

A transitivity analysis of CLIL and EFL students' English texts: the role of language schools in the language learning process

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Abstract

English language schools are an increasingly widespread method of providing students with additional language instruction outside their formal education. These schools are a source of extra language exposure for students who attend non-bilingual educational centers. A better understanding of such an increasingly common practice among L2 learners in the Community of Madrid could contribute to identifying specific strategies and practices that relate to successful language acquisition. Throughout this document, a transitivity analysis, under M.A.K. Halliday's (2014) framework, of the written compositions of CLIL students, EFL students and EFL students who attend language schools is presented and discussed. Extensive research has been carried out on the framework of transitivity in order to analyze and understand students' choices of process types. This includes research on CLIL contexts (e.g. Llinares & Whittaker, 2010; Llinares & Morton, 2010) but no study has compared its use in CLIL and non-CLIL contexts. The prompt was designed to elicit written texts about an issue of current interest: women today and international women's day. In this way, we were able to examine students' construal of meaning and relate it to the teaching methodology and language exposure time. By studying the process types used in the texts, we find differences in the way CLIL students, EFL students and EFL students who attend language schools describe the issue, the actions and project their views and feelings into their writings.

Keywords: Transitivity. Language schools. Bilingual Education. CLIL. EFL instruction. Lexical complexity. Cognitive Discourse Functions. Meaning- making choices. Process types. Feminism.

Abstract (Spanish/Español)

Las academias de inglés son un método cada vez más extendido de proporcionar a los alumnos formación lingüística fuera de su educación formal. Estos centros son una fuente de exposición lingüística para los estudiantes que asisten a centros educativos no bilingües. Tener una mejor comprensión de estas prácticas, las cuales son cada vez más comunes entre los estudiantes de lenguas en la Comunidad de Madrid, podría contribuir a identificar estrategias y técnicas específicas que lleven a una adquisición del lenguaje adecuada. A lo largo de este documento, se presenta y discute un análisis de transitividad bajo el marco teórico de M.A.K Halliday (2014) de las composiciones escritas de estudiantes de centros bilingües, estudiantes de centros

no bilingües y estudiantes de centros no bilingües que acuden a academias de inglés. Se ha llevado a cabo una amplia investigación sobre el marco teórico del sistema de transitividad con el fin de analizar y comprender las elecciones de proceso de los estudiantes. Esto incluye trabajos de investigación sobre contextos CLIL (por ejemplo, Llinares & Whittaker, 2010; Llinares & Morton, 2010). Sin embargo, ningún estudio ha comparado su uso en contextos CLIL y no CLIL. El enunciado de la prueba fue diseñado para obtener textos escritos sobre un tema de interés actual: la mujer hoy y el día internacional de la mujer. De esta manera, pudimos examinar cómo los alumnos construyen significado en sus textos y relacionarlo con la metodología de enseñanza y el tiempo de exposición al idioma. Al estudiar los tipos de procesos utilizados en los textos, encontramos diferencias en la forma en que los alumnos de centros bilingües, centros no bilingües y alumnos de centros no bilingües que asisten a academias de inglés describen el tema, las acciones y proyectan su punto de vista y sentimientos en sus redacciones.

Palabras clave: Transitividad. Academias de inglés. Educación Bilingüe. CLIL. Enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera. Complejidad léxica. Funciones del discurso cognitivo. Construcción de significado. Tipos de procesos. Feminismo.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The widespread adoption of bilingual education in the Community of Madrid has given rise to concerns and uncertainties. While bilingual programs have been deemed beneficial for young learners, some studies have hinted at certain challenges that these programs might face such as the lack of specific teacher training. At the same time, the traditional EFL teaching model has also encountered opposition on the part of language teachers and parents who claim that the time being dedicated to the subject is fairly limited. Even when reinforced by extracurricular language classes, there is still an on-going debate as to whether the traditional EFL method is more effective in language learning than bilingual programs. This in-depth examination of language students' written expression intends to clarify and shed some light on the significance of extracurricular language training for both bilingual and traditional EFL students.

In this paper, I analyze the use of transitivity (through process types) in a corpus of essays written by Spanish secondary school students of English. This analysis aims at providing some keys to interpreting the role that English language schools play in the language learning process. Research has demonstrated that there is a significant correlation between exposure to language and developing language competence. Students in bilingual education programs (CLIL) in Madrid are exposed to the foreign language for *at least* 10 hours at secondary level, whereas students in traditional EFL classrooms are exposed to the foreign language for merely 3-4 hours at the same academic level (Dirección General de Bilingüismo y Calidad de la Enseñanza de la Consejería de Educación y Juventud de la Comunidad de Madrid, 2020). The significant difference is attributable primarily to the many hours a week of compulsory courses and electives imparted in English in CLIL programs. While it is true that students in CLIL classrooms are significantly more exposed to the language, it is not uncommon for students in traditional EFL classrooms to attend extracurricular language schools where they receive an additional 1-3 hours of language training. In fact, as of the academic year 2021/2022, the Community of Madrid has 35 Official Language Schools with over 33,000 students enrolled¹ (Comunidad de Madrid, 2021).

In this scenario, the study we present here was designed to explore students' written texts about an issue of current interest: women today and international women's day. Students learning a second language can develop linguistic skills via personal writing. In fact,

¹ This number includes both CLIL and EFL students.

“recounting personal experience through writing is thought to encourage immature foreign language writers to draw on their linguistic resources and make choices to represent their experiential world in a meaningful text” (Martín-Úriz *et al.*, 2008, p. 210). By describing their own experiences of the world in a foreign language, they learn new words, phrases, and ways of expressing themselves. Even though the product may sound awkward due to a number of common errors such as misplaced one to one (direct) translations, students ultimately learn how to inject their own personalities into a second language. With this in mind, the choice of the topic expected students to feel encouraged to write and project their personalities onto their writing. By studying the types of processes used in the texts, we find differences in the way CLIL, EFL students and students who attend extracurricular English classes at a language school describe the issue, their actions and feelings. It is hypothesized that students who attend language schools will perform similarly on the task than students in CLIL programs.

2. THE STUDY

This paper focuses on the way the writer presents the topic, and themselves in the text, placing particular emphasis on the use of the different process types proposed by M.A.K. Halliday (2004). The particular linguistic choices that the students make provide evidence of their representational system, and the way they use language to conceptualize and describe their experience. For this purpose, three questions were formulated:

1. How do CLIL learners represent the topic in their texts?
2. How do EFL learners who attend language schools complete the same task?
3. How does this relate to their language competence measured by lexical complexity and holistic grading?
4. What Cognitive Discourse Functions are learners focusing on and how are they representing them? Are there differences across these contexts?
5. Is attending a language school a strong determinant in students' language learning process?

Question 1 focuses on the linguistic resources used by CLIL students, i.e. the choice, range and distribution of processes. Question 2 poses the same questions of the texts written by EFL students. Comparisons of the features found in the essays written by the two groups of writers are expected to illustrate whether language schools imply any advantage in the language-learning process of EFL students when compared to CLIL students. Question 3 accounts for

the connection between language competence and the difference – if any – in the use of process types. Question 4 relates the use of processes with the Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDFs) learners are responding to following the prompt. Question 5 tries to address the extramural exposure to the language, so as to see its overall significance in the language-learning process.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR: TRANSITIVITY

This study was undertaken within the framework of M.A.K. Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar, a functional model of language. This theory divides the way we use language into three metafunctions or fundamental functions of language: *interpersonal*, *ideational* and *textual*. Halliday puts forth in his publication *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (2004) that:

We use language to make sense of our experience, and to carry out our interactions with other people. This means that the grammar has to interface with what goes on outside language: with the happenings and conditions of the world, and with the social processes we engage in. But at the same time it has to organize the construal of experience, and the enactment of social processes, so that they can be transformed into wording. (p. 24)

Accordingly, the interpersonal function enables us to have conversations with other people; the ideational function, to interpret our experience of the world; and the textual function, to turn these interpretations and interactions into a coherent text within itself and the particular context of the situation.

