



Universidad de Oviedo

Facultad de Formación del Profesorado y Educación

Trabajo Fin de Máster en Enseñanza Integrada en Lengua Inglesa y Contenidos:

Educación Infantil y Primaria

**Behaviour management in CLIL contexts: an
analysis of teachers' interventions on
misbehaviour through Logical Consequences
and Assertive Discipline**

Raquel Tena Luna

Tutora: Marta Ramón García

Julio 2021



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PRESENTATION

Title: Behaviour management in CLIL contexts: an analysis of teachers' interventions on misbehaviour through Logical Consequences and Assertive Discipline

Abstract:

The fervent demand for English has gradually led to the implementation of CLIL programmes in the schools across the country. Against this backdrop, new challenges related to the use of the second language may appear in addition to the ones already faced by teachers, such as behaviour management. This dissertation explores CLIL teachers' perceptions and practices for managing misbehaviour, as well as the influence that the second language has in the lessons.

Key words: *CLIL, misbehaviour, teachers, discipline, Logical Consequences, Assertive Discipline, rewards, second language*

Título: El control de la disciplina en los contextos AICLE: un análisis de las intervenciones de los docentes a través de las Consecuencias Lógicas y la Disciplina Asertiva

Resumen:

La implementación de los programas bilingües evidencia que, de manera progresiva pero constante, el inglés se ha consolidado tanto en nuestra sociedad como en el Sistema Educativo. Además de los propios del idioma, se plantean nuevos retos educativos en aquellas dimensiones que trascienden la educación formal: la vida en el aula y el comportamiento (así como su gestión) juegan un papel fundamental, articulado a través de diferentes metodologías y del grado de adhesión del profesorado a las mismas. En ese sentido, este trabajo trata de abordar las diferentes percepciones y prácticas del profesorado AICLE a la hora de afrontar el comportamiento del alumnado, así como la influencia que el segundo idioma tiene sobre las mismas.

Palabras clave: *AICLE, comportamiento, docentes, disciplina, Consecuencias Lógicas, Disciplina Asertiva, recompensas, segunda lengua*



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1. INTRODUCTION

Discipline and classroom management have been one of the most troubling aspects of teaching practice for in-service teachers in the past and until recent years (Tenoschok, 1985; Wheldall, 1991; Evertson & Weinstein, 2013). The struggle to manage the lessons also concerns training and beginning teachers, who find it a serious and real challenge (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013). Oliver and Reschly (2007) explain how those teachers usually complain about the limited knowledge and preparation they receive during their training years related to strategies to deal with classroom disruption (as cited in O'Neill & Stephenson, 2012, p. 1131), and suggest it as a possible cause for their lack of confidence (Giallo & Little, 2003). According to Melnick & Meister (2008):

What pre-service teachers learn in the college classroom and practice among themselves with no children present or in a controlled environment is often substantially different from the reality of their first teaching assignments". (p. 53)

The lack of preparation and difficulty to manage the lessons require teachers to develop strategies and methods to be implemented on the spur of the moment, which are often learned by trial and error in the practical context.

Research on classroom management and discipline have put the spotlight on certain well-established models that seem to be present to a greater or lesser degree in current modern education. These are approaches that rely on psychological theories, such as Canter's Assertive discipline (1976), which bases its principles upon Skinner's behaviourism theory (1974) and the rewards system; and Rudolf Dreikurs's Logical Consequences (1980), which draws attention to the learning of self-regulation of students' behaviour. These approaches set a basis and provide teachers with tools to manage the lessons, which might help them to avoid difficult situations. According to Malmgren et al. (2005) "a cohesive and thoughtfully constructed personal philosophy of classroom management can provide the foundation from which teachers make classroom management decisions and respond to instances of student misbehaviour" (p. 36).

Nevertheless, despite the existence of consolidated methods, research on the field provides evidence that interventions chosen by the teachers frequently have a haphazard nature without them following or paying attention to any specific criteria for their implementation (C. Wilson, Gutkin, Hagen, & Oats, 1998; Myers & Holland, 2000; as cited in Tillery, Varjas, Meyers & Collins, 2010, p. 87). Some other in-service teachers acknowledge the considerable weight of effective classroom management and opt for positive interventions such



as reinforcements (rewards) and praise (Rosen, Taylor, O'Leary, & Sanderson, 1990; as cited in as cited in Tillery, Varjas, Meyers & Collins, 2010, p. 87). In a similar vein, several teachers deal with disruptive behaviour by applying negative and punitive interventions, such as reprimands, time out, restraint or the removal of privileges (Jack et al., 1996; Nungesser & Watkins, 2005; Rosen et al., 1990; as cited in Tillery, Varjas, Meyers & Collins, 2010, p. 87). However, when it comes to children it is difficult to find the flawless method since every context and situation are different from each other. Walker and Shea (1998) advise considering this diversity and prepare a broad selection of interventions that may be adapted to the potential situations and disturbances during the lessons (as cited in Reupert & Woodcock, 2010, p. 1262).

The task of managing behaviour becomes even more challenging in classrooms where other elements need to be considered. This is the case of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) contexts, where language plays a very important role in the learning process. CLIL is a dual-focused methodology that attempts to provide students with a greater exposure to the second language, in order to enhance students' second language skills. CLIL teachers must attempt to provide students with a greater exposure to the second language, which means using language in most situations during lessons besides delivering contents, including classroom management and conflict resolution. Against this backdrop, problems may arise derived from the use of the second language in the lessons. In this context where English is the vehicular language, the lack of proficiency of non-English speaking students may hinder communication, and eventually lead to misbehaviour issues.

This dissertation aims to analyse how teachers deal with misbehaviour within CLIL classrooms. For this purpose, throughout the theoretical framework of this dissertation the principles of Assertive Discipline and Logical Consequences will be synthesised, in order to set them against teachers' actual classroom practice. In order to achieve this, a study will be carried out that will attempt to reveal the correspondence of teachers' interventions with these two approaches. Furthermore, given the important role of language within CLIL lessons, the study also aims to determine whether there is a correlation between second language use and students' misbehaviour, as well as the role that teachers attribute to second language and the principles they follow for the use of the mother tongue over the second language in the classroom.

All this data will be obtained through questionnaires delivered to 60 CLIL teachers from different schools in the region of Asturias. Through the questionnaires, it will be possible to



obtain information about CLIL teacher's preferences for managing behaviour and about their use of the second language during the lessons. The data collected will be presented in graphics and tables in order to be later analysed.



2. DEFINITIONS OF MISBEHAVIOUR

Teaching children is quite a demanding activity that requires teachers to multitask during lessons: from delivering contents to addressing students' diversity effectively. In this respect, several studies on teachers' challenges in the classroom have reported that the majority of teachers' struggles involve coping with discipline management and so-called 'problem behaviour' (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Jolivette & Steed, 2010; Akdag & Haser, 2016).

Various definitions have been provided for problem behaviour. In 1988, Houghton, Wheldall & Merrett described disruptive behaviour as an activity that '(a) annoys, upsets or distresses teachers, (b) is disruptive of good order in the classroom and causes trouble and (c) leads teachers to comment continually' (p. 299). Türnükü and Galton (2001), however, focus on student performance rather than the teacher's comfort, and define problem behaviour as 'any threat to the smooth running of the students' academic performance'.

Regardless of these various definitions, it needs to be borne in mind that perceptions about it vary among teachers. In this respect, Burden (1995) stated that to be considered as misbehaviour, any action is strongly tied to the context and to who assumes it as problematic (as cited in Türnükü & Galton, 2001, p. 291). On the one hand, the context where misbehaviour happens will entirely determine whether a specific behaviour is seen as acceptable or not; for instance, while wandering around might not be allowed in an ordinary Language or Mathematics lesson, it can be accepted in an Arts or Music class for some purposes such as carrying materials, or during cooperative tasks. On the other hand, many factors related to the teacher such as their experience, their level of burnout and their personality may influence their sensitivity towards misbehaviour, and increase significantly their perception of what behaviour is considered disruptive (Kokkinos et al., 2005). This is to say that, while an experienced or a stressed teacher might react strongly to certain behaviours because they consider them threatening, a beginner or non-stressed teacher might not regard it as very severe because they might be less sensitive to it.

