; a higher skill level. The implementation of CLIL in Andalusian schools has supposed a step forward in oral production. Spain has experienced its positive effects in recent years and further research has been done in how learners of a second language produce their utterances. In L2 learning, this concept refers to the speaking skill and the results of these studies are enumerated in the following section.

4. PRIOR RESEARCH ON THE EFFECTS OF CLIL.

This section focuses on the effects of CLIL methodology in practice. CLIL has stood out amongst other modern L2 instruction techniques for its level of immersion and relative level of success when compared to other methods; such as those mentioned in section 3. It is also the methodology followed by the students who have participated in this experiment. The studies explained in this section will help to illuminate and justify CLIL's rising importance as a staple of foreign language education in Europe.

Studies related to the outcomes of CLIL have been carried out throughout the past two decades. It is undeniable that bilingualism is becoming a reality and experts as well as users want to know the degree of success or failure of this methodology in every aspect of the L2. There are publications in different countries: Sweden, Austria, The Netherlands, Germany, Italy, and Spain (Goris, Denessen & Verhoeven, 2019), but for this study I have centred on those implemented with Spanish students, in order to provide an answer to the research questions proposed.

The starting point in the study of this field of language in Spain comes by the hands of Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) in the Basque Country. He carried out a longitudinal study on speech production; addressing pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, fluency and content. The results showed considerable differences in favour of the CLIL group in the five categories analysed. As it is known, the Basque Country is a bilingual community (Spanish-Basque) and these students have been exposed to two languages since they were born. Therefore, by some means, they are meant to have an advantage over other monolingual peers in learning an L2. Another aspect to consider is the lack of reference between the student's degree of achievement compared to the CEFR standard directives for mastery of a language.

In the same community a study was conducted by Alonso, Grisaleña and Campo (2008), in which they analysed results on four skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing). The groups were divided into first cycle of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE), second cycle of CSE and post-Compulsory Education. The results were analysed in terms of the CEFR, designating a Preliminary English Test (PET) for students at the beginning of post-Compulsory Education and a First Certificate in English (FCE) test (B2) at the end of the second year of this stage. The results illustrated that CLIL students could pass the PET and FCE tests while none of the non-CLIL group could achieve these levels.

However, in this example, it is paramount to mention that besides participants being bilingual (Spanish-Basque), students with the highest marks were selected for the experiment.

Recently, as CLIL has expanded its practice and more aspects are being analysed, a higher number of studies are being developed in this field. A study focused on oral skills was carried out by Pérez-Cañado and Lancaster (2017) in the monolingual community of Andalusia. It lasted a year and a half and the subjects involved were in 4th year of CSE and progressed to Baccalaureate during the study. The results demonstrate again the success of the CLIL group over the non-CLIL group with significant differences in oral production. This study underscored that subjects of the CLIL group could communicate more effectively in general and that pronunciation and fluency are aspects needing a longer time span to be improved.

These results on aspects of oral production were supported by Pérez-Cañado (2018) in a succeeding study which was developed in three monolingual communities (Andalusia, Extremadura and the Canary Islands). This time, Pérez Cañado analysed oral skills as well as grammar, vocabulary and reading. The results were evaluated after participants completed their education up to the Baccalaureate stage, and it was found that again, the experimental groups surpassed the control group in every aspect considered and with significant differences.

This is a complete study, which takes into account two transitions in education (from Primary to Secondary Education and to Baccalaureate), different types of schools (public, private, and charter) and different provinces. It is similar to the present study in the analysis of the transition from CSE to Baccalaureate with the contrast that the results are not addressed in terms of CEFR standards.

Merino and Lasagabaster (2018) focused on how English proficiency was affected by the level of immersion of CLIL programmes. It was a study carried out in three communities: a bilingual community (Basque Country) and two monolingual communities (La Rioja and Cantabria). Again, the results were favourable for the experimental groups in comparison to the control group in the tests of a Key English Test (KET).

Goris et al. (2019) offer a comparative analysis of studies on the effects of CLIL in several countries of the EU. The conclusions inferred in this article are that Spain is one of the countries where the implementation of CLIL has led to suppose a considerable improvement in oral competence. Traditionally, Spain has presented a low population of people able to

maintain a conversation in an L2. Thus, this enhancement is attributed to the fact that there was more space for improvement in Spain than in other countries where there was a large population with a skilful command of English as an L2.