Transitivity falls within the ideational metafunction, and is concerned with the “grammatical resources for **construing** our experience of the world that lies around us and inside us” (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 640). Thus, systemic functional linguistics and, in particular, transitivity deal with how the linguistic and socio cultural meaning come together to form texts. Transitivity constitutes the ideational system at clause level and it deals with one's construal of the “goings-on”: the configurations of a process, the participants involved in it, and the surrounding circumstances (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009). For the specific purpose of this study, we will be concentrating on the types of processes. Halliday (2004) distinguishes the

following process types: *material*, *mental*, *relational*, *verbal*, *behavioral* and *existential*. “Processes carry the core experiential meaning expressed in the clause” (Martín-Úriz *et al.*, 2008, p. 217). In other words, processes are the products of our perception of the world. By identifying the processes within a text, we get an impression of how different linguistic choices create different world-views. Even though Halliday presents six well-defined process types, he admits that they can overlap at times. Halliday identifies certain core areas and prototypical members of the process types but at the same time recognizes certain “fuzziness” between the categories, maintaining that “the regions are continuous, shading into one another” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.172). This can be better seen in Figure 1:

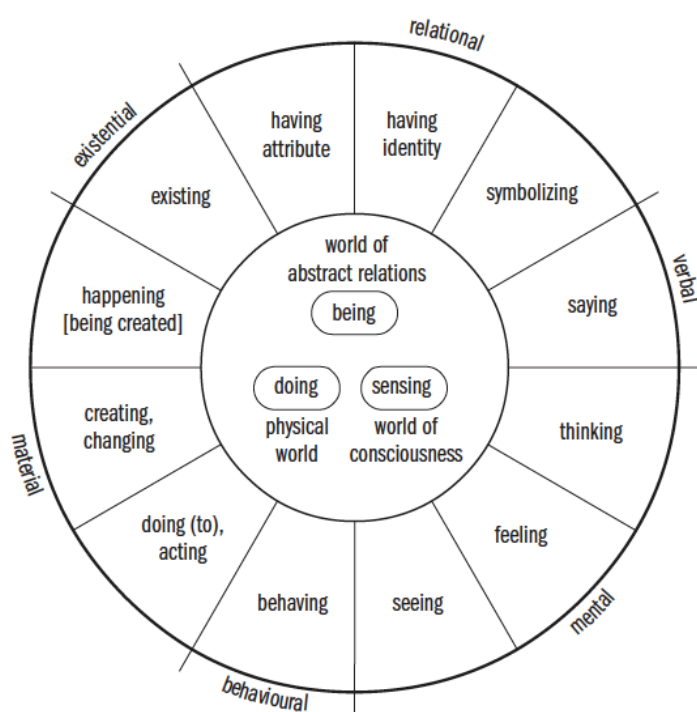


Figure 1. Types of processes in English. Taken from Halliday & Matthiessen (2004).

There are certain inherent attributes of the different process types, but there are other aspects that are intermediate between two types. It is this indeterminacy that reflects how the experiential world is construed: “The world of our experience is highly indeterminate. [...] Thus, one and the same text may offer alternative models of what would appear to be the same domain of experience” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.173). In other words, different people can live and interpret the same experience in a different manner. Our experience of the world

is dependent on many variables such as gender, race and personality, among others, and this is something to take into consideration when applying transitivity analysis.

Having addressed the imprecision of process types, we will proceed to identify and describe the core attributes of their respective clause types.

3.1.1. MATERIAL CLAUSES

As *Figure 1* above illustrates, material processes are processes of doing, creating and happening. A material clause “construes a quantum of change in the flow of events as taking place through some input of energy” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 179), i.e. it implies a concrete change – or changes – brought about by a force (hereinafter referred to as “the Actor”), and which may or may not have an impact on another participant or entity (hereinafter referred to as “the Goal”).

a)

The man	appeared
Actor	Material process

b)

The man	hit	the wall
Actor	Material process	Goal

As can be seen in the examples above, material processes can extend to a second participant. In such cases, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) refer to them as *transitive*. However, material processes are “not necessarily concrete, physical events” (Marbun, 2016, p.7). A material clause can be *intransitive*, usually representing “abstract doings” or “happenings.” Material processes include verbs such as: appear, happen, hit, build, draw, open or give.

3.1.2. MENTAL CLAUSES

While material processes are concerned with the doings and happenings occurring in the material world, mental processes appear in clauses of “sensing.” According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), mental processes interpret “a quantum of change in the flow of events

taking place in our own consciousness” (p. 197). Thus, the focus is not on our experience of the material world anymore, but rather on the understanding of the world through our perceptions and awareness. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) further consider that “this process of sensing may be construed either as flowing from a person’s consciousness or as impinging on it” (p. 197). As with material clauses, various participant roles are involved in mental clauses. *Actor* and *Goal* are now addressed as *Senser* and *Phenomenon*, respectively.

She	loved	the food
Senser	Mental process	Phenomenon

Furthermore, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) distinguish four types of mental processes: *perceptive*, *cognitive*, *desiderative*, and *emotive*. The distinction between these categories is best illustrated by examples:

a) perceptive; in relation to perception, senses.

Anna	heard	a noise
Senser	Mental process	Phenomenon

b) cognitive; in relation to cognition, knowledge, understanding.

He	believed	his brother’s lie
Senser	Mental process	Phenomenon

c) desiderative; in relation to desire.

Laura	wants	a new dress
Senser	Mental process	Phenomenon

d) emotive; in relation to emotion, feelings.

James	hates	country music
Senser	Mental process	Phenomenon

3.1.3. RELATIONAL CLAUSES

As can be seen in *Figure 1* above, relational clauses are clauses of “having attribute” or “having identity”, i.e. being and having. We have acknowledged that material clauses are concerned with our construal and experience of the material world; mental clauses, with our own experience of the world of our consciousness; relational clauses are concerned with both our outer and inner experiences of the world, but “they model this experience as ‘being’ rather than as ‘doing’ or ‘sensing’” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 211).

a) Inner experience

She	is	embarrassed
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b) Outer experience

Oliver	has	a piano
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There are three types of relational processes, namely: *intensive*, *circumstantial*, and *possessive*. Each of these can be further classified into *attributive* and *identifying* (Rayhan Bustam, 2011). Intensive relational processes can be defined as follows: “x is a,” it establishes a relation of sameness between two elements. Halliday (2004) states that intensive relational processes assign the “creature” to a class. Let us look at an example:

a) intensive relational processes: attributive

This food	is	great
Carrier	Process	Attribute

b) intensive relational processes: identifying

Caroline	is	our teacher
Identified	Process	Identifier

When we encounter an attributive clause, the participants involved are referred to as *Carrier* and *Attribute*, whereas the participants involved in an identifying clause are referred to as *Identified* and *Identifier*. As becomes clear from the examples above, attributive clauses define a quality, an “attribute” of a subject or element. On the other hand, identifying clauses, as the

name implies, give the subject or element an identity. Having this in mind, we will move on to the examples of circumstantial clauses:

a) circumstantial relational processes: attributive

The exam	is	on Monday
Carrier	Process	Attribute

b) circumstantial relational processes: identifying

Yesterday	was	the 15th
Identified	Process	Identifier

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) state that, in circumstantial clauses, the process indicates a relationship of “time, place, manner, cause, accomplishment, role, matter or angle” (p. 240) between the two elements. The examples above illustrate a relationship of time for as we can observe that in *exhibit a*) an attribute is being assigned to an entity, in this case, “*the exam*,” and *exhibit b*) portrays an entity being related to another by a feature of time.

Lastly, relational processes can convey ownership. According to Halliday (2004), possessive relational clauses express a relationship by which one entity possesses another. Examples of this clause type include:

a) possessive relational processes: attributive

James	has	a car
Carrier	Process	Attribute

b) possessive relational processes: identifying

The piano	is	Peter’s
Identified	Process	Identifier

In the first instance, one entity appears as the possessor of another, whereas in the latter one entity is being expressed as a feature of another, although in terms of possession. In his work, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) draw attention to the fact that “the category of ‘possessive’ clauses also includes possession in a broader, more generalized sense — possession of body parts and other part-whole relations, containment, involvement and the like.”