As teachers gain experience, they generally become more sensitive and less tolerant to actions that presumably threaten the flow of the lessons. According to several authors, teachers tend to respond to outward manifestations of misbehaviour rather than internalised ones because they consider them more disruptive (Molins, 1999; DES and Welsh Office, 1989, as cited in Kokkinos et al., 2004, p. 111). Actions such as physical aggression, continuous chatter, restlessness or distracting others have a substantial impact on the smooth running of the class,



and therefore they require addressing immediately. Conversely, internalised manifestations of misbehaviour such as inattention or daydreaming, are less likely to be noticed by teachers and are often overshadowed by more salient behaviours.

Another factor that influences teachers' sensitivity to disruptive behaviour is stress. Some teachers cope with it successfully, but some others end up becoming overwhelmed, and that long-term stress turns into a high level of burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1997) describe burnout as "an erosion of engagement with the job. What started out as important, meaningful, and challenging work becomes unpleasant, unfulfilling, and meaningless" (as cited in Maslach et al., 2001, p.416). Burned-out teachers suffer from emotional exhaustion and tend to perceive their performance at school as no longer significant (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, p. 1060). That feeling of futility may eventually affect the way they deliver their lessons. Burned-out teachers tend to interact less frequently with students and therefore provide much less information, praise and acceptance to them (Beer and Beer, 1992; as cited in Kokkinos, 2005, p.80). This mental and physical exhaustion may make burned-out teachers much less tolerant to misbehaviour and more likely to scold students more frequently than their non-stressed counterparts.

Teachers' personality also influences their perception of students' misbehaviour. Kaplan (1996) explains how certain personality traits 'predispose individuals to view the adverse events in a certain way that can either impair or facilitate the adaptation process and its psychological and physical health outcomes' (as cited in Kokkinos, 2007, p. 230). In other words, while more sensitive teachers may struggle with student misbehaviour, even-tempered ones will be able to take it in their stride.

In this respect, Costa & McCrae (1992) developed the Five-factor Model, a fairly comprehensive framework that categorizes five types of personalities: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. According to this model, neurotic individuals are more sensitive to adverse situations, whereas extrovert individuals tend to be calmer; agreeable individuals tend towards cooperation in order to handle those situations; conscientious individuals deal with them firmly and thoughtfully; and individuals with high openness to experience use them as a learning opportunity.

In the light of this classification, it can be then postulated that teachers with neurotic personalities might be less tolerant to disruptive behaviour than extrovert teachers. Since anxiety and depression (both attributes of neuroticism) give individuals the perception that situations are difficult to control (Barlow, 1988; as cited in Kokkinos, 2005, p. 81), neurotic



teachers might have a high sensitivity towards misbehaviour because they are more vulnerable to events that escape their control. In the case of conscientious teachers, they do their best in every performance and invest all their personal resources in order to achieve a set goal (Zellars et al., 2006, as cited in Berkovich & Eyal, 2019, p. 3). That might make them assertive and less tolerant to any behaviour that might seem disruptive. Moreover, their high level of commitment might lead to frustration when not achieving the expected results. In the case of agreeable teachers, their natural empathy and proclivity towards mediation may make them less sensitive to misbehaviour. Lastly, teachers with high openness to experience might have a higher level of tolerance to students' transgressions since their tendency towards variety and exploration may lead them to accept or endure some unconventional behaviours (Kokkinos, 2005, p. 81).

In summary, the notions of misbehaviour are tied to the context and to teachers' perceptions, which are determined by their personality, their years of experience and their stress levels. These perceptions are bound to influence their choice of classroom management system to solve discipline issues.



3. THEORIES OF DISCIPLINE MANAGEMENT: TWO MAIN AUTHORS

While many teachers trust their instincts and their experience to manage misbehaviour, others follow the principle of expediency, adopting the most convenient short-term strategy in each situation regardless of their own beliefs. Yet others, however, prefer to implement a hybrid approach, adopting elements from different discipline models and methodologies. These models tend to fall within two broad categories: reward and punishment vs. encouragement and consequences. Two of the most important examples are respectively Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline (1970) and Rudolf Dreikurs's Logical Consequences (1980).

3.1. ASSERTIVE DISCIPLINE AND LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

Assertive Discipline and Logical Consequences have been widely used since they were first introduced by Lee Canter and Rudolf Dreikurs in 1970 and 1980 respectively. The differences between these two approaches lie in their authors' respective assumptions and interpretations about children's development and the nature of behaviour. Canter's Assertive Discipline is distinctly influenced by Skinnerian behaviour modification theories, which assert that every observable human behaviour can be explained through an understanding of the quantity and the quality of external stimulation; that is, behaviour is the product of the forces exerted by the external conditions on the individual (Skinner, 1965). Meanwhile, Dreikurs's Logical Consequences Theory relies heavily on the psychiatrist Alfred Adler's Social Theory, which explains that every human behaviour is driven by a goal and results from the subjective perceptions humans develop through a continuous interaction with the environment (Adler, 1958). Unlike Canter, Dreikurs acknowledges the existence of mental processes that impact our behaviour and, accordingly, argues that the motivations for behaviour lie not only outside but within the individual as well.

Canter considers that effective teaching can only occur when there is no disruption in the classroom. Therefore, he designed a method that provides negative consequences or punishments for unacceptable behaviour, and positive consequences or rewards for desired behaviour (Edwards, 2000). Thus, students learn to associate the behaviour with its potential consequences (Skinner, 1965). Assertive Discipline advocates for applying operant conditioning principles in order to lessen the frequency of disruptive behaviour and to make desired behaviour more likely to reappear.



In contrast, for Dreikurs there is no use in merely removing disruption through conditioning techniques, and he goes one step further. Dreikurs's method considers the existence of several mental processes such as perception or memory – evidenced by cognitivist psychology – that influence how the brain processes and elaborates information and behavioural responses. According to this, our actions are determined not only by the outer environment, but, for instance, by previous experiences stored in our memory. Thus, the reason why a student continuously intervenes during the lesson without permission could be that he learned that it is an effective mechanism to gain everyone's attention.

In the light of this, in contrast with Canter's Assertive Discipline, Dreikurs's model stresses that teachers must understand the trigger of the displayed misbehaviour in order to effectively cope with it (Dreikurs et al, 1982; as cited in Edwards, 2000, p. 102), at the same time helping students to feel valued and accepted (Malmgren et al, 2005).

3.1.1. Roots and triggers of misbehaviour

Thanks to studies on behaviour analysis by Developmental Psychology nowadays humans are no longer deemed as mere passive beings who receive stimuli and react to them. It is certainly true that humans do react to external stimulation and elaborate responses to it; it occurs from very early stages of child development as a means of adaptation through trial and error (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). However, as individuals grow, they develop basic mental processes/patterns of thought such as cause-effect relationships, deductive and inductive reasoning or evaluation that have a great weight on explaining human acts.

As already mentioned, Dreikurs provides an explanation for children's misbehaviour based on Adler's Social theory. He agrees with Adler that, since humans are social beings, every person aims for social recognition (Adler, 1958). Therefore, our actions are fuelled by our desire to belong and to be accepted by our peers – in the case of students, to become part of the classroom community (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968).

However, individuals do not always succeed in achieving the desired social recognition. According to Dreikurs, our assumptions, based on previous past experiences, lead us to make subjective interpretations of situations that very often drive us to make unwise choices (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968). Since the reality is that children lack the skills to make completely rational choices, often their acts – motivated by an inner need for belonging – will result in failure. For



instance, a child who deliberately annoys their classmates, has wrongly assumed that it is a proper mechanism to gain recognition by their peers.

Misbehaviour is, accordingly, the result of a child's mistaken assumptions about the means to gain a status and feel accepted by their peers (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968). These are what Dreikurs calls "mistaken goals", which "reflect an error in [his] judgement, in his comprehension of life and necessities of social living" (Dreikurs, Grunwald & Pepper, 1971, p.12). Dreikurs (1968, 1971) determined that the child will purposely attempt to seek recognition in the classroom through four different means: attention-seeking behaviours, thinking that they can only feel significant when they are in the spotlight; power-seeking behaviours, in the belief that they can only be accepted by demonstrating control; revenge-seeking behaviours, by acting in retaliation towards those who are presumably against them as the only means by which they can gain social acceptance; and failure-avoidance behaviours, intending to divert others' attention from their errors or inability to carry out a task.