In conclusion, many published studies analyse the effects of CLIL (mainly comparing it to the non-CLIL programme), but a few of them focus on the relationship to the already established CEFR levels. In the present study, the oral skills of a group of students who have finished the CSE stage have been analysed according to the guidelines determined by the CEFR for a B1 level.

In the following section, the research methodology is included.

5. METHODOLOGY.

5.1 Research design.

This case study takes an analytic and applied approach to its central question: What are the effects of CLIL on oral competence in Andalusia? It addresses this question inductively by not providing solely research and results, but also examining the possibilities for why and how the results are as they present themselves and the specific areas of CLIL that have benefited or disadvantaged oral competence. This will be done through a quantitative analysis of cross-sectional data collected at the start of the academic year; categorizing the type and number of mistakes into the four established categories of dependent variables.

The finalized statistics will then be interpreted as a general theory by pinpointing patterns and tendencies within the data.

5.2 Sample / participants.

The subjects involved in this research are a group of 20 Spanish students in First Year of Baccalaureate who study English as a Second Language. They are between 16 and 18 years old. They have studied English since they were in primary school, though the level of spoken and written English is diverse. There are no special educational needs in this group. Their high school is placed in a small town of Cadiz and it is bilingual (Spanish-English).

They have benefited from the instruction of teachers who are recognised with a B2 level of English and the presence of a language assistant who offered support in content-based subjects such as history, physical education or music.

The group is composed of 12 students who have been part of the bilingual programme during their previous educational stages plus 8 students who have not belonged to the aforementioned programme. Although prior marks were not obtained, a pre-study questionnaire (See annex 1) showed that on average, students who were a part of the bilingual programme and had completed prior oral exams felt more comfortable in their abilities to perform well in this study.

In order to preserve the privacy of the students, they are going to be referred to with numbers. The 12 bilingual students are numbered from 1 to 12 and the 8 non-bilingual students are numbered from 13 to 20.

5.3 Variables.

The variables studied in this research are dependent, since the results obtained change when these variables change. With the B1 oral exam performed, the variables measured have been (Council of Europe, 2018):

❖ Range and accuracy: This refers to the grammatical structures and vocabulary that students of this level are supposed to master. Grammatically, students at this point in their studies are expected to know:

- Present simple/present continuous.
- Past simple/past continuous.
- Present perfect/past perfect/past perfect continuous.
- Future tenses.
- Relative clauses.
- Direct and indirect speech.
- Passive sentences.
- Conditional sentences.
- Modals (Simple and perfect).

In terms of vocabulary, they have worked on topics such as free time activities, holidays or jobs. Apart from these words, they are expected to add terms studied during the academic year, related to the semantic fields of:

- Technology.
- Personal relationships.
- Health and sports.
- Places.
- Money and business.
- The environment.

- Culture and traditions.
- ❖ Fluency and coherence. These students know several resources that may be employed in order to achieve discourse management:
 - Cohesive devices.
 - Connected vocabulary.
 - Grammatical devices.
 - Discourse markers.
 - Stretches of language.
 - Relevance of ideas.
- ❖ Pronunciation. What students have worked on during their CSE stage:
 - Pronunciation of vowels, diphthongs, triphthongs and consonants.
 - Sounds which do not exist in the native language of the speaker and may result in more errors.
 - How to stress words correctly.
 - Intonation, the falls and rises of the voice in order to convey different meanings.
- ❖ Communication strategies. Students know some tactics that they apply while they are interacting.
 - Active participation in a discussion in which students are provided with a situation and they have to reach an agreement.
 - Avoid short answers in order to maintain the interaction.

Each variable is going to be evaluated according to the following terms (Council of Europe, 2018):

- ❖ Range and accuracy. In this part, the items being evaluated are:

- The appropriateness of the vocabulary employed; that is, if words fit in the sentences.
- Flexibility: the capacity to adapt the language by reformulating or paraphrasing ideas.
- Grammatical control: the ability to consistently use grammar accurately and appropriately to convey intended meaning.
- Grammatical forms: both simple and complex.
- Range: the different words and grammatical forms that learners are able to use according to their level.

❖ Fluency and coherence.

- Exchanges must be easily followed by listeners (teacher, partner) without stopping in the middle of a sentence or hesitating excessively to the extent that they are not able to follow the thread of their turn.
- They have to be unified and well structured in order to achieve coherence.

❖ Pronunciation.

