

## *L1 in CLIL: the case of Castilla-La Mancha*\*

### *L1 en AICLE: el caso de Castilla-La Mancha*

**Ana Martín-Macho Harrison**

Facultad de Educación de Toledo, Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha

[ana.martimmacho@uclm.es](mailto:ana.martimmacho@uclm.es)

**ORCID ID:** <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7147-6098>

**Fátima Faya Cerqueiro**

Facultade de Educación, Universidade de Santiago de Compostela

[fatima.faya@usc.es](mailto:fatima.faya@usc.es)

**ORCID ID:** <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5823-1934>

DOI: 10.17398/1988-8430.31.143

Fecha de recepción: 03/03/2019

Fecha de aceptación: 11/09/2019

Esta obra está publicada bajo una licencia Creative Commons



Martín-Macho Harrison, A., y Faya Cerqueiro, F. (2020). L1 in CLIL: the case of Castilla-La Mancha. *Tejuelo* 31, 143-174.

Doi: <https://doi.org/10.17398/1988-8430.31.143>

\* The authors are grateful to the research group *CACLE (Comunicación, Aprendizaje y Competencias en Lengua Extranjera)* for their generous help.

**Resumen:** La enseñanza AICLE implica impartir una DNL (Disciplina No Lingüística) a través de una segunda lengua o lengua extranjera (L2), integrando lengua y contenido. Sin embargo, esta descripción general ignora los contextos docentes donde se emplea la lengua materna (L1). La elección de la lengua puede tener consecuencias tanto en la metodología, en situaciones de aula que favorezcan el uso de la L1, como en los instrumentos de evaluación. Actualmente, los investigadores admiten la importancia de la L1 en AICLE y la legislación sigue gradualmente sus indicaciones. Se ha llevado a cabo un estudio piloto entre maestros de Educación Primaria en la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha, España, con el fin de comprobar cómo se abordan estos temas/retos en la escuela. El objetivo del presente estudio es comparar los principales puntos de vista de los agentes implicados en AICLE. El estudio presenta una revisión bibliográfica de las tendencias y estudios recientes sobre AICLE y muestra cómo los últimos cambios legislativos en nuestra región se han adaptado a la investigación. Las opiniones expresadas por maestros en activo revelan la necesidad de indicaciones más claras en la legislación, que debe acercarse a la práctica docente.

**Palabras clave:** AICLE; Evaluación; Educación Primaria; Legislación Educativa.

**Abstract:** CLIL settings involve teaching a content subject through a second or foreign language (L2), integrating both language and content. However, this general description ignores classroom scenarios which include the use of the mother tongue (L1). The language choice may affect both methodological practices, namely classroom situations that favour the use of the L1, and also assessment instruments. Nowadays, scholars admit on the relevance of the L1 in CLIL and legislation gradually adapts to these indications. We have conducted a pilot study among primary school teachers in the autonomous region of Castilla-La Mancha, Spain, in order to check how these issues are tackled at school. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to establish a comparison between the main views expressed by stakeholders involved in CLIL. The study presents a review of recent trends and studies in CLIL research that take into account the role of the L1 in methodology and in assessment, and it shows how recent policy changes in our region have adapted to research. Opinions held by in-service teachers reveal the need for clear policy guidelines, which must necessarily be close to classroom practice.

**Keywords:** CLIL; Assessment; Primary Education; Educative Legislation.

# **I**ntroduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is nowadays a well-established methodology, and as such it has experienced a growth in the range of research areas explored by scholars. Most common topics regard benefits and outcomes of CLIL instruction: it favours receptive skills and vocabulary in the L2; whereas writing and syntax seem unaffected (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Pérez-Vidal, 2011).

CLIL is often portrayed as a particularly useful approach from Secondary Education onwards, when students have already a thorough knowledge of the L2. Nevertheless, different scholars have argued in favour of an early implementation, which can provide learners with more communication and interaction opportunities from a younger age and also because primary school teachers can take advantage of the different subjects they teach to establish interconnections (cf. Massler, Stotz and Queisser, 2014: 137-138).

Given the different educational policies across Europe, the CLIL approach has been adapted and used differently depending on

legislative frameworks and on the particular needs of students and schools in each region (Coyle, Holmes and King, 2009: 6). Whereas most CLIL materials might be shared by teachers from different countries or regions, this is not always the case with assessment rubrics and instruments which must necessarily be adapted to the local norms.

Our study focuses on the combination of two of the least explored aspects within CLIL research: L1 and assessment. On the one hand, the use of L1 has traditionally been controversial. Scholars have recently tried to answer questions such as whether L1 should be allowed at all or even used for methodological purposes. There seems to have been an evolution from an L2-only policy to a more encompassing and less strict approach which welcomes translanguaging, defined by García as “the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential” (2009: 140). Following Lasagabaster (2016: 252): “despite a widespread unwritten policy boosting the exclusive use of English, the most prevalent bilingual practice seems to be translanguaging”.

On the other hand, probably due to its particular characteristics, assessment is one of the least explored aspects. According to Astin and Antonio (2012: 3) “the term *assessment* can refer to two different activities: (a) the mere gathering of information (measurement) and (b) the use of that information for institutional and individual improvement (evaluation)”. Suskie (2018: 10) summarises the three aims of assessment as “ensuring and improving educational quality, stewardship and accountability.” Formative assessment, as opposed to summative, is useful and necessary for teachers and students to see progression, although assessment in our education system is generally associated to grading purposes. Here, we will use *assessment* as an umbrella term.

In CLIL contexts, it can be difficult to decide how to assign weights to content and to language when not specified by the legislator, and it is similarly problematic to decide if the L1 is allowed to play any role in the assessment process. Coyle *et al.* propose a holistic assessment of language and content in early stages (2009: 20).

However, analytic rubrics can provide a greater amount of feedback and are also proposed as useful tools to integrate language and content assessment, as lexicon and grammar, among other language features, are needed to express content (cf. Barbero, 2012).

In this paper we aim to contrast what theorists say about L1 in CLIL settings, what legislation establishes and what practitioners do, more specifically in Primary Education schools in Castilla-La Mancha, a region which has fostered bilingual education programmes for several decades and where policies have recently changed. This paper discusses the results of a pilot study carried out before this change, which was designed taking into account some of the major concerns of CLIL teachers (cf. Llinares, Morton and Whittaker, 2012).