In educational terms, Dreikurs's approach seems to be fairly realistic as it responds to student diversity. His method regards students as complex individuals who respond differently to situations according to their own logic and understanding of reality.

On the other hand, although Canter does not overtly assert what the triggers or the roots for misbehaviour are, his work is based on the Skinnerian idea that every human behaviour is a product of a stimulus-response association that is learned throughout our lives. This learning process can often give rise to what behaviour therapy describes as maladaptive behaviours, which are mechanisms or actions that have been learnt by the individual and prevent them from adjusting well to certain situations (Rajkumar et al., 2015, p. 1361). These are, roughly speaking, the equivalent to disruptive behaviours and, according to Canter, they are amenable to be reshaped by behaviour modification techniques.

However, it is important to make clear that, according to behaviourists, every behaviour can be changed through behaviour modification techniques. In this case, the decision is tied to the teacher's appraisal of the classroom's or the students' own educational needs. This is to say that, although a specific behaviour might be adaptive and functional, it may be modified for the students' own sake.

It can be the case of a child who has learned that, by not bringing the school diary to class, and thus not noting down the day's homework, he can skip homework altogether. This is a functional behaviour from the child's point of view, but it requires replacement with a more



advantageous one in the long term: bringing the school diary and doing his homework every day. According to Canter's method, an assertive teacher would approach this issue through behaviour modification techniques: for instance, using a positive reinforcer such as a reward when the student brings the school diary, which will increase the probability that the student will repeat the desired behaviour.

By contrast, teachers who follow Dreikurs's method address disruption from a tailored approach that aims, not only to reduce disruption, but to evaluate the roots of disruptive behaviour. In this way, the teacher aids the student to self-regulate their behaviour and to understand the underlying causes that drive their actions, which will benefit them in the long run. To give a practical example of this and following from the example above, a teacher who follows Dreikurs' model would first observe the child and identify the goal behind him not taking his assignments home (seeking attention, power, revenge, or assumed inadequacy). The teacher would approach the student privately attempting to (1) know the students' thoughts about his own attitude, and (2) persuade him that taking the school diary is important and how doing homework and developing a sense of responsibility will benefit him. Through this the teacher is involving the student on the process and raising an awareness of the issue in him. Then, the teacher would plan an intervention adapted to the child and his mistaken goal that aims to phase out that disadvantageous behaviour.

Sullivan et al. (2014) suggest that teachers deal with unproductive/disruptive behaviour using techniques that may not address the underlying causes of misbehaviour, such as deliberately filtering out the disruptions. In their study, respondents ranked ignoring misbehaviour as one of the most used as well as most effective coping techniques to manage mild infractions. This might suggest that teachers tend to use shortcuts to manage behaviour regardless of the triggers for that behaviour. On the other hand, this can also lead to questions about whether teachers use those shortcuts because they lack the tools to cope with misbehaviour effectively (addressing the underlying causes) or simply because they do not consider those behaviours as threatening.

3.1.2. The teacher's figure. The concept of effective teaching.

The authority figure envisaged by both methods is crucial in order to determine the sort of discipline approach and practices they advocate. The basic premise of Assertive Discipline is that both teacher and students have the right to a learning environment that has no room for



disruption, where both learning and teaching can occur (Canter, 1989). In order to achieve that, teachers must be able to assert themselves. In other words, they must be able to identify their own desires, establish limits and communicate them effectively to students. Besides, an assertive teacher must display willingness to endorse their words with actions, if necessary, in order to ensure compliance. (Canter, 1976).

In contrast with Canter's obedience-based approach, Dreikurs designed a method whose main concern is not achieving full compliance but providing students with the necessary tools to develop a sense of responsibility and consideration in order to live in community, in accordance with their inherent nature as social beings. Through Logical Consequences, teachers help students develop a set of inner controls that will eventually provide them with acceptable patterns of behaviour to live in society. This will benefit their progress and well-being (Dreikurs et al., 1971).

Thus, the authority figure is understood differently by Dreikurs. The teacher's task is by and large understanding the children, providing guidance, and influencing their behaviour in this process of self-regulation – for instance, helping them overcome the barriers (social or psychological) that prevent them from learning or changing their degree of motivation towards academic assignments or school in general (Dreikurs, 1968).

3.1.3. Responding to undesired behaviour: punishment vs. Logical consequences.

Canter and Dreikurs both agree that the success of a discipline management method lies in the student's awareness about what behaviour they are expected to display. When students are not informed about directions, they are unlikely to meet the teacher's expectations, which might eventually lead to discipline issues. Their methods both advocate for establishing classroom rules and involving the students in the decision-making process. However, unlike Dreikurs, Canter suggests that students need to know beforehand the consequences that will follow from infringement. Therefore, besides a set of consistent, firm and fair rules, the discipline plan must include a collection of pre-arranged negative consequences for non-compliance (Canter & Canter, 1992).

Influenced by cognitivist theories, Dreikurs considers every student and every situation unique. Whereas Canter holds that the plan and the consequences must be applied fairly to



every child,¹ for Dreikurs there is no use in setting consequences in advance to apply equally regardless of the circumstances. Consequences for misbehaviour must be determined in the moment, otherwise they will not have a natural and rational connection to the infraction. In his method, Dreikurs advocates for the use of logical consequences, which are teacher-arranged results that are directly related and in accordance with the student's misbehaviour (Soheili et al, 2015). Unlike Canter's consequences, the use of logical consequences must be tailored to every student and, therefore, a successful implementation requires a full understanding of the situation and the child (Dreikurs et al., 1971).

Although at first negative and logical consequences might seem roughly the same concept, they are in fact substantially different. Negative consequences are nothing but arbitrary punitive measures that are administered to the students when they do not adhere to the established rules. According to Canter, these limit-setting consequences should be unpleasant to students but never demeaning, humiliating or harmful (Canter & Canter, 1992). Differently to logical consequences, punishment involves moral judgement and responds to the teacher's negative feelings of being disrespected or ignored. Overall, punishment reflects the hierarchy of power, and pictures the teacher as the authority figure who can impose their power over the students. By contrast, logical consequences intend to explain the reality of social order, and – given their coherent connection with the infraction – how people must accept the effects of their actions when they act as they please (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968). Canter (1976) notes several examples of punitive consequences that can be part of the discipline plan: timeout,² removal of privilege or positive activity, staying after school (detention), going to the principal's office or home consequences (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Dreikurs rejects the implementation of punitive consequences since students generally tend to focus on the punisher's actions rather than reflect on their own acts. Instead, he advocates for the use of logical consequences since they help students to make choices based on their potential effects and to understand that every unwise choice brings unpleasant results (Dreikurs & Grey, 1968). For example, when a student talks out of turn all the time, Canter would keep them in during the break time. Instead, Dreikurs would use a private talk with the student

¹ According to Canter, teachers must not make any distinction when applying the discipline plan since students must be expected to display good behaviour regardless of their socio-economic status, potential disabilities and/or developmental or emotional handicaps. (McCormack, 1987, p. 5).

² Behaviour management theorists recommend a duration of one minute in timeout per year of the child's age (Axelrod, 1983; Hall & Hall, 1980)



to address the problem and provide them with better tools/strategies to be noticed and to approach others.

Choice is fundamental in both Canter's and Dreikurs' methods as a means of delivering consequences to students. The teacher should respond to student misbehaviour with a choice. Choices should be explicitly formulated to students so that they are able to decide whether they will persist in the misbehaviour or not and, therefore, whether the consequence is administered or not (Canter & Canter, 1976). This places the entire responsibility on the students and works as warning in the sense that they grasp the underlying message: "If you do not quit your bad behaviour, something unpleasant will follow".