- Intelligibility of utterances.
- Intonation.
- Sentence and word stress.
- Individual sounds.

❖ Communication strategies.

- Development of the interaction.
- Initiating and responding: Do not wait until being asked; making questions and reacting to others' contributions.
- Prompting and supporting: assist the partner's performance, allowing him/her to develop an idea.
- Turn and simple exchange.

5.4 Instruments.

1. A questionnaire (Annex 1):

- ❖ Instrument Design: The resource is a questionnaire offering questions of different nature: if it is the first time they perform an oral exam, their level of confidence, their expected mark and their final mark.
- ❖ Instrument validation: In order to confirm the viability of the instrument, four other expert teachers in the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) have validated the questionnaire. They incorporated comments and suggestions. The pilot study was performed with 30 students who are in the same year as the participants and share a similar profile.
- ❖ Instrument administration: It has been self-administered in order to get individual answers. It has been paper-based format, carried out in the classroom before and after the exam, in order to obtain reliable answers. This questionnaire was not meant as a diagnostic test to assess the students' level; but rather as a means to assess their levels of comfort and confidence.

2. Oral exam:

- ❖ Instrument design: The resource is a PET exam similar to the official exams stated by the CEFR. It consists of four parts which are:
 - Part 1: Personal information (Annex 2). Students answer some questions about their family, studies, home town, free time, etc.
 - Part 2: Simulated situation (Annex 3). Students talk about a situation which is presented on a sheet of paper. They can make suggestions and discuss alternatives.
 - Part 3: Describing a photo (Annex 4). Students talk about a photo in colour.
 - Part 4: Discussion (Annex 5). Students talk with the other candidate about a topic. They give their opinion and explain their preferences.
- ❖ Instrument validation: This test has been validated by other four expert teachers which are part of the English Department, who considered it to be appropriate for our

participants. The pilot study was performed with the same 30 students that completed the questionnaire.

- ❖ Instrument administration: The oral exam has been administered in pairs with a paper-based format for the pictures and situations.

3. Rubric for assessment:

- ❖ Instrument design: The resource which has been used in this case is a rubric, ranking from 0 to 5 the four variables that are being measured. The assessment scales have been created following the official Speaking Scales of the Preliminary English Test (See annex 6). The maximum that students are able to obtain is 20 points; with 5 points per category signifying a perfect performance, 3 points an average contribution, and 1 point implying a poor expression (severe mistakes that impede intelligibility). Extra indications of what entails a minor or severe mistake have been included (see annex 7), in order to make the rubric clearer.
- ❖ Instrument validation: This rubric has been validated by the four Staff members of the English Department. The same four variables as used in the 30-participant pilot study were employed for a second time.
- ❖ Instrument administration: It has been self-administered; participants know from the beginning the criteria used for assessment. There is a part of the sheet where the teacher writes the mistakes detected in order to comment on them later on and learn from their corrections. They can keep a copy of this paper to analyse their performance carefully.

5.5 Procedure.

The study has been carried out at the start of the first academic year of Baccalaureate. This group, as it has been mentioned, is mixed and formed by students who come from different programmes of Secondary Education. Nevertheless, in the English lessons, all of these students have followed the Communicative approach, which has been described in section 3.3. Moreover, bilingual students have followed a CLIL methodology in the subjects of history, music, and physical education during the four years of CSE.

This group of students includes CLIL and non-CLIL learners, all of which completed a pre-test questionnaire focusing on their confidence and attitudes towards their ability to succeed. In order to pinpoint the mistakes that students experience, they have performed the four parts of a PET test in pairs.

Before receiving the results of their tests, students performed another questionnaire to share their experience and self-evaluation. After completing this test, they received positive and negative feedback about their execution.

Finally, the results obtained have been analysed in order to provide answers to the research questions proposed in section 1.2. These results are shown in charts and thereafter discussed to reach a conclusion.

5.6 Data collection.

The performance of the oral exam is collected in a rubric (see Annex 6) which measures the level that students show in grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation and interactive communication. In order to obtain a reliable mark, the official rubric of the CEFR has been followed to provide reliability to the Test. An empty space has been left to write down annotations and observations that would be commented later on with the students.

5.7 Data Analysis.

In order to address research questions (RQs) 1 and 2, the official marks of the students have been shown to indicate whether or not they passed the exam. The table includes all the participants; specifying if they have been part of the bilingual or non-bilingual group, the points obtained in each variable measured and the final mark out of 20. In addition, the average of these points for each subgroup and variable has been indicated as calculated with Microsoft Excel.