## **1. The role of L1 in CLIL**

### ***1.1. L1 in methodology***

Early approaches on CLIL favoured an L2-only classroom to teach the contents through the foreign language, and the proposal of a monolingual environment was the ideal practitioners should aspire to. There is also a traditional widespread belief that multilinguals' communicative competence should equate to those of a monolingual (cf. Gorter and Cenoz, 2017). Lin (2015) links this idea to the influence of second/foreign language acquisition on CLIL, and more specifically to issues such as the “maximum input hypothesis”, which advocates for providing learners with the maximum amount of input in order to favour L2 acquisition. As noted by Moore and Nikula (2016), the concept of ‘bilingual’ could also be related to the early expectations behind bilingual education, understood as two independent monolingual contexts which did not consider the integration of several languages within the classroom nor its benefits. However, there seems to be a gradual acceptance of the use of the L1 when teaching non-linguistic subjects through an L2. As Kiely indicates: “In most contexts, the CLIL classroom is a classroom of two languages, L1 and L2. The challenge for the teacher is managing the roles these play” (Kiely, 2011: 55).

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 15-16) admit on the possible coexistence of the L1 and the L2 in the classroom for different purposes, sometimes making a systematic use of each of them in order to favour the teaching-learning process. In fact, some studies have shown some systematicity in code-switching or translanguaging in CLIL, as more L1 tends to be used in non-planned situations, in classroom management language or when glossing (cf. Streeter, 2016).

While using the L2 only would be the most desired situation, the language choice could bring along positive and negative issues. When teachers tend to use the L2 most of the time, learners are more exposed to this language and can feel more confident when using it. On the contrary, sceptics might point at disadvantages such as the possible affectation of comprehension and the minor participation by students that are prompted to use the foreign language only (cf. Kiely, 2011). These possible caveats have been refuted by different researchers who claim that the cognitive effort becomes an important stimulus for content learning (cf. Berger, 2016) and motivational goals behind CLIL are by far confirmed (cf. Lasagabaster, Doiz and Sierra, 2014).

Translanguaging seems nowadays one of the most widely accepted approaches given that this concept is close to the real picture of the classroom and can be a beneficial asset in language learning (García, 2009; Lin, 2015; Moore and Nikula, 2016). Even second and foreign language learning welcomes this approach to make the most of learners' linguistic knowledge (cf. Miri, Alibakhshi and Mostafaei-Alaei, 2016; Turnbull, 2018).

Some suggestions for effective first language use in the classroom include checking comprehension in the L1, teaching terminology in the first language, promoting the exploration of content in both languages or using the L1 to support learning (Kiely, 2011: 62-64). In this respect, Kiely (2011) mentions resorting to summary explanations, using bilingual materials or adding L1 glosses. Some classroom events might require the eventual use of the L1 for methodological purposes, such as scaffolding, especially for beginners, since most common situations that justify this practice would be “the

initial stages of CLIL implementation or with students who are only just starting to learn the foreign language” (Massler, 2011: 73). Other typical situations include facilitating students’ comprehension of difficult concepts (Streeter, 2016).

Recent research reveals that main usage of L1 in the CLIL classroom is usually unplanned, and it displays specific functions. Lin (2015: 79) classifies these into three general groups: ideational (i.e. translating or explaining, among others), textual (i.e. structuring lessons or topic shifts) and interpersonal (as in negotiations). Other scholars have identified specific uses, such as teachers raising awareness, encouraging or motivating students; it can help structuring the discourse and may be used by students to show affective functions, such as expressing feelings or personal requests, or to ask for unknown vocabulary to facilitate task completion (Nikula and Moore, 2016; García Mayo and Hidalgo, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018). This use of the L1 to ask about vocabulary is expected to decrease over time in oral testing (Serra, 2007).

CLIL settings include a heterogeneous group of classrooms with different linguistic repertoires, teachers with different training backgrounds, students with different needs and in countries or regions with different policies. Therefore, “[i]t is unlikely that research findings, policy statements, or pedagogical practices that are applicable to one variety of CLIL would be appropriate for all renditions of CLIL” (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2014: 357-358). CLIL practitioners have to handle the languages in their classroom depending on their specific situations, being aware that L1 can be a useful resource which must be used to enhance students’ learning only in order to avoid “linguistically lazy” students (Streeter, 2016: 251). Lin (2015) stands for a careful and systematic planning in the integration of L1 and L2 in the CLIL classroom. Several experts agree on the fact that teachers lack proper guidance on how to use the L1 in their CLIL classroom (cf. Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018) and agree on the need for further research.

## 1. 2. L1 in the assessment process

Methodological issues constitute a challenge for CLIL practitioners and so does assessment. As Mohan, Leung and Slatter observe, “[i]n an increasing number of education systems, an integrated language approach to language and content *instruction* for second language learners is mandated policy. However, in a striking inconsistency, policy for integrated language and content *assessment* is essentially absent” (2010: 217). Language objectives, although secondary to content, should be part of CLIL units (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 115), however, they are blurred or even nonexistent in some CLIL contexts in Spain, among other reasons, probably due to subject teachers’ lack of linguistic expertise, since they are not usually language specialists and because general education policies may not be enough to cover CLIL settings (Otto and Estrada, 2019).

As the main concern in CLIL assessment is generally content, assessment instruments are expected to resemble rather non-linguistic subjects taught in L1 than foreign language subjects, since students need to be graded according to the curriculum requirements. Assessment is probably one the most difficult aspects for CLIL teachers:

Indeed, whenever groups of CLIL practitioners get together, assessment emerges as one of the issues that most concerns them, and many questions can arise about the role of language in assessment in CLIL. These include questions about the relative balance of content and language in CLIL assessment, or even whether language should be assessed at all. And, if language is to be assessed, what aspects of language, and how they can be integrated with content. Other questions concern the role of the L1 in assessment, such as whether students’ use of the mother tongue as a communication strategy should have an effect on their grades (Linares *et al.*, 2012: 280).

Barrios and Milla Lara (2018) observe that some participants in their research (teachers, parents and students from two provinces in Andalusia) feel differences between what CLIL policies state, that is the fact that content is given priority over language, and what happens in

their classrooms, a gap perceived by most primary school pupils and to a lesser extent by teachers and parents at Primary level (c. 30%-40%).

Although teachers are recommended not to focus on form (i.e. ignoring language mistakes) when testing content (cf. Dale and Tanner, 2012: 39) the emphasis on language is often restricted to mistakes correction or the so-called “language clinic” (cf. Hönig, 2010; Otto and Estrada, 2019). When including language competence in the assessment, grading can be affected by students’ performance in the L2, especially in oral expression, an ability which can be acquired outside the classroom (cf. Hönig, 2010; Llinares *et al.*, 2012). Most common recommendations include using the least language by means of simple tasks such as binary questions (cf. Coyle *et al.*, 2010) so the L2 can still be part of the assessment process as language for the expression of content. Some scholars regard assessment itself as a “language process” since learning is expressed through language (cf. Mohan *et al.*, 2010: 221). Coyle *et al.* exemplify how to deal with these linguistic aims, which can contribute “to communicating the content effectively, or they may include notions (such as specialist vocabulary [...]) or functions (such as the ability to discuss effectively) or even form focused (for example, effective use of the past tense)” (2010: 115).