3.1.4. VERBAL CLAUSES

Verbal clauses are clauses of “saying” in such a way that they are intermediate between mental and material clauses: “saying something is a physical action which reflects mental operation” (Marbun, 2016, p. 12). In addition to the verbal process, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) distinguish four participants: the *sayer* is the main participant; the *receiver* is the one to whom the message is directed; the *verbiage* refers to what is said, the message; and the *target* is the entity addressed – *targeted* – by the process.

a)

She	asked	Jenna	a question
Sayer	Verbal process	Receiver	Verbiage

b)

I	am describing	you	to my mother
Sayer	Verbal process	Target	Receiver

This clause type is particularly relevant in narratives since it allows the individual to project both direct and indirect voices.

3.1.5. BEHAVIORAL CLAUSES

This clause type is concerned with the psychological behavior of (typically) humans. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) state that these clauses are not as clearly defined as the rest. As opposed to having characteristics of their own, behavioral clauses stand somewhere in between material and mental clauses: “the participant who is ‘behaving’, labelled *Behaver*, is typically a conscious being, like the *Senser*; the process is grammatically more like one of ‘doing’” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 250). Hence, we will classify as behavioral processes verbs such as look, listen, murmur, smile, cry, sleep or dance.

a)

She	is laughing
Behaver	Behavioral process

Behavioral processes are often associated with certain types of circumstances: Matter, Manner and Place (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). A circumstance of Matter, for example *arguing about the game*; *laugh loudly* is an example of circumstance of Manner; and circumstances of Place, which usually feature a prepositional phrase, for example, *staring at you*.

3.1.6. EXISTENTIAL CLAUSES

Existential clauses represent something that exists or happens (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). These clauses are typically realized by either the verb *to be* or some other verb which expresses existence. In the case of the verb *to be*, there represent a feature of existence and the entity or even which is being said to exist is referred to as *Existent*.

a)

There	was	a big spider
	Existential process	Existent: entity

b)

There	is	a party
	Existential process	Existent: event

In the subsections above, we have given a general description of the meaning and participants of each process type identified by Halliday & Matthiessen (2004). The ways students choose to express themselves allow us to better understand their experience of the world around them. In the case of foreign language students, analyzing word choice can also give us insights into their vocabulary range and accuracy. Overall, our goal is to analyze and understand the way students choose to express themselves via writing in English. For the purpose of this study and in line with Halliday's transitivity system, we will only focus on the choice of process type made by CLIL and EFL students.

3.2. COGNITIVE DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS

In an attempt to conceptualize the acts of thinking about subject matter in the classroom in a meaningful way, Dalton-Puffer (2013) proposed the following categorization: CLASIFY, DEFINE, DESCRIBE, EVALUATE, EXPLAIN, EXPLORE, REPORT. This construct of Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDFs) pays explicit attention to language in order to enhance both content and language learning (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2018). Dalton-Puffer (2013) based this construct on two core principles: a) that “the conscious cognitions about the world dealt with in formal education are fundamentally structured by language [...] and that b) language is the main way in which learners can share their current or new construals of the world with others” (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2018, p. 8). This means that language is the main tool through which learners are taught meaning about the world as well as the tool learners use to express and communicate to others their (new) understanding of the world. As Dalton-Puffer et al. (2018) quite rightly state, current curricula aims at assessing students’ competence in specific tasks relevant to the subject matter. These competences are evaluated in “can-do statements” measuring learners’ ability to perform tasks such as *identify, classify, formulate*, among others. CDFs Construct addresses the linguistic acts that students are asked to perform in order to fulfill the demands of today’s curricula. Each act is based on an underlying communicative intention “*identify, formulate different positions, describe, analyse, explain, compare, specify, hypothesize, recount* etc. in the process of teaching, learning, and examining” (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2018, p.8). Figure 2 below shows the construct.

underlying basic communicative intention	CDF TYPE	performative verbs
I tell you how we can cut up the world according to certain ideas	CLASSIFY	<i>classify, compare, contrast, match, structure, categorize, subsume</i>
I tell you about the extension of this object of specialist knowledge	DEFINE	<i>define, identify, characterize</i>
I tell you details of what I can see (also metaphorically)	DESCRIBE	<i>describe, label, identify, name, specify</i>
I tell you what my position is vis a vis X	EVALUATE	<i>evaluate, judge, argue, justify, take a stance, critique, comment, reflect</i>
I tell you about the causes or motives of X	EXPLAIN	<i>explain, reason, express cause/effect, draw conclusions, deduce</i>
I tell you something that is potential (i.e. non-factual)	EXPLORE	<i>explore, hypothesize, speculate, predict, guess, estimate, simulate</i>
I tell you something external to our immediate context on which I have a legitimate knowledge claim	REPORT	<i>report, inform, recount, narrate, present, summarize, relate</i>

Figure 2. The Construct of Cognitive Discourse Functions. Taken from Dalton-Puffer et al. (2018).

The main principle of this construct is that “it captures verbalizations linked to cognitive processes that are routinely performed in the course of dealing with curricular content while working towards curricular goals in formal education. As these cognitive processes are not directly observable, verbalizations are taken to be the only accessible analogues of thought” (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2018, p. 9). In other words, the CDFs Construct proposes a categorization of acts of commutation that reflect the thought processes performed in the classroom when dealing with subject matter. Thought processes are not solid, only the verbalizations of these thoughts exist outside of us in some tangible way. Thus, these verbal acts are taken as representations of cognitive processes.

3.3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Language learning in CLIL contexts has been well researched. Although some research has considered any differences resulting in comparing language learning in CLIL and non-CLIL contexts (e.g. Möller, 2017), a number of studies have focused on L2 learners’ linguistic development in strictly CLIL settings. For example, a study of secondary history CLIL students’ productions in different discursive contexts (classroom discussions and individual interviews) found that students’ apparent knowledge is influenced by the context in which this knowledge is produced (Llinares & Morton, 2010). Researchers also argue that CLIL students’ oral and written production can be influenced by the language they find in their textbooks (Llinares & Whittaker, 2007). These studies, among others, aim at shedding light on the possible limitations of CLIL settings in order to improve CLIL curricula and classroom practices for the purpose of enhancing second language acquisition and content learning. While these studies pay close attention to the oral and written productions of CLIL students, none of them compare it to that of students in non-CLIL settings, particularly those outside the formal education context. This focus on CLIL settings means that researchers currently know relatively little about the potential influence of language schools in the language acquisition of L2 learners. If language schools continue to increase in the number of students as they have until now in the Community of Madrid, researchers need a better understanding of the practices and circumstances surrounding this particular context of L2 acquisition. Such research could contribute to identifying specific strategies and practices that relate to successful language acquisition.

4. THE CONTEXT: BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY OF MADRID

The idea of “the sooner, the better” regarding second language acquisition has become widespread in the Spanish society in the past few years. In fact, Spain and Belgium are the only countries in Europe which begin second language instruction in the second cycle of early childhood education (Acción Educativa, 2017). In the case of Spain, bilingual English-Spanish programs in public educational centers date back to the collaboration agreement signed between the Spanish Ministry of Education – *Ministerio de Educación* – and the British Council in 1996. The main objective of this agreement was to develop bilingual education programs through the implementation of an integrated Spanish-British curriculum (Mármol, 2017).

4.1. TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Before the implementation of this pioneering bilingual project, second language instruction was provided either through bilingual education programs at private institutions or employing the traditional approach to foreign language instruction. This traditional approach is still being followed in many non-bilingual educational centers across the Community of Madrid today. The teaching of a first foreign language is among the core subjects included in the law for the improvement of educational quality (8/2013) – also known as LOMCE. This Law provides that a first foreign language (in most cases, English) is a mandatory subject from the second cycle of childhood education through *ESO* (Compulsory Secondary Education) and *Bachillerato* (Upper Secondary Education). The traditional approach to foreign language teaching implies, however, that all other core and optional courses are conducted in either Spanish or – as the Spanish Constitution recognizes that Spain is a multilingual state – the co-official language of that particular region. Additionally, the Spanish language or the co-official language will be used as support in the foreign language classroom, always prioritizing the oral comprehension and expression in the foreign language (Ley Orgánica 8, 2013). In the case of the Community of Madrid, which has no co-official language, all other core and optional subjects are conducted in Spanish.