To provide an answer to research question (RQ) 3, the data have been analysed according to the number of mistakes made by both subgroups in each variable.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.

6.1 Results and discussion.

6.1.1. Answer to RQ 1 and 2.

GROUP	Student	Points obtained in each variable (out of 5)				Final Mark (out of 20)	Passing Grade (Yes/No)
		Gram mar & Vocab	Disc. manageme nt	Pronunciation	Interactive communicati on		
CLIL	Student 1	1	1	1	5	8	No
	Student 2	1	1	1	5	8	No
	Student 3	1	5	5	5	16	Yes
	Student 4	3	5	5	5	18	Yes
	Student 5	1	5	5	5	16	Yes
	Student 6	3	3	3	3	12	Yes
	Student 7	1	5	5	5	16	Yes
	Student8	5	5	3	5	18	Yes
	Student 9	1	3	1	3	8	No
	Student 10	5	5	5	5	20	Yes
	Student 11	3	1	1	3	8	No
	Student 12	1	5	5	5	18	Yes
	<i>Average</i>	<i>2.167</i>	<i>3.67</i>	<i>3.33</i>	<i>4.5</i>	<i>13.83</i>	<i>Yes</i>
Non-CLIL	Student 13	1	1	1	1	4	No
	Student 14	3	5	5	5	18	Yes
	Student 15	1	1	1	1	4	No
	Student 16	1	1	1	3	6	No
	Student 17	3	3	1	3	10	Yes
	Student 18	1	1	1	1	4	No
	Student 19	1	3	1	1	6	No
	Student 20	1	3	1	5	10	Yes
	<i>Average</i>	<i>1.5</i>	<i>2.56</i>	<i>1.5</i>	<i>2.5</i>	<i>7.67</i>	<i>No</i>
TOTAL		1.9	3.1	2.6	3.7	11.4	Yes

Table 14. Individual results of the oral test.

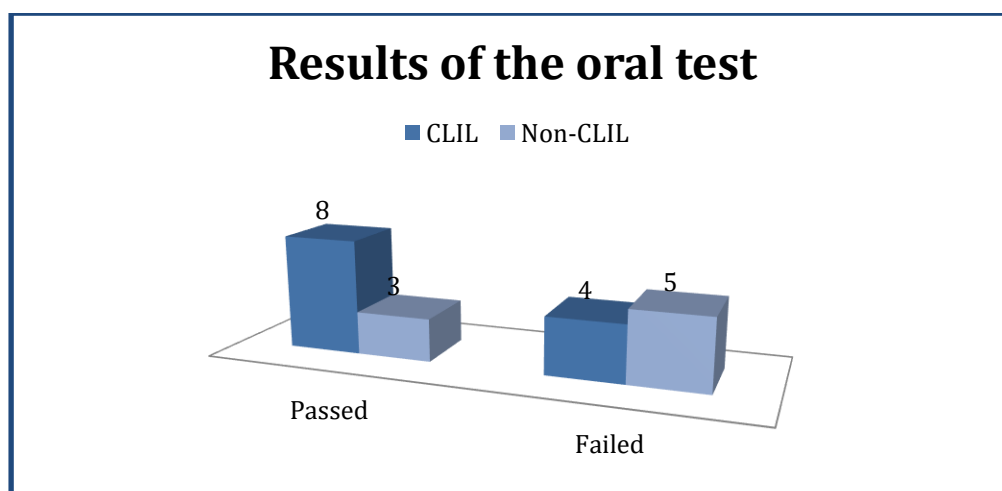


Chart 1. Results of the oral test.

After Compulsory Secondary Education, we can observe in Table 14 and chart 1 that many students are able to pass an oral B1 exam. In our group, eleven of the twenty students who took part in the experiment obtained 10 or higher points, which means that 55% of participants achieved the required level of oral competence. Overall, the students averaged a passing score of 11.4.

In relation to the CLIL subgroup, eight students out of twelve were able to pass the test, representing 66,6%; and the other four students of the CLIL subgroup who did not succeed represent the remaining 33,3%. The CLIL subgroup presented with an overall test average of 13.83. With respect to the Non-CLIL subgroup, three students out of eight completed the test successfully (37,5%), while the other five did not qualify for a passing grade. Despite the successes of the three students, they did not outweigh their counterparts; resulting in a non-passing average score of only 7.75 for the non-CLIL subgroup.