Potential difficulties in students’ L1 might pose a problem when instruction takes place in the L2 and the assessment is presented in L1, it may be difficult for learners, since the “specialist vocabulary needed for the content area is simply not known in the first language, because the topic has been taught through the CLIL language” (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 118).

Some authors suggest reducing linguistic requirements in early stages, providing even assessment in L1 or spoken tests in both languages (Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011: 266). Teachers may allow flexibility in students’ language choice when assessed, but if instruction has taken place in the L2 only and assessment instruments are also in the L2, it may turn out that students’ performance in the L1 is not as good as expected because they lack specific vocabulary (cf. Zafiri and Zouganeli, 2017).

Gablasova (2014) studied two groups of Slovak students from the same bilingual high school, the same contents were presented in their L1 (Slovak) to one of the groups and in their L2 (English) to the other. Her findings show certain constraints in bilingually educated students' L1 performance, as compared to those who receive instruction only in their L1, more specifically disfluencies and the use of inaccurate terms were observed in the L2-educated group. Gablasova recommends “to be cautious when assessing the content knowledge of students educated through their additional language, especially in situations where the bilinguals' performance might be directly compared with that of students from mainstream education” (2014: 162). However, only minor differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups are found regarding reading acquisition in the L1 among primary school pupils, thus, in Nieto's (2018) study critical reading was the only area in which non-CLIL students performed better, while the CLIL group showed a higher performance in the comprehension of lexical items.

The variety of assessment instruments and procedures is perceived as one of the strengths in CLIL programmes (Barrios and Milla Lara, 2018). In Secondary Education, exams commonly include multiple choice questions and essay questions (Otto and Estrada, 2019) while in Primary Education, pupils' proficiency limits the range of tasks proposed for summative assessment, and especially for grading purposes. Among the suggestions given by Coyle *et al.* (2010), and which could be valid for Primary students, we can find drawing and painting, grid completion, matching information and labelling. Matching exercises and visual support can be particularly useful for younger learners while providing written stimulus in the L1 can guarantee students' comprehension in case of some difficulties in the L2 (cf. Lorenzo *et al.*, 2011; Zafiri and Zouganeli, 2017).

## **2. Context: CLIL policies in Castilla-La Mancha**

The growth of CLIL in Spain has been remarkable in recent times, in fact Coyle (2010: viii) highlights that “Spain is rapidly

becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research”. Spanish educational laws provide the general framework for Education in the whole country, which is then further developed by each of the 17 autonomous regions, leaving a great variety of legal contexts and CLIL policies (cf. Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010; Almodóvar Antequera, 2017; Guadamillas Gómez and Alcaraz Mármol, 2017).

In Castilla-La Mancha, bilingual programmes started in 1996 and have since grown under different nomenclatures (cf. Fernández Barrera, 2017: 44-45). Official data reveals that 520 schools offer multilingual projects in the academic year 2018-19, including state and private schools, most of them in English only (489) and a few of them in combination with French (10). Over half of these projects (289) are implemented in Pre-Primary and Primary Education.

Legislation in this autonomous region has undergone several changes in the last decade, with a turning point in 2017, which meant substantial modifications to bilingual frameworks. The following sections describe the main aspects in the different regional laws regarding the key areas of our study, namely L1 and assessment in the CLIL classroom.

## **2. 1. Before 2017**

Spanish Law 7/2010, last modified in August 2012, and still effective to date, regulates the education system in Castilla-La Mancha, and advocates for the development of bilingual sections in schools. Thus, article 147 states that in these sections non-linguistic subjects shall be taught in a foreign language using CLIL, which meant the first legislative reference to this methodology in the region (2010: 44).

Spanish Royal Decree 126/2014 establishes the basic curriculum in Primary Education in the whole country. Although CLIL is not explicitly mentioned, there is a reference to teaching content through L2 within the article devoted to foreign language learning (article 13). This Royal Decree includes the possibility of teaching some subjects in the foreign language, providing that terminology is learnt in both L1 and

L2. In spite of this, it establishes that the L1 shall only be used as a support in the learning process. The same article also refers to the prioritisation of oral expression and comprehension (2014: 11).

Decree 7/2014, published before Royal Decree 126/2014, develops Multilingualism in non-university educational levels in Castilla-La Mancha proposing a comprehensive plan. This decree implies the derogation of the Order from 13/03/2008, which regulated former European sections.

The promotion of specific training programmes, including linguistic and methodological training is put forward as one of the government main objectives. The minimum level of linguistic competence required by teachers in a bilingual project is B2, according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001)*. It is a requirement for participating schools to grant a minimum number of teachers with this level in order to offer non-linguistic subjects in a foreign language (2014: 1659).

As opposed to Secondary Education and over, where bilingual programs are optional for students, at Pre-Primary and Primary stages CLIL sections are meant for all the pupils, so schools must provide newcomers with the necessary means (2014: 1660). Bilingual schools are required to promote the acquisition and development of the five skills, namely listening, speaking production and speaking interaction, reading and writing through CLIL (2014: 1659).

This decree is further regulated by an Order from 16/06/2014, which defines linguistic programmes as those school projects which include one or more non-linguistic subjects entirely taught in the foreign language chosen by the school (2014: 16424). As regards assessment, this order only mentions the fact that it shall follow current legislation (2014: 16426).

Some methodological guidelines are exposed, proposing the CLIL approach as the methodological model. As for the L2, teachers are expected to use it at all times in the academic context, and to

promote and reward it among students. However, according to the same article, contents must be acquired and learnt both in the L1 and the L2. The communicative approach shall be adopted, prioritising first oral skills and at a later stage reading and writing, in order to make L2 acquisition more natural. Schools are referred to the *CEFR* for linguistic recommendation.

Further methodological guidelines apply the most common principles usually recognised in CLIL - materials must resort to visual support and gradually introduce more complex and specific contents, while activities shall follow the “learning by doing” principle, either individually or in group, in order to make learning meaningful and lasting. The article also states the importance of investigation and information search tasks in autonomous and responsible learning. Similarly, self-assessment is mentioned as a way to improve personal learning environments (2014: 16428).

The order mentions the figure of a language advisor, a language teacher whose main functions are coordination and support. There might be a coordinator, either the language advisor or another teacher, whose functions are not detailed (2014: 16427).