The LOMCE strongly supports multilingualism, increasing efforts to ensure that students are fluent in at least one foreign language, whose level of oral and reading comprehension and oral and written expression is decisive in favoring employability and professional ambitions. (Ley Orgánica 8, 2013). The traditional approach to second language

instruction in Spain is focused on labor market inclusion. It is a policy determined to improve the students' communicative skills in order to increase their ability to access the job market and professional promotion. In an ever-increasing accessible and globalized labor market and economy, workers and businessmen of companies around the world are frequently required to know the English language. Accordingly, English is generally considered to be the language of business and lingua franca, thus allowing communication between users of different languages.

4.2. BILINGUAL EDUCATION MODEL IN THE COMMUNITY OF MADRID

Bilingual education in the Community of Madrid has grown notably over the last decade. According to a study conducted by the Dirección General de Becas y Ayudas al Estudio de la Consejería de Educación e Investigación de la Comunidad de Madrid (2019) (General Directorate for Scholarships and Study Aids of the Ministry of Education and Research of the Community of Madrid²), the Community of Madrid has a network of 764 bilingual centers supported with public funds, which accounts for 48.5 percent of public schools, 56.7 percent of secondary education centers and 48.5 percent of charter schools. Moreover, public funds used to finance Bilingual Education Programs in the Community of Madrid increased to nearly 40 million EUR in the school year 2017-2018 (Ministerio de Educación e Investigación, 2018). Since the 2004-2005 academic year, the Community of Madrid has developed a Bilingual Education model under the framework of the European policies for the promotion of the teaching and learning of second and third languages (Custodio Espinar, 2019). When the Bilingual Program was initially launched, only 26 public primary schools took part in it. However, this initiative continued to grow and was implemented in charter schools as well as secondary education centers during the academic years 2008-2009 and 2010-2011, respectively. In the academic year 2014-2015, the bilingual model was extended to *Bachillerato* (Upper Secondary Education); in 2016-2017, to 5 Vocational Training (FP) centers; and, finally, in the 2017-2018 academic year, it was also expanded, in 35 public schools, to the second cycle of Early Childhood education (Custodio Espinar, 2019).

Unlike the traditional approach, the bilingual model allows certain core and optional subjects to be taught entirely in English. Primary schools must conduct at least 30 percent of school hours in English, including *First Foreign Language: English* and two other areas of the curriculum, preferably *Social* and *Natural Science*. As for secondary education centers, the

² My translation.

subject *First Foreign Language: English* shall be taught the five days of the working week, once a day. Students may take any class in English, except for *Mathematics, Spanish Language and Literature, Latin, Second Foreign Language*, and the additional support classes for *Mathematics* and *Spanish* (Dirección General de Ayudas y Becas al Estudio. Subdirección General de Programas de Innovación, 2017). For at least one third of the school hours, instruction must be in English. In this way, students are taught in the foreign language contents outside the language classroom, allowing them to acquire a better command and understanding of the language. In a like manner, bilingual models promote a wider knowledge of the specific vocabulary of other areas of study.

Today, about half of public schools and high schools in Madrid are part of the Bilingual Program, and it continues to grow every year. The Community of Madrid has a network of bilingual educational centers formed by 379 public schools, 166 public high schools and 218 charter schools (Ministerio de Educación e Investigación, 2018). In addition, the Bilingual Program has also been established in 10 centers attached to the British Council; 15 French educational institutions; 4 German institutions, and 6 Vocational Training (FP) centers (Custodio Espinar, 2019). In line with the priority objectives laid down by the European Union, this initiative seeks to enhance the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign language, and foster their linguistic enhancement and lifelong learning. Furthermore, the Community of Madrid introduced bilingualism in order to achieve greater labor market insertion of the students who receive these teachings (Ministerio de Educación e Investigación, 2018).

4.3. LANGUAGE SCHOOLS IN THE COMMUNITY OF MADRID

Language schools belong to the non-formal education sector. It should be noted that this term includes all education occurring outside the formal school system, not only language programs. In the Community of Madrid, non-formal education is not regulated by any legislative provision, and, in fact, is commonly referred to as non-regulated education (*Enseñanza no reglada*). This gives language schools' owners and teachers the freedom to adopt any methodology that they deem appropriate. Thus, language schools take different approaches to language learning. The number of hours weekly is not specified in a curriculum either. Therefore, the language development of students attending non-formal English courses

might differ from one another due, not only to the students' individual characteristics, but also to the language school they attend and its specific method.

5. METHODOLOGY

5.1. THE SAMPLE

Data were elicited from two groups of English learners in an exam-like situation: 22 CLIL students, and 21 EFL students. Students from both groups are fourth graders (secondary level) who attend secondary schools in the Madrid area, and have been studying English since age 3-4. Out of the 21 EFL students, 13 attend language schools. Conversely, none of the CLIL students receive additional language training outside their formal education.

The prompt given to both groups was designed to elicit written compositions on the topic of women in the XXI century. This prompt was originally intended to elicit seven CDFs mentioned above. Thus, as students were responding to the prompt, they were addressing the different discourse functions:

Imagine you are participating in an exchange program in the States and classmates and the teacher ask you about the women's movement and the 8th of March in Spain. Define (DEFINE) the concept of feminism. Why is there a women's movement today? Describe (DESCRIBE) what life was like for women in your grandparents' generation and compare it with women's life today. Do you think the current women's movement in Spain is benefitting society? (EVALUATE) Why/why not? (EXPLAIN) What do you think would happen if Spanish companies were forced to have equal representation of men and women in high-level jobs? (EXPLORE) Most people in the class have never been to a demonstration. Tell them what happened on the 8th of March in Madrid in relation to women's movement (REPORT).

The texts produced by CLIL students were collected in a bilingual secondary school in the Madrid area. 22 texts were analyzed with a total number of 473 clauses, the average length of the texts being 12.16 clauses, and the average word length being 4.23 characters. The texts produced by EFL students were collected in a non-bilingual secondary school in the Madrid area. The corpus of EFL students' essays consisted of 21 compositions with a total of 496

clauses, the average length of the texts being 13.15 clauses, and the average word length being 4.23 characters. Table 1 summarizes the corpus we analyzed. Realistically, it will be a small-scale study. Nevertheless, it can provide a good foundation and solid base for deeper research in the area further down the line.

Table 1. The sample of texts

	<i>CLIL learners</i>	<i>EFL learners</i>
<i>Number of texts analyzed</i>	22	21
<i>Number of clauses analyzed</i>	473	496
<i>Mean number of clauses per text</i>	12.16	13.15

5.2. DATA PREPARATION AND ANALYSIS

The obtained data were manually analyzed and annotated for the different types of process proposed by Halliday (2004). For this study, the unit of analysis was the clause. Clauses were analyzed for Transitivity. It should be noted that this task offered problems due to mistranslations and awkward phrasing. Both CLIL and EFL students transferred certain structures directly from Spanish giving rise to challenges when coding the clauses. As instances of processes presented errors, we will only account for process types with syntactic and grammatical mistakes (e.g. “she *didn’t went* to school”), but will discard those with semantic errors (e.g. “this things *don’t pass*” instead of *happen*). Finally, the total number of clauses and the specific process types used were entered into a table and percentages were calculated. UAM Corpus Tool, developed by O’Donnell (2009), was subsequently used to compile and analyze other specific variables such as lexical and grammatical complexity. In addition, a questionnaire was distributed to all participants in order to explore the different external factors that affect the students’ language skills, and the frequency with which they are carried out.

The students’ essays were scored following these parameters: holistic grading, lexical complexity and grammatical complexity. Two secondary teachers were asked to grade the compositions holistically taking into account their own assessment criteria. Teachers scoring the texts were unaware of the hypothesis and purpose of this study. No specific conditions or criteria were set out and essays were anonymized in order to avoid bias. Teachers were also unaware of whether the participants attend a bilingual program or a non-bilingual school. The texts’ final score is the average of the two grades awarded by the teachers.