The lowest obtained score for the non-CLIL group was 4, while the highest obtained score was 18. This is contrary to the CLIL group, who had a low of 8 - nearing the passing score - and a high of a perfect 20 out of 20. Of the passing CLIL scores, the average was 16.75; compared to a passing average of only 11 by the non-CLIL participants. These data suggest that although there were passing grades amongst the non-CLIL subgroup, their overall grasp of English was notably lower than those of the CLIL subgroup.

Therefore, the answer for RQ1 is that many Andalusian students are able to pass an oral B1 exam after Compulsory Secondary Education. However; the results suggest that there is a direct relationship between being part of the CLIL programme and better results in oral

exams. For this reason, CLIL methodology can be considered as an effective reaction to low EFL proficiency, supporting previous studies conducted in this field mentioned in section 4.

6.1.2. Answer to RQ 3.

Variable	Group	Number of minor mistakes	Number of severe mistakes	Total number of mistakes
Grammar & Vocab	CLIL	4	11	15
	Non-CLIL	12	23	35
Discourse management	CLIL	2	3	5
	Non-CLIL	5	7	12
Pronunciation	CLIL	2	5	7
	Non-CLIL	4	15	19
Interactive communication	CLIL	2	0	2
	Non-CLIL	0	9	9

Table 15. Mistakes for each category and typology.

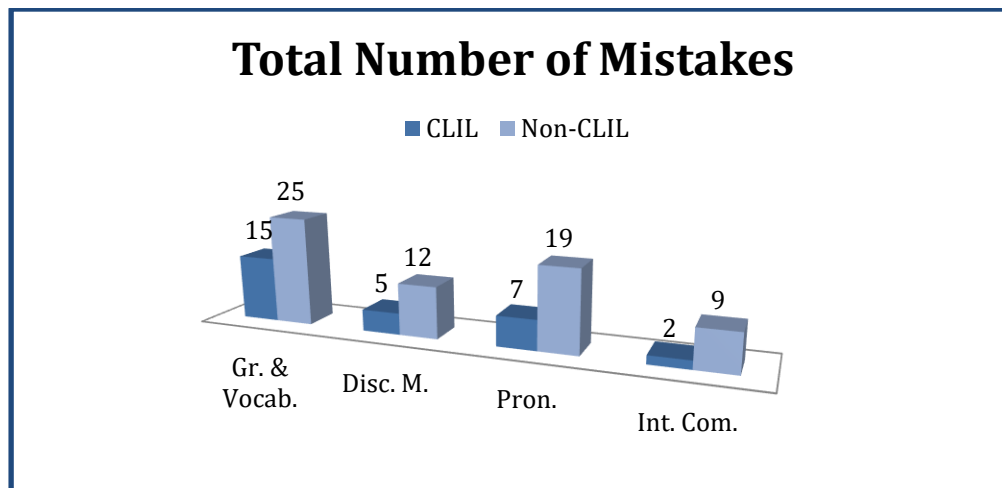


Chart 2. Total Number of Mistakes.

The area with more mistakes in both groups is grammar and vocabulary. The total average score for this category was only 1.9 out of 5, with an average of 2.17 for CLIL participants and 1.5 for non-CLIL participants. Although CLIL students outperformed the non-CLIL students, this was the worst category for both subgroups; suggesting that the development of new grammar and vocabulary are the hardest topics for all students to successfully pass.

The non-CLIL subgroup struggled equally with the pronunciation category, averaging the same underwhelming score of 1.5/5, compared to the CLIL subgroup's average of 3.33. The overall performance average between both subgroups for pronunciation was 2.6, constituting the second-hardest category for students to pass.

It is worth noting at this point, that although these categories prompted the worst marks, this may not be a direct reflection on students' progress in each respective category. Following the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018, p.133) it is typical that students around the B1 level experience a decline in their ability to employ grammatical structures correctly in more complex sentences and situations as it has been mentioned in section 2.2. This simultaneously explains the poor performances in grammar/vocabulary and the higher performances in interactive communication and discourse management: the students are attempting to maintain and contribute to the conversation to the fault of perfect grammar.