## **2. 2. After 2017**

Decree 47/2017 sets the regulatory framework for all non-university educational levels aiming at the consolidation of previous language programmes and at the promotion of a second foreign language from early childhood. Its coming into force meant the derogation of former decree 7/2014. It foresees a transition period regulated by the Order from 16/06/2014, eventually derogated by Order 27/2018, which regulates more in detail Decree 47/2017. Order 27/2018, with a focus on bilingual and multilingual schools, indicates that the non-linguistic subject will be taught in the L2 (or L3) in all the sessions (2018: 4705).

In article 30 the methodological guidelines point again at CLIL, a methodology strongly recommended in teaching practice. The

language to be used by the teacher is the L2 (or L3) for communication within the academic context and in all the activities carried out in the classroom, and, as a novelty in this order, also in assessment activities. The five linguistic skills shall be promoted (2018: 4713), as was also stated in the former decree.

The same article includes a fundamental innovation regarding the use of the L1 as a linguistic resource in the following situations: (a) when required by students with specific educational support needs; (b) to acquire terminology and basic notions in both languages; and (c) as a useful communicative strategy (once others have been tried out) to make the message understood, for the introduction or summary of contents or in other cases when needed as a pedagogical tool. These instructions are substantially different from previous indications which referred to a nearly exclusive use of the L2. This is particularly relevant when article 36 explicitly mentions the need for students to acquire the same contents both in the L1 and L2 throughout each stage (2018: 4715). In fact, some methodological and linguistic adaptations can be adopted for students who cannot follow the non-linguistic subject due to their low language competence (2018: 4714).

As in previous legislative frameworks, article 36 establishes that evaluation of linguistic progress shall follow current legislation. As a general reference, and as orientation only, schools shall consider a level between A1 and A2 for Primary Education (2018: 4714-4715). The same requirement applies to content in article 37, which states that both assessment criteria and standards in non-linguistic subjects shall follow current legislation for each stage. Assessment instruments and procedures shall be those specifically recommended by CLIL methodology (218: 4715). Consequently, both materials in the classroom and assessment instruments shall be produced in the L2. This is again important guidance for teachers on how to proceed on assessment, since it had not been previously specified.

The figure of the language coordinator is already present in Decree 47/2017 and their functions are further detailed in the Order 27/2018. One of the most remarkable novelties is the coordination with

other schools in the area, which might facilitate students' continuity in CLIL programmes (2018: 4712). Another new function is the coordination of teachers regarding linguistic, methodological and assessment aspects in CLIL in order to set homogeneity in its implementation.

Several aspects are similarly expressed in both laws. These include the promotion of specific training or the language requirement for primary school teachers (B2), although the latest policy foresees a change for higher levels, namely C1 from 2022/2023 onwards.

The main differences and similarities are highlighted in Table 1 below:

**Table 1**  
*CLIL guidance provided by Castilla-La Mancha policies*

<b>Feature</b>	<b>Decree + Order (2014)</b>	<b>Decree (2017) + Order (2018)</b>
CLIL methodology	Pedagogical model (mentioned only once)	Pedagogical model, guidance and reference for methodology and assessment
Language of instruction	L2 only	L2; uses provided for L1
Acquisition of contents	In L1 and L2	In L1 and L2
Language of assessment	not specified	L2
Assessment instruments	not specified	As recommended by CLIL

Source: compiled by the authors

### 3. Methodology

An ad-hoc questionnaire was designed using Google Forms. It is anonymous and consists of 21 items combining both closed and open questions about the respondent's profile (sex, age, province, experience, qualifications) and CLIL assessment practice (the use of L1/L2 during assessment, the percentage assigned to language in tests, etc).

This questionnaire was distributed online to a focus group: primary school teachers in bilingual programmes in Castilla-La Mancha. It was distributed before the Decree 47/2017 and the Order 27/2018 came into force.

Section 4 presents the results obtained in the questions linked to the purpose of the present study.

### **3. 1. Respondents' profile**

The questionnaire was answered by 31 primary school teachers working in the provinces of Toledo (71%), Albacete (19,4%), Guadalajara (6,5%), and Cuenca (3,2%). They are mainly women (67,7%) in their forties (41,9%) or in their thirties (35,5%); 12,9% are in their twenties and only 9,7 % of them are over 50.

Regarding their qualifications, most of them have a 3-year degree in Primary School Teaching with a specialization in Foreign Languages (67,7%) or with no specialization (32,3%). The English competence level they can prove through a certificate is B2 (71%), followed by C1 (22,6%), and one respondent claims to have a C2 level.

They have mainly worked in bilingual settings either for less than 5 years (35,5%) or for between 5 and 10 years (29%). Some of them have been doing it for longer: between 10 and 15 years (12,9%); between 15 and 20 years (6,5%); or even more than 20 years (16,1%).

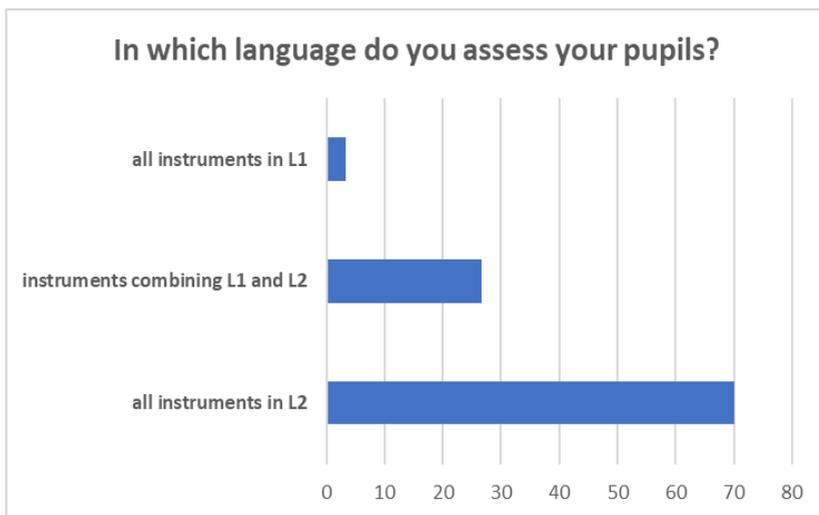
Their answers refer to the following subjects taught in English: Science (71%); Physical Education (12,9%); Art (9,7%), Music (3,2%); Social Science (3,2%). And mainly to the years Primary 1 (26,7%) and Primary 6 (23,3%). To a lesser extent, they refer to Primary 2, 3, 4 (13,3% each) and Primary 5 (10%).

## 4. Results

When asked in which language they evaluated their pupils (Figure 1), most respondents (70%) answered they used L2; 26,7% said they used instruments combining L1 and L2; and only 3,3% answered they used L1.