It could be argued then, that the difference lies in the nature of the choice itself. Whereas for Dreikurs the choice is delivered as a natural and logical consequence for non-compliance, in Canter's method the choice is delivered as a warning of the teacher's willingness to punish the inappropriate behaviour. Canter advocates including those warnings in the discipline plan as part of a progressive hierarchy that describes the order in which they would be administered. These can be, for instance, writing the student's name on the board or calling this name out loud. In case of persistence, prearranged consequences would follow. Below there is a 'sample discipline hierarchy for grades K-3':

- First time a student breaks a rule: Warning.
- 2nd time: 5 minutes working away from the group.
- 3rd time: 10 minutes working away from the group.
- 4th time: Call parents.
- 5th time: Send to the principal.

(Canter & Canter, 1992, p.88)

Given the situation of a student who is restless and will not stay seated, the teacher may let them decide whether they want to sit properly or have their chair removed, which would be the logical consequence for that behaviour; conversely, according to Canter's approach, on the same situation an assertive teacher will first warn the student to stay in their seat or otherwise further actions will be taken. In accordance with the discipline plan from Figure 1, the consequence for the student's refusal to behave would be 5 minutes working away from the group. However, more severe misbehaviour such as defacing or damaging classroom furniture require more radical consequences, according to Canter (1992). He refers to these behaviours



as severe clauses, and states that students who display such unacceptable behaviours automatically lose the right to be warned or administered mild consequences. They will be directly removed from the classroom and, for instance, taken to the principal's office. Following Dreikurs's method, the same student should be required to repair the damage or to pay for a replacement.

It is however not unreasonable to assume that the Logical Consequences approach resembles behaviour modification techniques, since it aims to shape students' behaviour and get rid of undesirable conducts that prevent learning. However, the underlying goal of Dreikurs's method is educational. Through a system of logical consequences, children experience and learn how real life works: unwise decisions will bring undesirable outcomes. It is in the administration of consequences where these two methods differ considerably. By facing logical as opposed to adult-imposed consequences, children will gradually and naturally shape and self-regulate their own behaviour. Through punishments, which just as rewards inherently have a controlling nature (Kohn, 1999), children grasp the underlying message that they must do something because the teacher tells them to, unless they want something unpleasant to happen. Canter & Canter (1976) argue that punishments are "beneficial" for both teacher and students since they are applied with their welfare in mind:

The message you send to the child when you punish bad behaviour is: "I care too much about you as an individual to allow you to act in an inappropriate, self-destructive manner without doing all I can to help you to stop! I, as well, care too much about myself as a teacher and as an individual to allow you to take advantage of me, my wants and my needs. (p. 95)

From an educational perspective, the consequences established by Dreikurs's method are seemingly more appropriate since they promote a sense of responsibility in the students. As Dreikurs et al. (1971) point out, logical consequences are simply the means to accomplish a greater goal, which is aiding the students to self-regulate their behaviour.

3.1.4. Reinforcing desired behaviour: praise and encouragement.

The most relevant feature of Canter's method is the importance of positive reinforcement. According to Canter (1989): "The key to Assertive Discipline is catching students being good: recognizing and supporting them when they behave appropriately and letting them know you like it, day in and day out." (p. 58). Broadly speaking, appropriate behaviour usually tends to be



ignored during the lessons since teachers tend to focus on misbehaviour. It is essential that teachers recognize compliant students in order to indicate what type of behaviour is accepted.

Accordingly, Canter fosters the use of *positive repetition*, which consists in providing positive feedback whenever a student follows the preestablished directions, instead of focusing the attention on the ones who disobey. For instance, when a few students stand up and start wandering around the classroom (“Peter, Laura, why aren’t you sitting? Come on, go back to your seats.”), an assertive teacher should praise the ones who remained sitting or went back to their places immediately (“Look at Mario who went straight back to his place. Very good job!”). Reinforcing a behaviour encourages its repetition (Canter, 1989; Canter & Canter, 1992).

According to Canter, effective positive reinforcement — similarly to punitive consequences — must be delivered immediately after good behaviour occurs. Teachers must be aware of what rewards are pleasant for the students and follow through with their implementation (as cited in Edwards, 2000). These may include positive notes and telephone calls to parents, awards, tangible rewards, special privileges (being assigned classroom roles, playing games, being the first in line) or even group rewards.³ However, he asserts praise as the most powerful tool for acknowledging students’ achievements and motivating them (Canter & Canter, 1992).

The frequent use of praise has been a controversial topic in education for years. Most teachers constantly praise students under the misassumption that it is the most effective tool to create a supporting, welcoming and friendly environment and to foster students’ self-esteem (Hitz & Driscoll, 1988). However, research on the field has in fact proved it to be counterproductive in the long run and to have detrimental effects on children’s development and motivation levels.

Contrary to teachers’ assumptions, praise ultimately undermines children’s self-image and reduces achievement rates (Hitz & Driscoll, 1988; Rowe, 1974; Kamii, 1984). Praise is often delivered to students after completing a task successfully, and as a reward for their success. Once a child is praised for the first time, they start anticipating that recognition for their work all the time; then, its absence is generally interpreted as failure (Dreikurs et al., 1971). Kohn

³ Canter advocates the use of techniques to recognize and reward classwide behaviour. For instance, teachers can have a marble jar in the classroom where they drop a marble when students comply with the rules, or conversely a marble is removed when disruption occurs. When the jar is filled, the entire class can decide the activity they want to be rewarded with. Other group recognition systems are, for instance, reward scoreboards or positive behaviour bulletin boards.



(2001) refers to this phenomenon as “praise junkies”; praising creates on the students a dependence on other people’s (in this case the teacher’s) appraisals to the extent that their self-worth relies upon another person’s satisfaction with their work.

Kohn (1999) also addresses the inherent controlling qualities of rewards, stating that when teachers use praise or any other tangible reward, they are unwittingly taking advantage of their status to control students in order to accomplish the desired behaviour. This assumption, once again, leads to the surmise that teachers might use these reinforcement techniques for their own sake, rather than the students’ benefit.

Such is the convenience and the short-term efficacy of rewards that they are the shortcut most often taken by teachers to achieve compliance. However, they are no different from punitive measures since control is the common ground for both. What is different is that rewards simply “control through seduction rather than force” (Richard & Deci, 1985, p.70).

Another assumption that leads teachers to use praise as a reinforcer is that it allegedly enhances motivation towards learning. This statement is partly true. The Self-determination Theory (from now on referred to as SDT) in fact distinguishes two types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, which is defined as an inherent and natural inclination towards exploration and a spontaneous interest that humans exhibit throughout their lives (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and extrinsic motivation, which arises from outside the individual and is driven by external incentives.

According to The Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), a sub-theory of the SDT, external rewards, such as praise, increase extrinsic motivation but have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation levels (Deci & Ryan, 1980). Praise causes the children to focus on it rather than on the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself (Brophy, 1981; as cited in Hitz & Driscoll, 1988, p. 9) This is to say, extrinsically motivated children learn to work for the reward rather than the joy of completing a task. In terms of effectiveness, it is safe to say then that praise -just as rewards do in general- motivates students, but only towards the external stimulus of commendation.

Removing any sign of recognition is by no means a solution either. Of course, children need to receive praise from time to time and to feel acknowledged; otherwise, they will ultimately feel discouraged. Several authors consider that there are effective and ineffective ways of praising (Dinkmeyer, McKay, & Dinkmeyer, 1980; Dreikurs, Greenwald, & Pepper, 1982; Evertson, 1975; Ginott, 1972; Good & Brophy, 1984; Rowe, 1974; as cited in Hitz & Driscoll, 1988, p. 10).



In contrast with Canter's, Dreikurs's method promotes *effective praise or encouragement* (as it will be referred to) as an alternative tool to promote motivation and enhance children's development. Whereas praise is generally delivered to the student after completing a task and involves a judgement expressing the teacher's approval or admiration (Brophy, 1981, p. 7), encouragement involves acknowledging positively every attempt the child makes regardless of the result. According to Dreikurs (1968), encouraging is in fact needed when failure appears in order to reassure the child, recognize their worth and motivate them to do better. In other words, praise acknowledges the result whereas encouragement acknowledges the process.