The pre-test questionnaire showed a trend in which students who felt more confident performed better, particularly in the categories of Discourse Management and Communicative Interaction. This suggests that confidence may have a correlation to the general ability to maintain a comfortable conversation; even in those situations where grammar/vocabulary and pronunciation still faltered. Higher levels of confidence seem to correlate to a higher quality of discourse.

	BEFORE		AFTER	
	Prior performance	Confidence	Expected grade	Obtained grade
Student 1	Yes	3	8	8
Student 2	Yes	3	10	8
Student 3	Yes	1	16	16
Student 4	Yes	1	18	18
Student 5	Yes	3	18	16
Student 6	Yes	2	10	12
Student 7	Yes	3	12	16
Student 8	Yes	1	18	18
Student 9	Yes	3	10	8
Student 10	Yes	3	18	20
Student 11	No	2	4	8

Student 12	Yes	1	18	18
Student 13	No	2	10	4
Student 14	Yes	3	12	18
Student 15	No	2	0	4
Student 16	Yes	3	10	6
Student 17	Yes	3	10	10
Student 18	No	2	4	4
Student 19	Yes	3	10	6
Student 20	Yes	3	10	10

Table 16. Individual results of the Pre-test Questionnaire.

6.2 Lines for future research.

Our outcomes allude to the significance of the effects of CLIL on the L2 oral performances of post-secondary students in Andalusia. The results seem noteworthy enough to prompt further and broader research into this topic with more participants and the possibility for statistical analysis.

The results of the pre-test questionnaires showed that students feeling more confident performed better overall; specifically in the sections of discourse management and interactive communication. This information may prompt further questioning into the effects of confidence on oral competency.

7. CONCLUSION.

This study aimed to provide further clarity on the effects of CLIL in post-secondary education; particularly on its effectiveness in aiding students preparing for their oral B1 exam.

Although both subgroups analysed proved capable of passing their oral exam; generally, the CLIL students obtained higher scores with more consistency. The performance of non-CLIL students averaged a failing grade and any passing grades were typically not high. Not all CLIL students passed the exam, but they averaged a much higher score and passed with larger margins than their non-CLIL counterparts. These findings further reinforce prior studies on the effects of CLIL, such as those carried out by Ruiz de Zarobe (2008); Alonso, et al. (2008); Pérez-Cañado & Lancaster (2017); Pérez-Cañado (2018); Merino & Lasagabaster (2018); and Goris et al. (2019). This information suggests that participation in bilingual programs using CLIL has a direct effect on a students' ability to perform well in oral exams.

Universally, students seemed to struggle in the area of Grammar/Vocabulary. This information echoes the findings of the Council of Europe (2018), further highlighting the non-linear nature of L2 development. As students begin to become more comfortable and confident in their control of an L2, their ability to converse naturally improves as their grammar temporarily falters.

Overall, the information in this study serves to fortify prior research on CLIL as an effective method of L2 instruction and as an appropriate reaction to low levels of L2 competency that have been observed in our region for many years. Further research may be conducted with larger sample sizes to continue outlining the full scope and limitations of CLIL.

7.1 Limitations of the study.

First, the official rubric does not specify errors; rather, it simply provides an outline for analysis. There is a need to classify errors more concretely and more consistently. Although the CEFR provides guidelines to evaluating Grammar/Vocabulary and Pronunciation, there is no tangible way to grade the severity of specific errors. It is up to individual instructors how they interpret the CEFR and how they wish to apply it. The concrete manner of assessing each category through severe and minor mistakes was an attempt to quantitatively define a

qualitative grasp of an L2 in order to maintain a consistent standard for each student. The developed rubric, a reflection of the CEFR, shows more possible mistakes for pronunciation and grammar/vocabulary than the other variables. It is possible that this standardization led to a skewed number of errors in certain categories.

Another limitation is that language is graded with numbers. Grading a language is inexact; there are many ways to express oneself and many ways to interpret. It is possible that a different instructor performing the same tests with the same participants would have a different interpretation of the CEFR and thus have different results.

Finally, there are only 20 participants. This is not a large enough sample size to test for statistical significance; thus it is unknown whether these results are truly significant for Andalusia/Spain.

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Annex 1 – This is the questionnaire created to determine the previous experience of students and confidence in oral exams.