**Figure 1**

*Answers to “In which language do you assess your pupils?”*

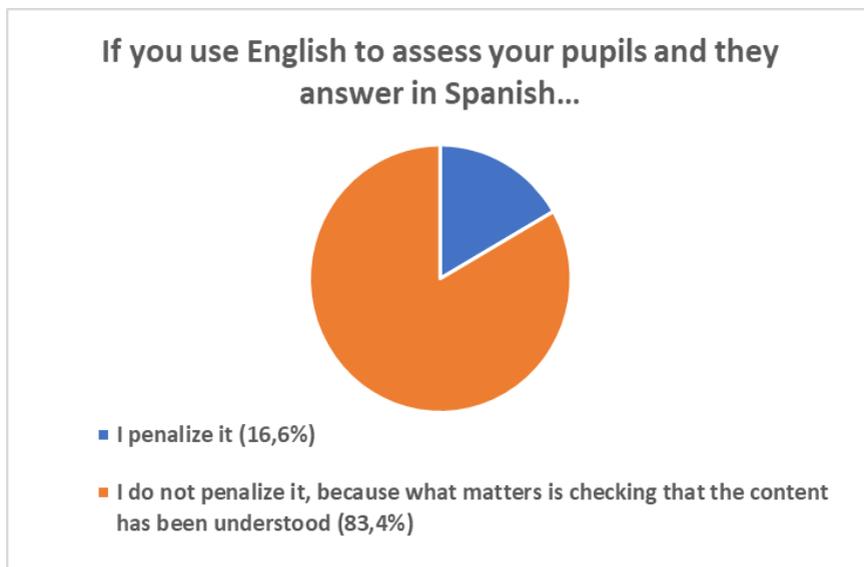


Source: compiled by the authors

Among respondents who declared using L2 to assess their pupils, the vast majority (83,4%) said they do not penalize answers in L1 because what matters is checking that the content has been understood. Only 16,6% penalize their pupils if they answer in L1.

**Figure 2**

Answers to “If you use English to assess your pupils and they answer in Spanish...”



Source: compiled by the authors

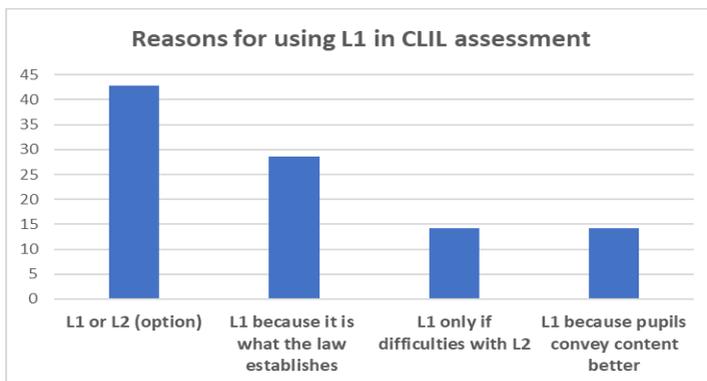
As for those respondents who use L1 (Spanish) to assess their pupils, the reasons they gave for doing so were (Figure 3):

“I give them the option to answer in either language” (42,84%); one among them specified: “I use Spanish with those pupils who have difficulties with the foreign language”. Similarly, 14,28% said “I use Spanish with those pupils who show greater difficulties with the English language and only after having presented the information in English”.

28,57% seemed concerned about legislation, as their specific reasons for carrying out assessment in L1 were “because it is what legislation states” or “because the Decree in Castilla-La Mancha establishes so”. Remaining 14,28% were concerned about content, they answered “Pupils are better able to convey content in L1”.

**Figure 3**

Answers to “If you use Spanish to assess your pupils, why?”

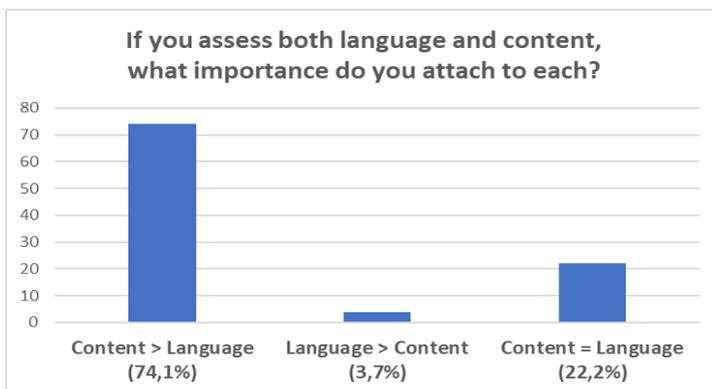


Source: compiled by the authors

When asked about the importance attached to content and to language in their assessment procedures, 74,1% prioritise content, whereas 22,2% attach the same importance to both and 3,7% prioritise language (Figure 4).

**Figure 4**

Answers to “If you assess both language and content, what importance do you attach to each?”

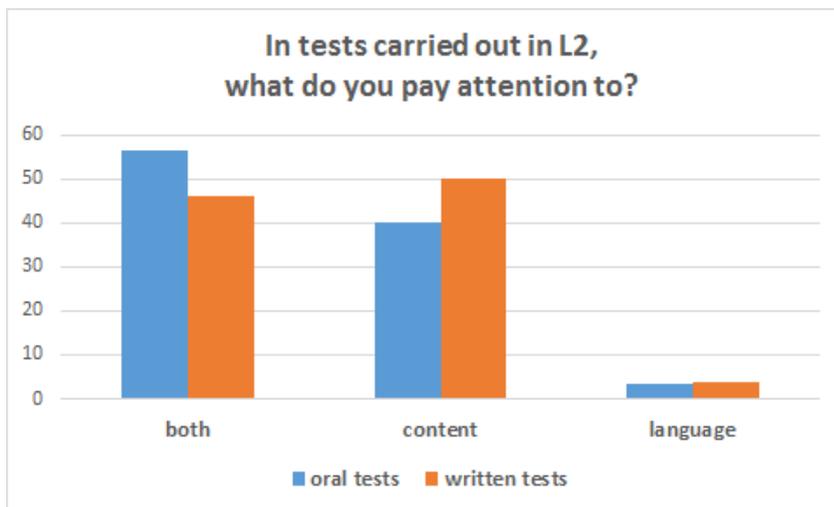


Source: compiled by the authors

Although most participants' scales clearly tip in favour of content, the importance attached thereto varies depending on whether the test is written or oral. The percentage of participants that pay attention to content decreases from written tests (50%) to oral tests (40%). Similarly, participants that pay attention to both content and language increase from 46,2% in written tests to 56,7% in oral tests.