By and large, it is only a matter of being cautious because "what is said is often less important than how it is said" (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 69). Statements such as "Very well done!" or "I love how you worked today", which are examples of praise, merely express the teacher's appraisals about the work done by the child and emphasize the teacher's feelings. By contrast, encouragement involves evaluation-free statements that place the value on the child rather than the action itself, for instance "You must have worked a lot on it" or simply "You did it!". Encouragement can also be used in attempting to congratulate a child for a constructive action towards a fellow student such as being generous; the teacher can provide feedback so that the attention is drawn to the effect of the action on the other person, for instance: "Look at how happy Peter looks now you shared part of your meal with him" (Kohn, 2001, p. 5).

Encouragement, unlike praise, should occur in private. Acknowledging student efforts privately is intended to prevent potential embarrassment and undermining other students' self-esteem due to the comparisons and competition that may arise from it (Hitz & Driscoll, 1988). These private talks are crucial for Dreikurs as they are a tool for involving the students in the problem-solving process and to place the responsibility of their acts on them.

He also advocates the use of group discussions within the class at any time of the day. These are not ordinary conversations since they have the purpose of tackling "problem areas and [also faces] unpleasant facts which normally are ignored or sidetracked" (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 101). Through these discussions on different classroom matters students can share their feelings, ideas, fears, doubts or concerns, listen to others and work to find solutions to the posed problems at the same time they are developing interpersonal skills and moral values.

All in all, it can be inferred that Dreikurs's method pursues a far more ambitious goal than Canter's. Roughly speaking, Canter's Assertive Discipline focuses on telling the students what to do and how to do it in order to achieve recognition tailored to the teacher's desires. Instead,



Dreikurs' Logical Consequences pursue a higher level of student commitment to the learning process. His method promotes a greater development of the student's personality and inter and intrapersonal skills through involving them on the problem-solving and decision-making. Encouragement, unlike praise, acknowledges children without harming their self-concept. Students learn that their self-worth relies on their actions rather than on others' judgements; they become less dependent on external opinions, and therefore more autonomous.

Although it is true that currently many teachers no longer see rewards as an option to achieve compliance, praise is still very popular within behaviour reinforcement techniques. Even though teachers are conscious of the need to acknowledge students' efforts rather than the final outcomes, judgment, even if shaped as praise, remains an enduring practice.



4. CLIL AND BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

The recent explosion of interest in bilingual education among European authorities has led to a strong support for CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in schools across the whole continent, Spain included. Although it was one of the earliest countries in Europe to teach English at early stages of education (European Commission, 2015; as cited in Caraker, 2016, p. 27) foreign language education in Spain has traditionally been weak. In 2005, the Eurobarometer survey reported that 64% of the Spanish respondents aged 15 and over were only able to participate in a conversation using their mother tongue (European Commission, 2005). The same survey carried out in 2012, seven years apart, revealed that the situation had only slightly changed, since 54% of the Spanish participants claimed not to be able to hold a conversation in an L2 (European Commission, 2012). Although nowadays English is superficially present in Spanish public spaces, such as road signs or shop fronts, there is a scarcity of real communicative use of English in Spanish daily life in comparison to other European countries.

Due to the ceiling effect of the traditional formal foreign language instruction (Rifkin, 2005), there is a need to develop approaches that contribute to improving foreign language learning in schools. CLIL programmes were developed in the belief that integrating language and content together would create settings with greater levels of exposure to the L2. This would help to improve students' language proficiency (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010). The implementation of CLIL in Spanish schools was influenced by European policies, which promoted multilingualism and an awareness of the need to learn foreign languages. However, Spain has in fact a long tradition in native bilingual education and methodologies (Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010). This paved the way for the implementation of bilingual programmes in a foreign language, in this case, English. Currently Spain has become one of the leading European countries in the development of CLIL programmes (Caraker, 2016).

Not surprisingly, the implementation of CLIL brings new challenges to teachers, who not only have to deal with everyday issues such as behaviour management, but also have to make sure that the CLIL methodology is being implemented and working properly. The 4 Cs Framework, a holistic approach that sets the basis for and integrates the different aspects of the CLIL methodology, brings the first struggle for language teachers. This framework establishes that there must be an interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking and learning) and culture (social awareness of self and 'otherness') (Coyle, 2007). Teachers must find a balance among these four elements, while



ensuring that language is conceptualized as a vehicle for learning, rather than as the learning target itself. This is to say, content acquisition is as important as language acquisition.

This, however, is challenging in the face of generally inadequate training in CLIL methodology. Jover, Fleta and González (2016) analysed the training received by Spanish CLIL teachers and concluded that, despite the efforts made by universities to provide pre-service teachers with a quality CLIL training, this initial instruction is still lacking. As a means of improving Spanish foreign language teaching, most universities have implemented specialization modules on foreign languages in the Primary Education degrees. Generalist teachers have no access to these specialist modules during their undergraduate years, and thus their training includes fewer ECTS credits on FLT. This has a harmful impact on bilingual instruction in Primary schools since generalist teachers are the ones who nowadays are allowed to teach in CLIL programmes.

Regional administrations have implemented parallel programs to improve teachers' foreign language skills. Notwithstanding this, Perez Cañado (2015) pointed out that those programmes are still not enough to guarantee a quality bilingual education, since teachers should not only master the second language, but also must also have the pedagogical tools to teach content through this second language (as cited in Jover, Fleta & González, 2016, p. 128).

Many Spanish universities such as the University of Murcia, the University of Oviedo, and the Complutense University of Madrid, have been implementing bilingual Primary and Pre-school Education degrees where contents are totally or partially taught in English. Although it is regarded as the most effective method for preparing teachers to teach contents through a foreign language, a seminar organized by the British Council and Alcalá University in 2015, addressed the training of the teachers in bilingual programmes. It reported several problems such as the scarcity of bilingual degrees on offer, insufficient methodological expertise on the part of lecturers, underfunding and lack of investment in bilingual education at the university level (British Council, 2015; as cited in Jover, Fleta & González, 2016, p. 128).

Perez Cañado (2015) argues that the creation of specific CLIL MA programmes seems to be the best answer since it would directly address the weaknesses of CLIL education in Spain and provide well-rounded instruction, focused on both language and bilingual methodologies. However, the number of programmes on offer is quite limited, especially for those based on in-class instruction. Nowadays, there are universities that offer this programme online, but the in-person modality is only available in few universities, such as the University of Oviedo and the



University of Navarra. Additionally, the price of these MA programmes is quite high, which makes them less accessible.

Nowadays, the requisites to teach content and language at Spanish schools are holding a primary school teaching certificate (this means, being a generalist teacher), and a B2 CEFR level in most of the autonomous communities (with the exception of Madrid and Navarra, where a C1 level is required) (Sánchez, 2019). This partially explains the lack of training addressed by the previously mentioned authors, since knowledge about CLIL or FLT methodologies is not a requirement to teach in these programmes.

All this may lead to situations that are difficult to manage for teachers. Since primary school children are usually still developing their L2 proficiency, the L2 may become a barrier. The continuous use of the L2 in the lessons may generate feelings of frustration on struggling students, and this may have negative consequences on their behaviour.

Vega (1995) studied the relation between cultural conflicts and misbehaviour of Limited English Proficiency (LEP) Latino students in Miami schools. The study revealed that, indeed, the lack of English proficiency of Hispanic learners could lead to misbehaviour. Language conflicts may generate psychological distress that eventually externalizes as maladaptive behaviour (Vega et al, 1995; as cited in Dawson & Williams, p. 399). However, this situation is not exclusive of American school contexts. It is possible to draw an analogy with the ESL and CLIL classrooms in Spain and other countries, and state that these delays in the acquisition of L2 linguistic competence may lead to discouragement or frequent inattention during the lessons.

It is very easy to interpret these behaviours as ‘disruptive’ since they prevent students from performing well. However, these silent manifestations of behaviour might often be rooted in the struggle to keep up with the lessons, where English is the language used. This is to say, the problem is not the manifestation of the misbehaviour itself, but the limitations of the student’s current linguistic competence. Still, teachers may become desperate at their failure to make themselves understood and might end up implementing discipline procedures.