As we can see in Table 2 below, to determine the lexical complexity of the texts, lexical density and lexical variation were measured for both groups. Lexical density is defined as the proportion of content words to the total number of words, and lexical variation refers to the number of different lexical words (or content words) divided by the total number of lexical words. Lexical words cover nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs. As “lexical complexity in students’ academic texts sets forth the students’ writing proficiency” (Dewi, 2017, p. 123), its analysis will allow us to observe the effects of different language teaching methods and language exposure time on students’ command of written English. Lastly, the analysis of grammatical complexity will serve a similar purpose. Number of words per clause was calculated. It was originally intended to measure clauses per T-unit, however, the task presented issues and was deemed inappropriate for the analysis of data from both groups due to the relatively low proficiency of the texts. Younger students have a tendency to produce run-on sentences, they frequently connect short main clauses with “and” and are still unable to properly subordinate and embed clauses (Newkirk, 2003, as cited in Nordquist, 2020). Incorrect use of punctuation marks complicated the task further.

Table 2. Lexical and grammatical complexity measures.

<i>CONSTRUCT</i>	<i>MEASURES</i>
<i>Lexical complexity</i>	Lexical density ratio
	Total number of lexical words/Total number of words
	Lexical variation ratio
	Different lexical words /Total number of lexical words
<i>Grammatical complexity</i>	Words per clause ratio
	Total number of words/Total number of clauses

Students employ their transitivity recourses differently as they develop proficiency. Thus, holistic grading, lexical complexity and words per clause will provide the arguments developed in this report a strong foundation.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As a background to the transitivity analysis that follows, we will in this section give an overview of the findings of the analysis of lexical complexity, grammatical complexity and holistic grading. In this way, we aim at identifying a bond between the use of processes and the

complexity of the texts. When forming a sentence, we make choices within our available linguistic resources in order to convey meaning. Thus, lexical choice plays a pivotal role in communicating meaning in a written text. For this reason, we have decided to focus on lexical complexity rather than accuracy, since complexity is more closely related to the use of meaning.

Table 3. CLIL and EFL students' written competence as measured by lexical complexity

	<i>GROUP</i>	<i>PERCENTAGE</i>
Lexical density ratio	CLIL students	57.4%
	EFL students	57.3%
Lexical variation ratio	CLIL students	30.4%
	EFL students	30.7%

Table 3 describes the density of content words identified in the students' essays. CLIL students' essays have 57.4% lexical density percentage. They used a total of 1762 lexical words; the total word count is just over 3000 words. On the other hand, EFL students used 1992 lexical words and a total of 3476 words, with a lexical density of 57.3%. Thus, both samples have considerably high lexical density index (above 50 percent). Furthermore, both groups presented similar lexical variation percentage. CLIL students' essays have a lexical variation of 30.4% and EFL students, 30.7%. Students showed a lack of varied lexical use in their writings. As we shall discuss later, this is reflected in the way they express themselves and, thus, in their choices of process types. To sum up, the results show that there were no significant differences between CLIL and EFL students in lexical complexity.

With regards to grammatical complexity, CLIL students wrote an average 12.16 words per clause as compared to EFL students who wrote an average 13.15 words per clause. One possible explanation for this difference in length is the recurrent errors in punctuation and frequent occurrence of run-on sentences that, as a result, are wrongly considered as one individual clause. Even though both sample groups made punctuation errors and joined sentences improperly, this was more frequent in EFL students' texts.

Figure 3 below represents an average of the grades awarded by secondary teachers to the students' L2 writings. The average grade was calculated and both groups present a relatively low average grade. CLIL students' average grade stands at 5.29, while EFL students' average grade stands at 5.54. There was no significant difference in the average grade when taking the teaching methodology into consideration, ($t = -0.42, p = 0.68$), despite EFL students ($M = 5.54, SD = 1.99$) attaining a slightly higher average score than CLIL students ($M = 5.29, SD = 1.86$). When taking into account their extracurricular language training, the difference seems to be

slightly more noticeable. A two sample t-test was also performed to compare holistic grading results in students who attend English at a language school and students who have no additional language training outside their formal education. There was not a significant difference in grades between students attending a language school ($M = 6.30$, $SD = 2.11$) and students who do not attend any extracurricular language classes ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.71$); $t = 1.91$, $p = 0.07$. Results are, however, at the margin of statistical significance ($p = 0.07$). Figure 3 illustrates this point.

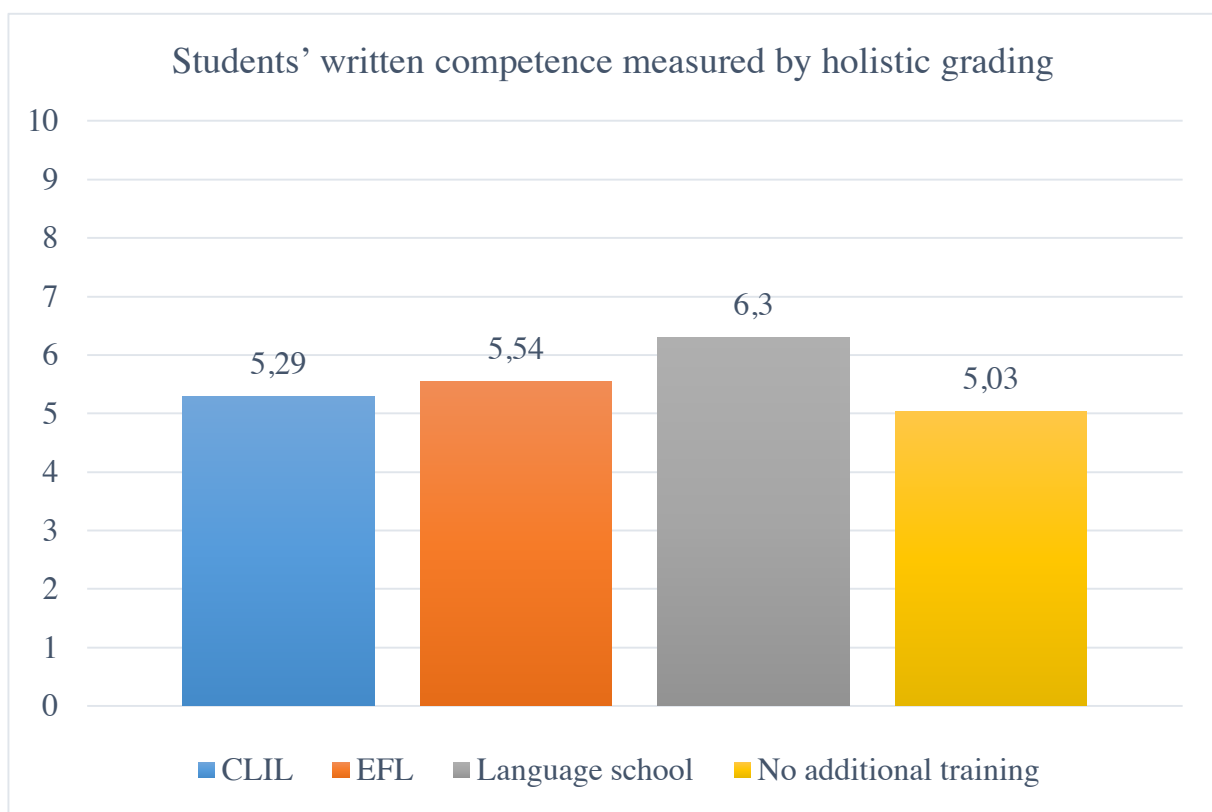


Figure 3. CLIL and EFL students' written competence as measured by holistic grading.

Taking into consideration that, based strictly on holistic grading, students present similar average grades, we proceed to address the research questions raised at the beginning of this paper. Furthermore, a discussion of the choices that the participants in this study have made regarding process types will be presented. In order to answer Question 1, "How do CLIL learners represent the topic in their texts?" process types in the texts were examined. The way in which students express the experiential meaning is determined by the processes they use. It is clear that, given the nature of essays, some process types will appear more often than others. Describing and defining are expected to have an essential role in the students' discussions of

feminism. Since they were asked to define its meaning, relational processes should appear more frequently than other process types. On the other hand, students were asked to describe the life of previous generations of women. Thus, they are expected to refer to certain actions in relation to what women could or couldn't do in the past. For this reason, material processes are also expected to be frequent. Mental processes are also expected to appear in response to the prompt “Do you think the current women's movement in Spain is benefitting society?” Verbal, existential and behavioral processes may also be part of the recounts but will certainly appear less often than material, relational and mental processes.