Name:

1 = Yes

2= No

3 = Somewhat

- Before the exam

1. Is this the first time that you perform an oral exam in English? 1 2
2. Do you feel confident for the exam? 1 2 3
3. Do you think that you are ready to perform the exam? 1 2 3
4. Do you think that you are able to pass it? 1 2 3

- After the exam

1. Do you feel happy with your performance? 1 2 3
2. Do you think that you were prepared for the exam? 1 2 3
3. What mark do you expect? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

- After receiving the mark:

1. What is your final mark? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Annex 2 - PART 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

In PART 1 you have to: give personal information, answer questions about your family, studies, home town, free time, and jobs. Spell a word.

Possible questions

Home town

- Where are you from?
- Is it easy to meet new people where you live?
- What's the best place to spend a free afternoon in your town?
- How expensive is it to go out in the evening where you live?
- Could you tell me something about the area where you grew up?
- Could you describe your family home to me?

Free time

- Tell me about a day you have really enjoyed recently.
- Are you planning to do something special this weekend?
- How much time do you spend at home?
- What did you do on your last birthday?
- Do you like cooking?
- What's your favourite food?
- What's your favourite day of the week? Why?
- Do you like sport? Is there a sport or hobby you enjoy doing?
- How much exercise do you take each week?
- Do you ever go to concerts?
- Do you like shopping?
- Tell me about a film you really like.

Education and Work

- Do you use the internet to learn new things?
- Do you prefer working on your own or with other people?
- What do you think would be the most interesting job to do?

- Can you remember your first English lesson?

Travel and holidays

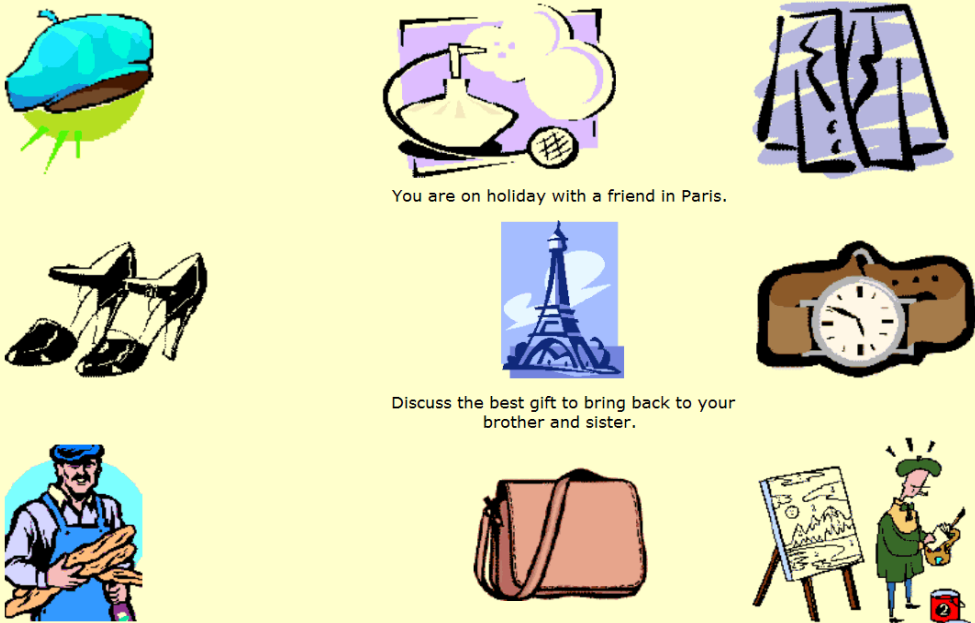
- Where would you most like to go on holiday in the future?
- Do you prefer travelling by train or by plane?
- Do you plan your holidays or decide everything spontaneously?
- Have you ever used English while travelling?

Annex 3 - PART 2: SIMULATED SITUATION

In PART 2 you have to: talk about a situation which is illustrated on a sheet of paper.

Make suggestions and discuss alternatives.

A Souvenir from Paris



You are on holiday with a friend in Paris.

Discuss the best gift to bring back to your brother and sister.

Figure 2. Example of part 2 of PET³.

³ <https://petspeakingtest.wordpress.com/part-2/>

Annex 4 - PART 3: DESCRIBING A PHOTO

In PART 3 you have to: talk about a colour photo.

Picture 1



Figure 3. Picture to be described⁴.

Picture 2



Figure 4. Picture to be described⁵.