In the light of the previous insights, the study presented in this dissertation aims to learn about the strategies used by Primary CLIL teachers for behaviour management, as well as their perceptions about different behaviours: in which cases teachers may resort to discipline management and in which others they may inquire into the triggers of the behaviour. Furthermore, given the importance of second language in CLIL contexts, the study also aims to determine whether there is a correlation between the use of the second language over the



mother tongue and students' misbehaviour. Additionally, the study will attempt give insights about the presence of the L2 in the lessons, as well as the functions that teachers attribute to it.



5. RESEARCH STUDY

5.1. DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

The study conducted in this dissertation focuses on analysing Primary CLIL teachers' perceptions about their own behaviour management interventions from the perspective of Logical Consequences and Assertive Discipline, the two methods discussed. On the one hand, Canter's Assertive Discipline by and large provides teachers with tools to manage misbehaviour in order to minimize disruption. On the other hand, Dreikurs's Logical Consequences, not only aims to solve discipline issues, but it suggests investigating the causes for children's misbehaviour. In the light of this, this study aims to determine whether teachers prioritize short-term interventions, which solve discipline issues on the spot, over long-term interventions, which determine the triggers of a specific misbehaviour in order to tackle it. Additionally, the study aims to find out to which extent the use of the second language hinders behaviour management within CLIL contexts.

The research has been carried out among 60 Asturian CLIL teachers from different schools in the region. It follows a quantitative research method, based on the distribution of surveys.

Initially, the study was designed differently. It consisted in conducting classroom observation sessions in the English and CLIL lessons (Science or Social Science, depending on the school), and interviews with the teachers involved. For the observation, a record sheet was designed that comprised all the required information about students' behaviour and behaviour management. After establishing contact with two schools that implement CLIL programmes in the area of Langreo (Asturias), the corresponding headmasters and teachers agreed to participate. Unfortunately, after attending two sessions, due to the emergent pandemic situation it was no longer possible to visit the schools. This required changes in the methodology of the research, including the participants and the data collection procedures.

5.2. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire was created and delivered to the respondents through Google Forms in order to allow for online participation. In spite of the weaknesses of this modality (such as difficulty to solve respondents' doubts systematically), online questionnaires offer the advantages of easy access, immediacy and automated data collection.



In relation to the language, the questionnaire was designed entirely in Spanish as a means of facilitating its comprehension to the participants, and thus obtaining more precise responses.

Taking advantage of the power of dissemination of social media, the questionnaire was spread through two different platforms: Whatsapp and Facebook. Additionally, in order to reach a greater number of participants, e-mails were sent to the 139 Asturian schools that implement CLIL programmes, providing the link to the questionnaire and requesting the participation of the Primary teachers who teach non-linguistic subjects through English.

The questionnaire was created at the end of April 2020 and the data collecting process began on May 8th. It was available until May 17th, this is to say, 10 days, which was estimated an appropriate period to get a considerable number of responses.

The questionnaire is divided into three sections:

- a) General information.
- b) Questions about behaviour management.
- c) Questions about language use and behaviour management.

a) The first one aims to gather information about the respondent's profile: age, gender, teaching experience, English proficiency level (whether the person holds any language certificates or not) and their specific training in CLIL (MA programmes, courses or no instruction). This information is presented in the questionnaire in the form of single-select, multiple choice questions.

b) The second section seeks information about behaviour management. It includes questions that focus on finding out teachers' notions of positive behaviour and misbehaviour and the most frequent responses to them.

For this purpose, it was necessary to create a table that gathers the most frequent discipline issues reported by teachers, together with suggested responses by Canter and Dreikurs (see Figure 1). The behaviours have been selected from Sun & Shek (2012), Kokkinos & Panayiotou (2005) and Borg & Falzon, (1989), who carried out studies with larger rating scales. These misbehaviours are highlighted in grey. The categories have been complemented with corresponding positive behaviours, which are represented in blue.

Additionally, the table contains the responses that a teacher who adheres to each method would deliver to each behaviour. The responses have been elaborated based on Canter & Canter



(1992), Canter & Canter (1976), Dreikurs & Grey (1968), Dreikurs et al. (1971) and Dreikurs & Cassell (1990).

This tool was used to find out the respondents' preferred method of discipline model. This may offer clues about two aspects: on the one hand, the importance that teachers give to solving discipline issues on the spot vs. finding out the triggers and/or causes for a specific behaviour; and, on the other hand, how teachers generally reinforce desired behaviour.



		Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences
ATTITUDE	Attention	IS FREQUENTLY INATTENTIVE (LOOKS THROUGH THE WINDOW, PLAYS WITH MATERIALS, ETC.)	Delivers a warning: Establishes eye-contact, walks over and stands by the student's side, mentions the name while teaching, praises another student (<u>positive repetition</u>)
		IS UNABLE TO STAY IN THEIR ASSIGNED PLACE	Time-out in a specific spot of the classroom
		PAYS ATTENTION DURING THE LESSONS	<u>Positive repetition</u> : praises the student for doing nice things.
	Speaking time	TALKS OUT OF TURN	Asks the student not to interrupt or otherwise a consequence will follow, e.g., time out, staying in during the break, etc.
		MAKES USEFUL CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE LESSON	Gives a special privilege: assignment of classroom roles, playing games or being the first in line, etc.
	General attitude and towards the teacher	TALKS BACK	Firmly communicate to the student that they must quit that behaviour or otherwise consequence will follow, e.g., send a note to their parents.
		IS KIND AND POLITE TO EVERYBODY	Praise
		DISOBEYS OR CONFRONTS THE TEACHER AND/OR DOES NOT FOLLOW THE RULES	'Severe clause': the student is administered a severe consequence, e.g., parent call, sent to principal's office
		FOLLOWS THE RULES AND INSTRUCTIONS	Praise or tangible reward (a sticker, a trinket, etc.)
		THROWS TEMPER TANTRUMS	The teacher is empathetic but firm and administers the consequence; e.g., time out.
SOCIAL SKILLS		ARGUES WITH CLASSMATES AND IS UNABLE TO YIELD	Firmly tells the student to quit their behaviour or otherwise a consequence will follow, e.g., time out or staying in during the break.
		IS ABLE TO SOLVE CONFLICTS PEACEFULLY AND CONSTRUCTIVELY	Praise; sends positive note to parents; etc.
		CLOWNS AROUND	Asks the student to stop or a consequence will follow, e.g., time-out or sends the student to another classroom to work alone
		MAKES FUN OF CLASSMATES	Asks the student to stop or a consequence will follow, e.g., time-out or sends the student to another classroom to work alone
		OFFERS TO HELP CLASSMATES	Sends a positive note to parents
GROUP DYNAMICS	THERE IS A GROUP CONFLICT WHERE IT IS NOT CLEAR WHO STARTED IT OR WHO IS RESPONSIBLE	Asks all the students involved to stay after class or during the break.	"Puts everyone on the same boat": asks the students involved to figure out how to solve the problem regardless of who is responsible
	THEY COLLECTIVELY MANAGED TO SOLVE A CONFLICT OR ACHIEVED AN ESTABLISHED GOAL	Uses group rewards, e.g., puts marbles in a jar and when it is full, let the students decide the reward	Tells the students involved how hard they worked to solve the conflict and congratulates them for it.

Table 1. Behaviours and interventions table. Behaviour categories elaborated based on Sun & Shek (2012), Kokkinos & Panayiotou (2005) and Borg & Falzon (1989). Responses elaborated based on Canter & Canter (1992), Canter & Canter (1976), Dreikurs & Grey (1968), Dreikurs et al. (1971) and Dreikurs & Cassell (1990), and Nelsen et al. (2000).