Table 4 below illustrates the distribution of the processes used by CLIL students in their written texts. Furthermore, it gives the number of clauses and the percentage each process type represents in the sample. As expected, relational and material processes were the most frequent types used by CLIL learners, found in 37.6 per cent and 35.9 per cent of all the clauses they wrote, with examples like *Feminism is the fight for the equal rights between men and women* and *In Spain, women couldn't **drive** or **vote** in the national voting day*, respectively. Although less frequent than material and relational processes, mental processes also appeared repeatedly and made up 17.1 per cent of clauses. We can find mental processes in clauses like *I **think** that the current women's movement in Spain is benefitting society*³. Verbal and existential processes were less frequent, accounting for 3.6 per cent and 4.1 per cent, respectively. Examples of verbal and existential processes include respectively *On the 8th of March, thousands of womens **expressed** their message of equality and equal rights, job conditions and feminism* and ***There** is a women movement today to revindicate the difference between rights of women compared to mens*. However, behavioral processes occurred very infrequently.

Table 4. Distribution of process types in the texts by CLIL students

		PROCESS-TYPE					
CLIL students		Material	Mental	Relational	Verbal	Behavioral	Existential
	No of Clauses	162	77	170	26	4	12
	%	35.9%	17.1%	37.6%	5.7%	0.8%	2.6%

Let us now see the results from the EFL learners' essays. EFL students were expected to encode their experience of feminism in a similar way to CLIL learners. It was presumed that

³ Note that the compositions of the students were transcribed literally, thus maintaining any grammar mistakes and misspelled words.

material and relational processes would be the most frequent process types. Accordingly, these process types were in fact the most frequently used by EFL learners. Material processes were found in 40.7 per cent of all clauses they wrote, and relational processes in 36.8 per cent. Examples of material processes include *In our grandparents' generation the women **had to work** all day long at home taking care of the children* or *most of the time you can't walk alone*. We can find instances of relational processes such as *women **are** equal as men in practically all terms*. Mental processes made up 14.2 per cent of the total, with examples like *Young people now mostly **believe** in equality*. In the same way as CLIL students, EFL students used verbal and existential processes less frequently, 3.6 per cent and 4.1 per cent, respectively. Examples of the former include *they are **saying** that women can't get a high level job with her hard work*, and of the latter, ***There are** lots of demonstration in Madrid*. Once again, behavioral processes occurred very infrequently.

Table 5. Distribution of process types in the texts by EFL students

		<i>PROCESS-TYPE</i>					
<i>EFL students</i>		Material	Mental	Relational	Verbal	Behavioral	Existential
	No of Clauses	189	66	171	17	2	19
	%	40.7%	14.2%	36.8%	3.6%	0.4%	4.1%

We find here that EFL students used a higher proportion of material processes material, as opposed to CLIL students, who used a higher proportion of relational processes. This difference may be explained by the fact that students approach the topic differently. While CLIL students focused on feminism as a concept and made sure to define the movement and what it stands for, EFL students placed enhanced emphasis on what women's rights and limitations. These are some examples of CLIL students' definitions of the topic under discussion:

Extracts 1.1-1.4. CLIL students' definitions of feminism.

1.1. *Feminism is movement for the equality.*

1.2. *Today the term of feminist **meaning** that the womans are equallity than the mens, some womans are hembrist.*

1.3. *Feminism is the name of the group of women's that its called feminist. Because it is important to have women's movement in the day of today.*

1.4. *The feminisim is to be in favour of the equality and being in favour of the girls.*

It is interesting to note how in these examples all clauses are relational. Although EFL students also define the concept of feminism, they do so less in-depth and place a bigger focus on giving a description of women's lives and rights:

Extracts 2.1-2.4. EFL students' descriptions of women's lives and rights.

*2.1. In the past women **stayed** at home looked for the children and the men went to work and got money.*

*2.2. Women used to **do** all the housework, while men used to have high-level jobs.*

*2.3. In the past the mother **staid** at home and cleaned all the house and the father went to work.*

*2.4. Womans only can **stay** at home doing house work and they can't study, and they can't use trousers because everyone said that this is only for mens.*

We can appreciate here that students took different approaches when responding to the CDFs. CLIL students' responses to definition use relational processes, which was the expectation, whereas EFL students' placed the focus on describing the women's role in order to define the concept of feminism. In this way, the functions of definition and description overlap in their writings. As they are describing actions, material processes had a more active role in EFL students' essays. As we said, CLIL and EFL students opted for different approaches when it came to discussing feminism. A possible explanation for this difference is the fact that CLIL students take History classes in the second language. CLIL students are used to writing texts defining and describing historical events in English and are supposed to have a larger range of linguistic resources for said tasks. Conversely, EFL students have taken a less historical perspective. These students have focused on the day-to-day differences between men and women, which seems more suitable for students who are not used to writing as much in English and who might have a less extensive vocabulary.

Although no significant differences were found between the two sample groups for mental processes, we studied the subtypes of mental processes to establish whether any differences do exist. CLIL students used mainly cognitive mental processes, recurring fairly frequently to the expression *I think*. I think of the verb *think* as the prototype mental process in relation to cognition. Out of the 77 instances of mental clauses in CLIL students' texts, 44 used

the verb *think*. That makes up 57.1 per cent of mental clauses. In fact, 15 out of the 22 CLIL students stated their opinions on the feminist movement using this expression:

Extracts 3.1-3.4. CLIL students' evaluations of the feminist movement.

3.1. *I think that the feminist isn't just to go out the street and have a strick.*

3.2. *I think is benefitting because womens and mens have to stay iquals.*

3.3. *I think that if girl's will represent high-level jobs, I think that the economy will be the same or better than when man's do the job.*

3.4. *I think women's movement are a great method and that are benefitting society.*

On the other hand, EFL students wrote the mental process *think* only 24 times out of 66 clauses, which accounts for 36.3 per cent of mental clauses. Even though EFL students also used *I think* to express their views on the topic being discussed, we can see other instances of the verb *think* used to express others' opinions rather than theirs.

Extracts 4.1-4.3. EFL students' use of the process *think*.

4.1. *The companies think that mans are more stronger than womens.*

4.2. *People think that the womans have les oportunity that the other people.*

4.3. *Many people who think women are inferior to men.*

Even though students were given the same prompt and instructions, there is a difference in the way they have approached the topic in their writings. The different language teaching methodologies might have influenced the way they encode the world around them in the foreign language. Grammar is the central element in traditional language instruction and this is rarely focused on writing or speaking skills and, consequently, on expressing ones' opinion. Conversely, CLIL students take subjects such as History or Science in English. These subjects have a focus on content rather than grammar. The language component, as the term suggests, is integrated in the content of the subject. Students are more accustomed to writing in English, whether it be in exams or essays. This gives them a sense of confidence that EFL students lack, leading to them feeling more comfortable expressing their views and insights in a language that is not their own. Most EFL students have simply stated the facts and reality about feminism without going as much into their personal understandings of the issue. This might indicate that they have fewer linguistic resources to draw from in order to construe meaning. This shows,

yet again, that CLIL and EFL students use their linguistic resources differently. Having said this, EFL students did use a greater variety of mental processes and included all subtypes, perceptive, cognitive, desiderative and emotive:

Extracts 5.1-5.4. EFL students' range of mental processes.

*5.1. We can still **see** how men usually have higher-level jobs.*

*5.2. I don't **know** how high-level jobs are chosen.*

*5.3. The ompanies **want** more mans than womens*

*5.4. We **like** different things*

There are multiple examples throughout the texts of how CLIL and EFL students utilize their available linguistic resources differently to convey similar ideas. Take these two students:

Extracts 6.1-6.2. Excepts of CLIL and EFL students' texts.