⁴ <http://carmenmariaenglishblog.blogspot.com/2014/04/how-to-describe-pictures-and.html>

⁵ <http://4.bp.blogspot.com/-4kWO8SX16PE/VkZePADeJVI/AAAAAAAAACxo/TKeGfu1w5Mw/s1600/chica-estudiando.jpg>

Annex 5 - PART 4: DISCUSSION

In PART 4 you have to: talk with the other candidate about a topic related to part 3. You give your opinion about something and explain what you prefer.

Example:

- Do you prefer to stay indoors and chat online with friends or staying outdoors and spending a day in the countryside with the family?
- Do you prefer to live in the city or in a village?

Annex 6 - Rubric

B1	GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY	DISCOURSE MANAGEMENT	PRONUNCIATION	INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION
5	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms and attempts some complex grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics.	Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. Contributions are relevant despite some repetition. Uses a range of cohesive devices.	Is intelligible. Intonation is generally appropriate. Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.
4	Performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5.			
3	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.	Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition. Uses basic cohesive devices.	Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.
2	Performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3.			
1	Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics.	Produces responses which are characterised by short phrases and frequent hesitation. Repeats information or digresses from the topic.	Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.	Maintains simple exchanges, despite some difficulty. Requires prompting and support.
Performance below Band 1				

Table 17. University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations. ESOL.⁶

⁶ 168150-cambridge-english-preliminary-teachers-handbook.pdf

Annex 7 - Specifications of the rubric that I have created to clarify and classify mistakes according to their relevance.

GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY

Severe mistakes (i.e. mistakes that correspond to obtaining 1 point)
1. Agreement of person (masculine/feminine).
2. Agreement of number (singular/plural).
3. Sentence without a verb.
4. Sentence without subject.
5. Auxiliary verbs.
6. Comparatives.
7. Use words in Spanish/Spanglish/Franglais or any other language different from English.
8. Use of the article “the”.
9. Mistakes in orthography that lead to a fault in speaking.
10. Arrangement of questions.

Table 18. Severe mistakes in grammar and vocabulary.

Minor mistakes (i.e. mistakes that correspond to obtaining 3 points)
1. Prepositions.
2. Irregular nouns.
3. Perfect tenses.
4. Ending of adjectives: ed/ing.
5. Temporal expressions.
6. Prepositions of place.
7. Negative structures.
8. Order of sentence elements.
9. Choice of tense.

Table 19. Minor mistakes in grammar and vocabulary.

DISCOURSE MANAGEMENT

Severe mistakes

1. Shorter answers than expected: for instance, making the description of the photo short.
2. Hesitations that lead to a misunderstanding of the utterance.
3. Answers which are not correct and are not the responses of the question:
“-What is your favourite subject?
-Google Translator.”

Table 20. Severe mistakes in discourse management.

Minor mistakes

1. Shorter answers than expected: for instance, do not talk about the details of a picture, explain only a general view.
2. Digression from the topic and making of no relevant contributions:
3. Hesitations of seconds that allow the student to think and continue.

Table 21. Minor mistakes in discourse management.

PRONUNCIATION

Severe mistakes

1. Sound /tʃ/
2. Sound /g/
3. Endings in /k/ instead of /g/
4. /ʌ/ vowel.
5. /t/ instead of /θ/
6. /ʃ/ as in /'ʃɔ:rts/
7. Diphthongs.
8. Change of sounds:
9. Omission of sounds: Just /'dʒʌst/ is pronounced as /jut/
10. Aspiration of vowels: they are /hare/
11. Suffix -able: For example, in the word “comfortable”.

12. Pronunciation of a word in Spanish.

Table 22. Severe mistakes in pronunciation.

Minor mistakes

1. Vowel /3:/ as in words such as “search” /'s3:rtʃ/ or “girl” /'g3:rl/
2. -ed endings as in “stressed” /'streʃt/
3. Easily confusing words: “teacher” /'ti:tʃər/ and “t-shirt” /'ti:ʃ3:t/

Table 23. Minor mistakes in pronunciation.

INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION

Severe mistakes

1. Very simple exchanges, including short answers when they are asked.
“-Do you think that he would like this watch?
-Yes”.
2. Answers in Spanish:
“-How are you?
-Bien”
3. Requires a lot of support to provide an answer:
“- Can you tell me about your best friend?
-(No answer)
- Who is your best friend?
- Helena”.

Table 24. Severe mistakes in interactive communication.

Minor mistakes

1. Requirement of little support when a question is not understood.

Table 25. Minor mistakes in interactive communication.