In the questionnaire, the information on the table was presented in the form of multiple-choice questions, where each intervention was one option. These were shortened and adapted in order to make them easier to read. Apart from those two answers, two additional options were added: 'do not know/do not answer' in case the teachers had not experienced that situation before; and 'other', in which teachers were able to briefly explain their alternative intervention in case it did not fit with any of the two suggested. Thanks to these open answers it was also possible to collect qualitative information.

c) The third section focuses on language and classroom management. This section gathers questions about the vehicular language of the lessons: the amount of time the L2 is used during the lessons, the situations when teachers use the L2 (behaviour management, academic purposes, conflict resolution, care and attention), the criteria followed to use either the L2 or the mother tongue, and their perceptions about the difficulty of the CLIL programmes compared with subjects in the students' mother tongue. The questions in this section vary from single-select, multiple choice to multi-select, multiple choice questions. The information gathered on this section will contribute to learn how language influences the lessons and the functions teachers assign to it.

5.3. PARTICIPANTS

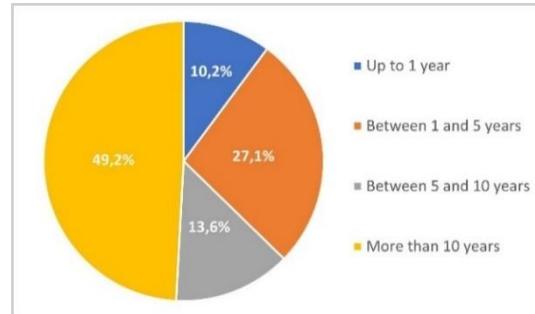
Participants were required to fulfil two requisites: to be a primary school teacher in a CLIL programme, and to be working or to have been working for the previous three months before the study was carried out. Before submitting the questionnaire, participants were previously informed that the data collected in it would be completely anonymous and that it would be used exclusively for research purposes.

The participants are 60 CLIL teachers aged between 20 and 65 with different levels of experience, from less than 1 year to more than 10 years. Women represent a majority within the surveyed teachers (85%). 23.3% of the respondents are aged between 20 and 30, and the same percentage between 30 and 40. 31.7% teachers are aged between 40 and 50, and 20% are teachers aged between 50 and 60 years old. Only one participant was above 60.

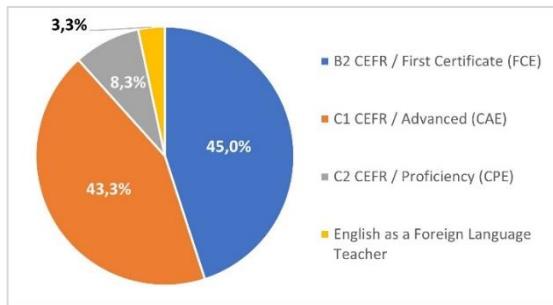


In relation to experience, Graph 1 illustrates that almost 50% of the participants have more than 10 years of experience, whereas the other half is distributed among the other three profiles.

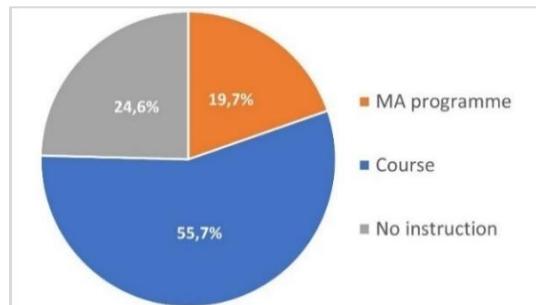
In relation to language, all the participants have at least one English proficiency certificate. 45% of the respondents hold a B2 CEFR certificate, 43.3% hold a C1 CEFR certificate, and 8.3% have a C2 CEFR certificate. Furthermore, 75.4% of them have specific training in CLIL methodologies. More than 50% of the respondents took specific courses, 19.7% completed a MA programme, and 24.6% claimed not to have any specific training in CLIL.



Graph 1. Years of experience of the participants.



Graph 2. Language proficiency of the participants.



Graph 3. Specific training in CLIL of the participants.

5.4. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

5.4.1. Teachers' responses in relation to behaviour management

In order to examine the teachers' perceptions regarding behaviour management, the analysis has been carried out in three different parts: in the first part, the percentages of the responses to each item have been analysed separately and gathered according to the method – Canter's Assertive Discipline or Dreikurs's Logical Consequences – they refer to; in the second part, the items have been classified into the two methods according to the majority answers; and in the third part, the respondents (teachers) have been classified into the two methods, in accordance with the matching rate of their responses. All the responses of the questionnaire are available in the Appendices section.



5.4.1.1. Analysis of teachers' responses by item

5.4.1.1.1 Attitude

a) Attention

ITEM	% of responses		
	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences	Other
A) The student is frequently inattentive (looks through the window, plays with materials, etc.)	I deliver a warning, for instance, establish eye-contact, walk over or stand by the student's side	I try to find out the reason of their inattention in order to plan an intervention.	3.3
	43.3	53.3	
B) The student is unable to stay in their assigned place.	I use time-out in a specific spot of the classroom	I talk privately with the student to deliver a choice to that behaviour, e.g., standing up after finishing the task to walk and go back to their seat.	15.3
	16.9	67.8	
C) The student pays attention during the lessons.	I praise the student for doing nice things.	I privately acknowledge student's engagement in the lesson and congratulate them for it.	6.9
	67.24	25.86	

Table 2. Classification of teachers' responses in section 'a) Attention' according to the discipline method.

It can be observed in the responses for item A, 'the student is frequently inattentive', that the interventions of 53.3% of the teachers match Dreikurs's Logical Consequences method, whereas almost the other half (43.3%) match Canter's Assertive Discipline method. Within the 3.3% of the teachers who explained their own interventions, one states that they would use both interventions depending on the student and the situation. For item B, 'the student is unable to stay in their assigned place', two-thirds of the teachers (67.8%) would offer a choice to that behaviour instead of using time out (16.9%).

For item C, 'the student pays attention during the lessons', it seems that a larger number of teachers (67.24%) prefer praising over encouraging privately (25.86%). In fact, within those teachers who explained their own intervention, 3 of the 4 teachers define public recognition of that good behaviour as the intervention they would adopt.

The results obtained in the section illustrate teachers' reactions towards two different sort of misbehaviour: on the one hand, more salient behaviours (such as restlessness) and, on the other hand, more internalised ones (such as inattention). In both cases, it can be observed that, regardless of the nature of misbehaviour, teachers lean towards learning about the causes of students' behaviour, which entirely matches Dreikurs's method. In fact, in both items A and



B, several teachers overtly explain that their intervention is tied to the situation and to the student, something that is strongly defended by this author. This evidences the idea that the interventions are the same for both type of behaviour, and that teachers would adapt their intervention to the student and/or situation.

b) Speaking time

ITEM	% of responses		
	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences	Other
D) The student talks out of turn.	I ask the student not to interrupt or otherwise a consequence will follow, e.g., staying in during the break.	I remain quiet until the student ceases their talking, interrupt the student, or talk in private.	22
	25.4	52.5	
E) The student makes useful contributions to the lesson.	I give a special privilege: assign classroom roles, choose a game or being the first in line, etc.	I privately acknowledge student's engagement in the lesson and congratulate them for it.	21.1
	47.4	31.6	

Table 3. Classification of teachers' responses in section 'b) Speaking time' according to the discipline method.

The table shows how for item D, 'the student talks out of turn', the interventions of 52.5% of the teachers correspond with the Logical Consequences method. In contrast, 25.4% of the teachers would deliver a consequence in case of persistence, a practice that matches the Assertive Discipline method. Within the 22% of the alternative interventions, the responses can be classified into two main practices: in the same situation some teachers would point out the basic classroom rules regarding speaking time, whereas others would simply ignore the behaviour. In view of this information, it is possible to state that, according to the participants, classroom rules are a very important part of classroom discipline, something that matches the Assertive Discipline method. Nonetheless, the fact that most of the teachers would deliver this information as a reminder indicates that, despite matching Canter's method, teachers are generally more flexible (and less strict) in addressing misbehaviour related to classroom rules.