*6.1. Feminism **is** the need to espress the equal rights in both genders. **There is** a women's movement day (8th of March) because women's **were** so discriminate in the past, they didn't can't vote, work but actually it's much better! We **have** more equal rights than before.*

*6.2. Feminism **wants** to have equality between men and women. The 8th of March **is** the women's day, when people **go** to the streets because of the injustice to womens and to change the society. Life for women **has improved** because now we can do things that our grandmothers can do, like having a job or being the same as men.*

These are introductory paragraph written by a CLIL student and an EFL students, respectively. As can be seen, the main idea that these students are trying to communicate is essentially the same: a need for equality between men and women, what the 8th of March represents and some examples of women's limitations. If we break down the information we are able to appreciate how they made different linguistic choices in order to express similar ideas. While the CLIL student opted for a relational clause in order to describe feminism, *Feminism is the need to espress the equal rights in both genders*, the EFL student drew on different linguistic resources and phrased this same idea using a mental clause, *Feminism **wants** to have equality between men and women*. In order to talk about the 8th of March, the CLIL student used an existential clause ***There is** a women's movement day (8th of March)*, whereas the EFL now used a relational

clause *The 8th of March is the women's day*. This is only one of the many instances we can find in the corpus of texts where CLIL and EFL students used different process types in order to encode their experiential world in a meaningful way. After a closer analysis of the clauses and process types in both CLIL and EFL students' compositions, it becomes evident that CLIL students do not use a greater variety of process types in order to encode reality. They simply distribute process types differently throughout the texts, and express their experience of the world by drawing on different linguistic resources.

In order to answer Question 2, "How do EFL learners who attend language schools complete the same task?" we need to consider the variable of extracurricular language training. As we have already mentioned, research has concluded that there is a correlation between language exposure time and developing linguistic competence. CLIL students are significantly more exposed to the English language than EFL students. However, additional language training outside of their formal education narrows the gap in hours of exposure. Since we could not find significant differences in complexity, we proceed to evaluate the use of the different process types in language school students' compositions.

Table 6 shows the distribution of the processes used by EFL students who attend language schools in their written texts. As in the previous cases, material and relational processes were the most frequent types used by language school learners, found in 40 per cent and 38.2 per cent of all the clauses they wrote, with examples like *A man **can get** more money doing the same as a woman* and *Throughout history, men **have** always had the most important jobs*, respectively. Once again, mental processes appeared more frequently than verbal and existential processes, and made up 14 per cent of clauses. We find mental processes in clauses like *most girls could **believe** in themselves to do everything they want*. Verbal and existential processes were less frequent, accounting for 3.1 per cent and 4.2 per cent, respectively. Instances of verbal processes include *people **express** the ideas of feminism by organising demonstrations*, and of existential processes, ***there was** a demonstration in Madrid, organised by young people*. Behavioral processes also occurred very infrequently in language school students' texts.

Table 6. Distribution of process types in the texts by EFL students attending language schools

PROCESS-TYPE							
EFL students		Material	Mental	Relational	Verbal	Behavioral	Existential
	No of Clauses	114	40	109	9	1	12
	%	40%	14%	38.2%	3.1%	0.3%	4.2%

Let us return to the subject of the use of mental processes. As mentioned earlier, EFL students used the cognitive mental process *think* 24 time out of the 66 instances of mental clauses. 21 out of those occurrences were written by language school students, making up for 52.5 per cent of mental clauses in their compositions. This percentage is closer to CLIL students' essays where *think* made up 57.1 per cent of mental clauses. Here are some concrete examples of language school students' use of the cognitive mental process *think*:

Extracts 7.1-7.4. Language school students' use of the process *think*.

7.1. *I think the women's movement in Spain is benefitting society because there are some injustices that need to be fixed*

7.2. *I think that this movement is in process yet*

7.3. *I think that this companies should choose the most qualified person, not matters his or him sex.*

7.4. *I think that the work production could increase because the women can take action*

This means that language school students responded to the prompt “*Do you think...*” eliciting evaluation differently to their EFL peers who do not receive additional training. Language school students' responses were closer to CLIL students'. They demonstrate a better understanding of the prompt. In addition, language school students seem to feel more comfortable sharing their thoughts than their peers who take English lessons exclusively at their non-bilingual center. In fact, CLIL and language school students shaped their compositions as expository or argumentative essays, whereas EFL students' texts were organized as lists of events/actions. These students placed emphasis on providing information rather than opinion-forming, placing emphasis on describing rather than evaluating or exploring. We cannot avoid asking ourselves why language school students have been able to project their personal views and position regarding the topic into their writings and EFL students haven't. Language schools provide an outstanding opportunity to learn a language in a more relaxed atmosphere. These schools generally offer smaller classes with personal and individual attention given to the students. It is easier to express one's own point of view in such setting. Thus, language school students, just like CLIL students, have been given the opportunity and the resources to express themselves successfully in the foreign language. EFL instruction with its focus on grammar lacks a space for open discussion where students can develop both their verbal and written skills. Interestingly, despite the limitations of their educational environment, these EFL students

were able to use a wide variety of process types in order to represent the concept of feminism in their writings. The similarities in the range of process types used by the participant go in line with the similar results they have obtained when examining language competence measured by lexical complexity and holistic grading. Thus, Question 3 “How does this relate to their language competence measured by lexical complexity and holistic grading?” can now be addressed. The analysis of the students’ language competence yielded extremely similar results, with none of the sample groups presenting any statistically significant difference between them. Consequently, the results of lexical variation and density were quite alike. These measures play an essential role in meaning-making since they represent the range of vocabulary used by the students and their decision to choose a linguistic element instead of other. This decision-making process is the same as described for the choice of process types. Students draw certain elements from their available linguistic resources in order to communicate meaning, and they do so in a similar way as their peers from other contexts.

Given the prompt, students should address the cognitive discourse functions proposed by Dalton-Puffer (2013) in their writings. There are certain process types that are inevitably linked to each discourse function. We proceed to tackle the first part of Question 4: “What Cognitive Discourse Functions are learners focusing on and how are they representing them?” in order to identify what process types students are using to represent these functions linguistically and if they are, in fact, responding to all of them. As we have stated before, the main difference between the contexts is the way they have approached the given instructions. It is worth noting that not all of the students have responded to all the CDFs. Table 7 below illustrate students’ responses to CDFs in their writings.

Table 7. Students’ responses to Cognitive Discourse Functions

CDF	CLIL	EFL	Language school
classify	0	0	0
define	17	7	13
describe	16	8	11
evaluate	15	3	11
explain	16	7	10
explore	10	4	9
report	14	7	9

As one can easily see, CDFs are not all used to the same extent in these contexts. Out of the 22 CLIL students, more than 50% have used processes in order to refer to CDFs such as *define*, *describe*, *evaluate*, *explain* and *report* functions, and 45.4% have responded to *explore*. EFL students – by this we mean students in traditional education who do not receive additional language training – show a slight disparity in their responses to CDFs. While either 7 (of 8) or all students have produced CDFs in order to *define*, *describe*, *explain* and *report*, less than 50% of the texts show occurrences of *evaluate* and *explore*. Finally, over 69.2% of language school students have responded to *define*, *describe*, *evaluate*, *explain*, *explore* and *report*. However, none of the participants in this study have produced any attempt at classification. As can be seen in Table 8, description, definition and explanation are carried out quite often (<70%) and to a more or less equal extent across contexts, while other CDFs differ in their frequency of occurrence and in the sample groups focusing on them.