**Figure 5**

*Answers to "In tests carried out in L2, what do you pay attention to?"*

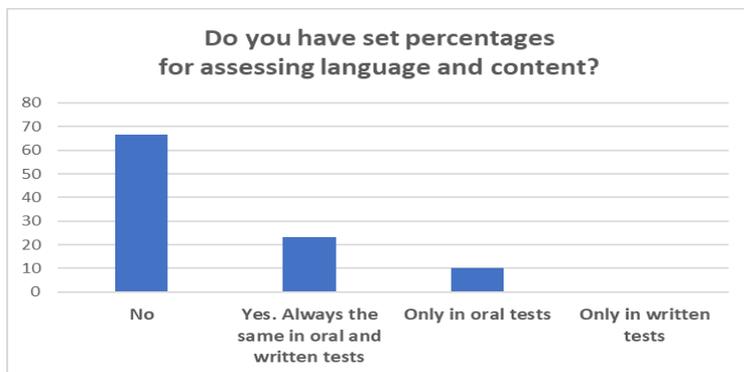


Source: compiled by the authors

However, most respondents (66,7%) do not determine set percentages for assessing content and language. Only 23,3% of respondents do use the same set percentages regardless of the kind of test (oral or written). Although 10% chose the option "I have set percentages only in oral tests", none of them chose "I have set percentages only in written tests" (Figure 6).

**Figure 6**

Answers to “Do you have set percentages for assessing language and content?”

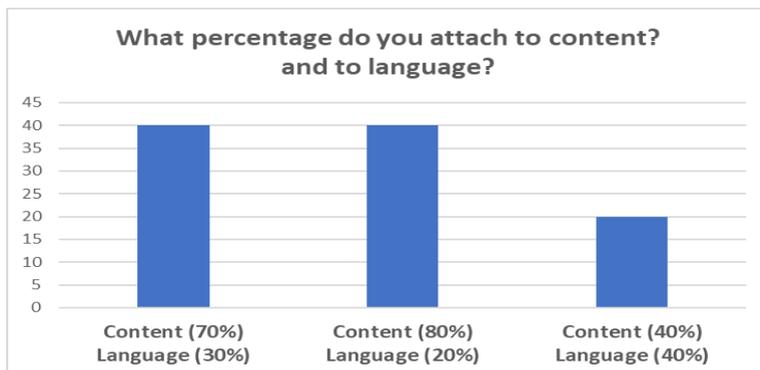


Source: compiled by the authors

Those respondents who answered “Yes. Always the same, both in oral and written tests” were asked to further develop their answer by specifying what percentages they used. Content is clearly prioritised: 80% of them attach either 70 or 80% to content. Only 20% of them attach the same importance to both elements (Figure 7):

**Figure 7**

Answers to “What percentage do you attach to content? And to language?”



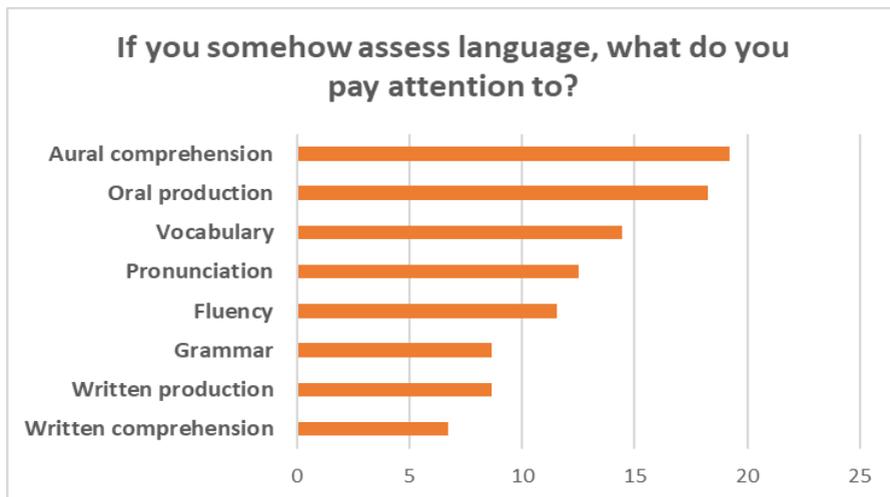
Source: compiled by the authors

When asked if they use specific exercises to assess L2, only one respondent (3,2%) answers affirmatively. He/she admits using “an outline for developing answers” in his/her assessment instruments.

The aspects of language that they assess are led by aural comprehension (19,2%) and oral production (18,27%); whereas the least assessed are written production (8,65%) and written comprehension (6,73%).

**Figure 8**

*Aspects of language assessed by respondents*

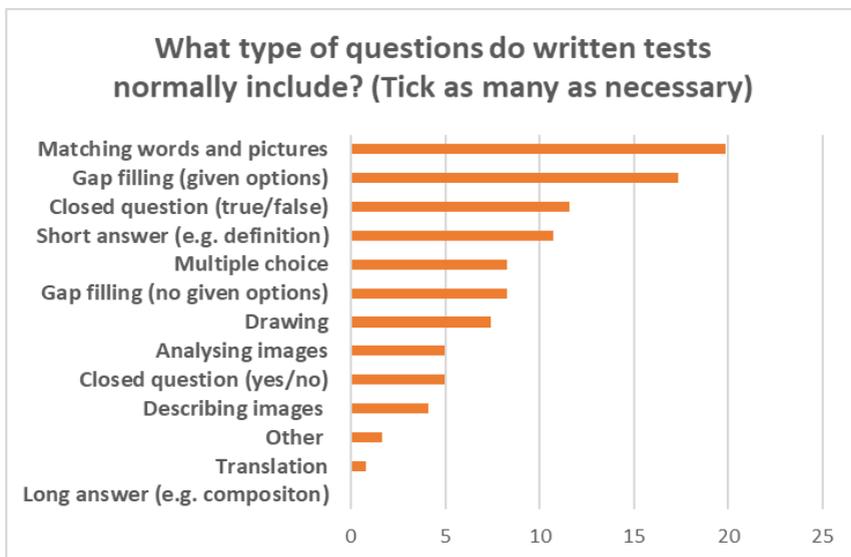


Source: compiled by the authors

Finally, in written tests, pupils are never asked to develop a long answer. They mainly have to match, complete with given options, choose from options like “true” or “false”, write a definition or draw; and to a much lesser extent, analyse or describe images and translate (Figure 9).

**Figure 9**

*Question types included in written tests*



Source: compiled by the authors

## 5. Discussion

Although CLIL is a dual-focused methodology where both language and content play a role, teachers who took part in this pilot study are primarily concerned about content: more than 70% of them attach more importance to content than to language. L2 is hardly ever specifically tested.

This could be due to the fact that CLIL practitioners who are not language experts do not feel comfortable when grading language, as shown by Otto and Estrada's (2019) research with Secondary school teachers in Madrid.

Many respondents (66,7%) do not establish percentages when assessing. On the rare occasions when percentages are set, they confirm the secondary role played by L2 in the evaluation process: it usually accounts for between 20% and 30% of the mark.

Since legislation in force at the time of our data collection (Decree 7/2014 and Order from 16/06/2014) did not establish clear criteria regarding the use of L1 in assessment, we find that there is no common criterion amongst practitioners. Some of them carry out assessment in L1; and those who do it in L2 do not seem to penalize their pupils if they answer in L1. When asked why they assess in L1, nearly a third of respondents argue that the Decree establishes that assessment has to be carried out in L1.

As suggested by most CLIL experts (cf. Coyle *et al.*, 2010; Dale and Tanner, 2012) and as laid down in regional policies, there is a focus on assessing content learning over the learning of the foreign language, it being detrimental to the latter. This focus on content is more pronounced in written than in oral tests, where language receives more attention. This is confirmed by the following results:

- There tends to be a more even balance between content and language in oral tests than in written ones, where the scales tip more in favour of content (Figure 4).
- Some respondents determine percentages for content and language only for oral tests, but none of them do it only for written tests (Figure 5).
- When asked to tick the aspects of language they assess -from a list of options that included all language skills- the most frequently selected options (oral production, aural comprehension, pronunciation or fluency) indicate respondents focus on assessing oral skills. This aligns with the suggestions in the legislation about prioritising spoken language before moving on to written skills.
- Considering that writing definitions is usually a matter of pupils reproducing what they have memorized, there is hardly any opportunity for language production and assessment in the activities included in written tests - mainly matching, choosing an option or drawing. These types of activities follow general advice on assessment found in most recognised CLIL manuals, as in Coyle *et al.* (2010), for early stages. Admittedly, in

Primary Education, and especially in early years, pupils' cognitive development discourages the request of longer answers, which would be difficult even in their L1. Therefore, our results seem to confirm that CLIL does not favour writing skills (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Pérez-Vidal, 2011).

## **Conclusions**

Given that our results are drawn from a pilot study, these are provisional conclusions. As we have seen, Spanish laws are varied and maybe not very specific about this issue, tending to apply the established evaluation criteria for content subjects to the CLIL context. At the time we collected our data, the law in force did not specify how to assess CLIL subjects, so in this sense, rather than CLIL, what most respondents seemed to be doing could be regarded as using L2 when teaching content.

To a certain extent, the recent change in legislation in Castilla-La Mancha provides an answer to several of the concerns expressed by teachers in our study and adapts to mainstream theories of CLIL regarding language use and assessment. This is not an easy task since CLIL methodology and assessment has to follow not only regional laws but also general education policies in Spain, which are not specifically designed for CLIL settings.

Among the recent introductions in the regional policy, it is necessary to highlight the recommendation for using the L1 as a pedagogical tool in certain contexts. This is a useful addition for CLIL practitioners, who were expected to teach terminology in both languages without using the L1. Although it was probably common practice before the legislative change, the new policy legitimizes the use of L1: CLIL practitioners in Castilla-La Mancha can now decide which classroom contexts may require code-switching or translanguaging in order to favour content acquisition or to promote cognitive developments. L1 is part of foreign language contexts, exploited in the classroom for teaching purposes, and it benefits students' learning and

acquisition of the L2, without diminishing students' opportunities. Similarly, its use in CLIL settings should be normalised, acknowledged and encouraged by subject teachers as part of the classroom discourse.

We believe and hope the new law will increase both practitioners' confidence about what CLIL assessment is and how to implement it, and the amount of teachers that attach some importance to language in CLIL assessment.

As claimed in recent studies (cf. Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2017; Pavón and Ramos, 2018), further research is needed to adjust policies to common practice, theories and research in CLIL regarding both assessment and language use. The use of the L1 displays different functions which commonly occur in unplanned situations, therefore one of the lines for future research could be an attempt to systematize the usage of the languages in the classroom, so that teachers can organise and plan beforehand their tasks and materials accordingly, and promote conscious translanguaging in the classroom (cf. Lin, 2015).

## Bibliography

Almodóvar Antequera, J. M. (2017). La educación intercultural en el sistema educativo español: educación primaria. In Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte (Ed.), *Educación bilingüe: tendencias educativas y conceptos claves: Bilingual educational: trends and key concepts* (pp. 79-88). Secretaría General Técnica. Centro de Publicaciones. Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte.

Astin, A.W., and Antonio, A.L. (2012). *Assessment for Excellence. The Philosophy and Practice of Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Barbero, T. (2012). Assessment tools and practices in CLIL In F. Quartapelle (Ed.), *Assessment and Evaluation in CLIL* (pp. 38-56). Ibis, Como – Pavia: Ibis Edizioni.

Barrios, E., and Milla Lara, M. D. (2018). CLIL methodology, materials and resources, and assessment in a monolingual context: an

analysis of stakeholders' perceptions in Andalusia. *The Language Learning Journal*, 1-21.

Berger, A. (2016). Learning mathematics bilingually. An Integrated Language and Mathematics Model (ILMM) of word problem solving processes in English as a foreign language. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz, P. Moore and U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 73-100). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Cenoz, J., Genesee, F., and Gorter, D. (2014). Critical analysis of CLIL: Taking stock and looking forward. *Applied linguistics*, 35 (3), 243-262.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Coyle, D. (2010). "Foreword". In D. Lasagabaster and Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. vii-viii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Coyle, D., Holmes, B., and King, L. (2009). *Towards an integrated curriculum—CLIL National Statement and Guidelines*. London: The Languages Company.

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

Dale, L., and Tanner, R. (2012). *CLIL Activities: A Resource for Subject and Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2008). Outcomes and processes in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Current research from Europe. In W. Delanoy and L. Volkman (Eds.). *Future Perspectives for English Language Teaching* (pp. 139-157). Heidelberg: Carl Winter.

Decreto 47/2017, de 25 de julio, por el que se regula el plan integral de enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras de la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha para etapas educativas no universitarias. [2017/9118]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 31 July 2017, no. 147, pp. 18603-18612.

Decreto 7/2014, de 22/01/2014, por el que se regula el plurilingüismo en la enseñanza no universitaria en Castilla-La Mancha. [2014/897]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 27 January 2014, no. 17, pp. 1657-1661.

Doiz, A., and Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Management teams and teaching staff: do they share the same beliefs about obligatory CLIL programmes and the use of the L1? *Language and Education*, 31 (2), 93-109.