Table 8. Share of individual CDFs as percentages per context

CDF	CLIL	EFL	Language school
classify	0%	0%	0%
define	77.2%	87.5%	100%
describe	72.7%	100%	84.6%
evaluate	68.1%	37.5%	84.6%
explain	72.7%	87.5%	76.9%
explore	45.4%	50%	69.2%
report	63.6%	87.5%	69.2%

Once we visualize which CDFs emerge the most frequently used across contexts, it becomes evident that students have focused on different CDFs and thus, have taken different approaches to the prompt. Now we wonder how these CDFs are represented in their written texts and what process types students are using to do so. Firstly, students were asked to define the concept of feminism. For this definition, most CLIL and language students have used relational processes, particularly the verb *to be*. There is only one instance where a mental process was used instance: *Feminism wants to have equality between men and women*. This definition shows a Language school student using the mental process *want* in order to provide a characterization of the term. Nevertheless, a fairly homogenous pattern can be discerned among these two contexts. As was previously mentioned in this study, the boundaries between EFL students' definitions and descriptions, however, are blurred. In their writing, EFL students

have placed more importance on giving a description of women's lives in the past instead of addressing directly the term *feminism* (Extracts 2.1-2.4). On the other hand, CLIL and language school students draw a clear distinction between definition and description. For the purpose of describing, students have used mainly material processes. Similarly to EFL students' descriptions, CLIL and language school students give a description of the life of past generations of women by recounting the actions that women could and, mostly, couldn't do. There is a marked disparity in the responses to *evaluate*. This disparity ties back to the previous discussion of the use of mental processes in the students' writings. CLIL and language school students present a considerably higher percentage of evaluations in their texts, while only 37.5% of EFL students have shared their thoughts and position on this topic. Thus, CLIL and language school students use the mental process *think* more frequently than EFL students, as they do so in response to the prompt eliciting evaluations "*Do you think the current women's movement in Spain is benefitting society?*". As discussed earlier, stance-taking seems more frequent in the contexts where students are given a space to share their views, rather than strictly learn about the grammar and rules of the language. In this sense, CLIL methodologies and language schools provide students with the opportunity to form an opinion and share it employing the linguistic resources that they acquire in the classroom. On the other hand, traditional language classrooms have a focus on grammar exercises and understanding the rules of the language that leave little to no space for discussion in the foreign language.

Moving on to the function *explain*, students present similar percentages. Interestingly, this is the most varied of functions with respect to process types. Students have used a variety of processes in order to explain why (or why not) feminism is befitting society. As is the case with *evaluate*, exploring requires critical thinking and stance-taking. Exploring requires students to hypothesize the future and this is heavily biased by the way they perceive feminism. This function has been mainly realized by the relational process *have* preceded by the auxiliary *can* or *could*. Here, we can appreciate a difference in the number of students who have focused on this function depending on the context. While only 50% and less than EFL and CLIL students, respectively, have responded to the prompt, almost 70% of language school students have performed this function. Thus, language school students have given greater importance to talking about hypothetical aspects. This could stem from the difference in methodology. While CLIL students talk about the subject matter and EFL students discuss grammar, language school students do not follow a specific curriculum. Therefore, there are two possible premises to take into account: a) that language school do not have to cover specific topics and b) that classes are

smaller in number of students. This means that, firstly, students are able to talk freely about topic that require hypothesizing about the future and, secondly, discussion among smaller groups allows all of them to participate. With this, students gain confidence in their language skills and feel less reluctant to leave the comfort of giving factual information, and are encouraged to hypothesize. Finally, the last section of the prompt “*Most people in the class have never been to a demonstration. Tell them what happened on the 8th of March in Madrid in relation to women’s movement,*” aimed at eliciting students’ reports. Students across contexts performed the *report* function with relational, material and existential processes being the most frequently used for this purpose. Since this function has been represented linguistically in such varied manners, here are some instances:

Extracts 8.1-8.3. Students’ representations of the CDF *report*.

8.1. *The 8th of March is a day to get in tuch with the feminis and revindicate the social problems – relational.*

8.2. *In the 8th of March all one fights for the igitality – material.*

8.3. *On the 8th of March in Madrid **there** is a manifestation, and womens go to have a equal representation that a men – existential.*

This variety can be found across contexts. In other words, no sample group has followed a specific pattern or has used certain type of processes in order to carry out this function.

These observations have allowed us to address Question 5, “Is attending a language school a strong determinant in students’ language-learning process?” It is clear that higher exposure to the foreign language enables students to communicate more fluently. Language schools enable students to add extra hours to their language training. CLIL students have the advantage of being exposed to the foreign language for at least one third of the school hours. In addition, attending courses such as History or Science in English gives them access to a wider range of specific vocabulary. However, this study has shown that, even though CLIL students are more exposed to the English language, EFL and language school students were able to complete this task just as successfully and use a great variety of process types in order to encode meaning. It is true that students who are afforded a space to communicate in the foreign language and learn English beyond grammar rules used their linguistic resources in a similar way. Despite the difference in methodology and language exposure time, there were no significant differences in the performance of CLIL and language school students. In fact, the

few dissimilarities found stem from a difference in the approach taken to represent the CDFs. This allows us to assert that language schools help students develop their full linguistic potential, and play an important role in the language learning of EFL students.

9. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE

This section is considered from a double perspective. In the first place, we proceed to summarize the conclusions that have emerged from the research work. Secondly, future proposals are made. This part also discusses possible lines of investigation and future research work in the field of language instruction.

The study presented in this paper has shown how CLIL students, EFL students and EFL students who attend extracurricular language classes construe meaning in their written compositions. Here, we looked at the linguistic choices students made in order to conceptualize and describe a particular event. In doing so, we were able to get a general picture of the role that English schools play in the language-learning process of English learners. In order to address the research questions formulated for the purpose of this study, we explored how students represented the concept of feminism in their writings, the variety of process types throughout the texts, and the choice of process types.

In our texts, then, we see students' meaning-making choices in written communication. We drew from the premise that the students' compositions were similar in lexical and grammatical complexity, as well as they had a similar average grade awarded holistically by secondary teachers. The distribution of process types throughout the texts was similar among sample groups. Material processes and relational processes were the most frequent process types used by CLIL, EFL and language school students, with the small difference of relational processes being the most frequent process type used by CLIL students, and material processes by EFL and language school students. Likewise, verbal, existential and behavioral processes were very infrequent in all compositions, with behavioral processes accounting for less than 1 per cent and none of them making up over 6 per cent of process types. The main disparity is found in the use of mental processes. This difference may be explained as stemming from their ability to successfully express their views and share their insights in their writings. EFL students who do not attend a language school appeared more reluctant to form an opinion. Two possible explanations underlie this discrepancy. First, EFL lessons are grammar-oriented, thus, providing limited opportunities for students to learn how to use their linguistic resources to

communicate their point of view. Second, EFL students are less exposed to the foreign language, merely 3-4 hours a week, and might in fact lack the linguistic resources necessary to express their opinions, or at least, to do so confidently. Thus, some students may have refrained from sharing their views in order to avoid errors and misunderstandings.

CLIL, EFL and language school students were able to accomplish the task satisfactorily, and use a wide range of process types to encode meaning. Despite the difference in methodology and language exposure time, no significant differences were found in the performance of CLIL and language school students. All in all, the study comes to the conclusion that language schools play an essential role in the language-learning process of EFL students, helping them enhance and expand their linguistic resources. Nevertheless, educational centers and language schools should implement lesson plans that encourage students' construal of experiential meaning. By exploring their experience of events and reality, they can further develop their L2 linguistic skills and be better equipped with practical knowledge for understanding the linguistic choices available across different genres.

This study serves as a solid base for deeper research further down the line. At the same time, the work covered in the thesis has left many unopened questions. Other issues of interest related to the main topic are: a) Methodology implemented in language schools: This study focuses on exposure time and how language school provide students with valuable tools to develop their second language skills. However, it does not cover the different methodologies that language schools use in order to support students in their language learning process. It could be interesting to see the focus and approach of these schools and asses their effectiveness. Questions arise such as *“Do they have a grammar focus?”* *“Do they value communicative skills over grammar?”* *“Which method is more efficient for helping EFL students develop their L2 linguistic skills?”* b) Extramural exposure: In this study we have examined the role that language schools play in students' second language acquisition. Nevertheless, modern technology and globalization provide students with easy access to entertainment in English. Whether it be listening to music or watching series or movies, today's language learners can easily increase their language exposure time. Another line of study could arise from taking these variables into account, and seeing how these practices help in the language learning process and, c) The socio-economic gap in foreign-language learning: These models of additional language training are increasingly popular in communities with a certain socio-economic status. It is worth considering, who has access to these resources? Is it affordable? Do students in disadvantaged socio-economic areas attend language school as frequently? We believe that it

is worth looking at language schools from a theoretical, social and legal frame in order to pinpoint their weaknesses and highlight their strengths.

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