Fernández Barrera. A. (2017). Language appropriations, ideologies and identities in bilingual schools in Castilla-La Mancha (Spain). *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*. 10 (2), 41-58.

Gablasova, D. (2014). Issues in the assessment of bilingually educated students: Expressing subject knowledge through L1 and L2. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42 (2), 151-164.

García Mayo, M. P., and Hidalgo, M. A. (2017). L1 use among young EFL mainstream and CLIL learners in task-supported interaction. *System*, 67, 132-145.

García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In A. Mohanty, M. Panda, R. Phillipson and T. Skutnabb-Kangas (Eds.), *Multilingual Education for Social Justice: Globalising the local* (pp. 140-158). New Delhi: Orient Blackswan.

Gorter, D., and Cenoz, J. (2017). Language education policy and multilingual assessment. *Language and Education*, 31 (3), 231-248.

Guadamillas Gómez, M.V., and Alcaraz Mármol, G. (2017). Legislación en enseñanza bilingüe: análisis en el marco de educación primaria en España. *MULTIárea. Revista de didáctica*, 9, 82-103.

Hönig, I. (2010). *Assessment in CLIL: Theoretical and empirical research*. Saarbrücken: VDM Verlag.

Kiely, R. (2011). The Role of L1 in the CLIL Classroom. In S. and P. Pavlou (Eds.), *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education* (pp. 55-65). Nicosia: PROCLIL.

Lasagabaster, D. (2016). Translanguaging in ESL and content-based teaching: Is it valued? In D. Lasagabaster and A. Doiz (Eds.), *CLIL Experiences in Secondary and Tertiary Education: In Search of Good Practices* (pp. 233-258). Bern: Peter Lang.

Lasagabaster, D., Doiz, A., and Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2014). *Motivation and Foreign Language Learning: From Theory to Practice*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Ley 7/2010, de 20 de julio, de Educación de Castilla-La Mancha. *Boletín Oficial del Estado*. Madrid, 13 October 2010 no. 248, pp. 86359-86415.

Lin, A. M.Y. (2015). Conceptualising the potential role of L1 in CLIL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28 (1), 74-89.

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

Lorenzo Bergillos, F. J., Trujillo Sáez, F., and Vez Jeremías, J. M. (2011). *Educación bilingüe: Integración de contenidos y segundas lenguas*. Madrid: Síntesis.

Massler, U. (2011). Assessment in CLIL learning. In S. and P. Pavlou (Eds.), *Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education* (pp. 114-136). Nicosia: PROCLIL.

Massler, U., Stotz, D., and Queisser, C. (2014). Assessment instruments for primary CLIL: The conceptualisation and evaluation of test tasks. *The Language Learning Journal*, 42 (2), 137-150.

Miri, M., Alibakhshi, G., and Mostafaei-Alaei, M. (2016). Reshaping teacher cognition about L1 use through critical ELT teacher education. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 14 (1), 58-98.

Mohan, B., Leung, C., and Slater, T. (2010). Assessing language and content: A functional perspective. In A. Paran and L. Sercu (Eds.), *Testing the Untestable in Language Education* (pp. 217-240). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Moore, P. and Nikula, T. (2016). Translanguaging in CLIL classrooms. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz, P. Moore, and U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 211-234). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, E. (2018). Adquisición de la lectura en L1 en programas bilingües de Educación Primaria. Un estudio comparativo. *Ocnos: Revista de estudios sobre lectura*, 17 (1), 43-54.

Nikula, T., and Moore, P. (2016). Exploring translanguaging in CLIL. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22 (2), 237-249.

Orden 27/2018, de 8 de febrero, de la Consejería de Educación, Cultura y Deportes, por la que se regulan los proyectos bilingües y plurilingües en las enseñanzas de segundo ciclo de Educación Infantil y Primaria, Secundaria, Bachillerato y Formación Profesional de los centros educativos sostenidos con fondos públicos de la comunidad autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha. [2018/1979]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 15 February 2018, no. 33, pp. 4704-4717.

Orden de 16/06/2014, de la Consejería de Educación, Cultura y Deportes, por la que se regulan los programas lingüísticos de los centros de Educación Infantil y Primaria, Secundaria, Bachillerato y Formación Profesional sostenidos con fondos públicos de Castilla-La Mancha. [2014/8175]. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 20 June 2014, no. 117, pp. 16424-16433.

Orden de 13/03/2008 de la Consejería de Educación y Ciencia, por la que se regula el desarrollo del Programa de Secciones Europeas en los centros públicos de Educación Infantil, Primaria y Secundaria de la Comunidad Autónoma de Castilla-La Mancha. *Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*. Toledo, 26 March 2008, no. 64, pp. 9970-9973.

Otto, A., and Estrada, J.L. (2019). Towards an Understanding of CLIL in a European Context: Main Assessment Tools and the Role of Language in Content Subjects. *CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education*, 2 (1), 31-42.

Pavón Vázquez, V., and Ramos Ordóñez, M.C. (2018). Describing the use of the L1 in CLIL: an analysis of L1 communication strategies in classroom interaction. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22 (1), 35-48.

Pérez-Vidal, C. (2011). Language acquisition in three different contexts of learning: Formal instruction, stay abroad, and semi-immersion (CLIL). In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, J. M. Sierra, F. Gallardo del Puerto (Eds.), *Content and foreign language integrated learning: Contributions to multilingualism in European contexts* (pp. 103-127). Bern: Peter Lang.

Real Decreto 126/2014, de 1 de marzo, por el que se establece el currículo básico de Educación Primaria. *Boletín Oficial del Estado*. Madrid, 3 March 2014, no. 52, pp. 1-54.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Y., and Lasagabaster, D. (2010). The emergence of CLIL in Spain: An educational challenge. In D.

Lasagabaster and Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. ix-xvii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Serra, C. (2007). Assessing CLIL at primary school: A longitudinal study. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10 (5), 582-602.

Streeter, J. (2016). Code-switching and translanguaging in CLIL: Are we challenging our learners sufficiently? In K. Papaja, and A. Świątek (Eds.), *Modernizing Educational Practice: Perspectives in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*, (pp. 235-256). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Suskie, L. (2018). *Assessing Student Learning: A Common Sense Guide*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. 3rd edition.

Turnbull, B. (2018). Reframing foreign language learning as bilingual education: epistemological changes towards the emergent bilingual. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21 (8), 1041-1048.

Zafiri, M. and Zouganeli, K. (2017). Toward an Understanding of Content and Language Integrated Learning Assessment (CLILA) in Primary School Classes: A Case Study. *Research Papers in Language Teaching and Learning*, 8 (1), 88-109.