The information obtained on item E, 'the student makes useful contributions to the lesson', gives clues about how teachers react to positive behaviour. The results show that 47.4% of the teachers would grant the student a special privilege, whereas 31.6% would acknowledge the behaviour and congratulate the student privately. It is worth pointing out that within the



21.1% of the teachers who explained their own intervention, there seems to be an agreement that positive recognition should always occur in front of others.

c) General attitude and towards the teacher

ITEM	% of responses		
	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences	Other
F) The student talks back.	I firmly order the student to quit that behaviour or otherwise consequence will follow, e.g., send a note to their parents.	I try to let it appear insignificant and trivial.	13.6
	74.6	10	
G) The student is kind and polite to everybody.	I praise the student	I privately tell the student how happy everyone around him is (classmates and teacher) for their kindness and congratulate him.	6.8
	76.3	12	
H) The student disobeys or confronts the teacher and/or does not follow the rules.	I administer the student a severe consequence, e.g., parent call, sent to principal's office	I speak privately with the student to address the problem	15.3
	30.5	54.2	
I) The student follows the rules and instructions.	I use praise or tangible reward (a sticker, a trinket, etc.)	I privately congratulate the student for making the effort to listen and follow the rules	16.9
	44.1	37.3	
J) The student throws temper tantrums.	I am empathetic but firm and administer the consequence either way.	I wait until the outburst ceases or remove the child from the scene to address the problem privately	1.7
	33.9	59.3	

Table 4. Classification of teachers' responses in section 'c) General attitude' according to the discipline method.

The data collected in this section provides information about how teachers tackle situations related to students' general attitude towards their peers and the teacher. The results of item F, 'the student talks back', show how most of the teachers (74.6%) relate the most with the Assertive Discipline method and claim that they would not hesitate to deliver a consequence to the student's rudeness. In contrast, 10% of the respondents would let that behaviour appear trivial. Within the 13.6% of the alternative interventions, four teachers advocate for the use of private talks to address the issue (some of them would publicly reproach them for their behaviour first) in order to make the student reflect on their attitude.

Results in item G, 'the student is kind and polite to everybody', show, once again, that teachers prefer praising the student publicly. 76.6% of the respondents would praise publicly a



student who is kind and polite, whereas 12% would acknowledge that behaviour privately. Within the 6.8% of the teachers who explained their intervention, the responses vary from using that positive behaviour as a model (Canter's positive repetition), to stating that the satisfaction of making everyone happy is itself the reward.

The responses for item H, 'the student disobeys or confronts the teacher and/or does not follow the rules' show how the majority of the teachers in that situation (54.2%) seem to lean towards practices that involve addressing the issue with the student privately. 30.5% of them would administer a severe consequence instead. Within the 15.3% that represent the alternative interventions, the answers reveal that most of the teachers would first approach the student to tackle the problem, make him reflect on his behaviour and, ultimately, would either administer a consequence or contact their parents.

For the situation represented in item I, 'the student follows the rules and instructions', there seems to be a balance between both options. 44.1% of the respondents prefer using praise or any tangible reward, and 37.3% advocate encouraging the student privately. Once again, within the 15.3% that proposed alternative interventions, many teachers admit using praise always in front of others. However, it is striking to observe that within these responses, one teacher considers it unnecessary to reward or praise the proper behaviour systematically ("No considero necesario recompensar continuamente seguir el comportamiento correcto").

The data collected in item J reveals how teachers would react in the case of a student throwing a temper tantrum. On the one hand, 59.3% of the teachers would address the problem with the student after the outburst ceases, in accordance with Dreikurs's method. On the other hand, 33.9% of the teachers would administer a consequence to that behaviour.

5.4.1.1.2. Social skills

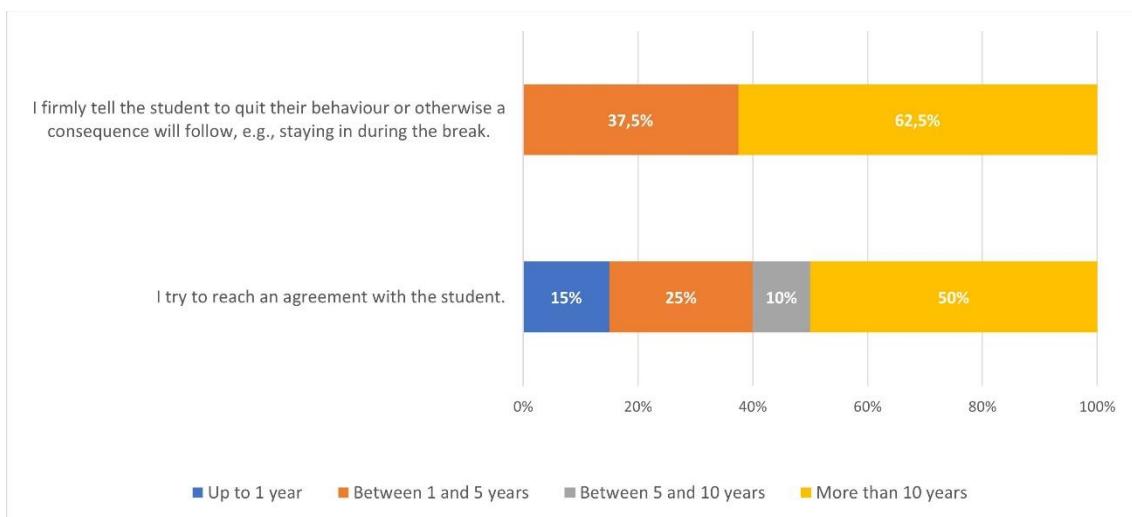
ITEM	% of responses		
	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences	Other
K) The student argues with classmates and is unable to yield.	I firmly tell the student to quit their behaviour or otherwise a consequence will follow, e.g., staying in during the break.	I try to reach an agreement with the student.	18.3
	13.3	68.3	



L) The student is able to solve conflicts peacefully and constructively.	I use praise or send positive note to parents. 58.6	I privately acknowledge the student's effort to solve the conflict and tell how glad all the parts involved are. 34.5	5.2
M) The student clowns around.	I ask the student to stop or a consequence will follow. 51.7	I ignore the behaviour and tries to give attention at any other time. 39.7	6.9
N) The student offers to help classmates.	I use praise or send a positive note to parents 57.6	I congratulate the student saying how happy their classmates would be for receiving their help 33.9	8.5

Table 5. Classification of teachers' responses in section '5.4.1.2. Social skills' according to the discipline method.

The responses in this section offer clues about teachers' practices for managing behaviour that involves social skills. Firstly, for item K, 'the student argues with classmates and is unable to yield', most of the teachers (68.3%) prefer negotiating with the student. By contrast, 13.3% of the respondents claim that they would warn the student that a consequence would be administered in case of persistence. Within those who explained their alternative intervention (18.3%), the majority of them advocate persuading the student and making him reflect on their actions or using that issue as a topic for debate in the lesson. Additionally, one of the respondents pointed out that, instead of making the student staying in during the break, they would remove any other activity appreciated by the student ('Más que quedarse sin recreo (y que no se les puede privatizar [sic]) no hará alguna actividad que le guste'), which is a negative consequence recommended by Canter in his method.



Graph 4. Teachers' years of experience in relation to their responses to item K 'The student argues with classmates and is unable to yield'.



Graph 4 shows that the option that referred to Assertive Discipline ('I firmly tell the student to quit their behaviour or otherwise a consequence will follow') was only chosen by experienced teachers (10 years of experience and over) and teachers between 1 and 5 years of experience. Also, all the novice teachers (up to 1 year of experience) chose the option that corresponds with Dreikurs's method ('I try to reach an agreement with the student'). From this data, it can be inferred that novice teachers may prefer practices that require a deeper examination of the problem and making the student reflect on the situation, instead of imposing consequences on the spot. This might happen because teachers enter the profession with fresh ideas as regards behaviour management acquired during their trainee years at university, which involve not being too authoritarian and listening to the student. However, this might change over the years when teachers start facing situations that might be more difficult to tackle and need to develop other strategies that work most of the time.

For item L, 'the student is able to solve conflicts peacefully and constructively', the majority of teachers prefer positive reinforcement in the form of praise or a positive note to the families (58.6%), whereas others prefer encouraging the student privately (34.5%). Within the alternative interventions (5.2%), teachers expressed that they complimented the student in front of the class or that they use the behaviour as a model.

In the case of item M, 'the student clowns around', data revealed that 51.7% of the respondents would warn the student that in case of persistence a consequence would follow. 39.7% of the respondents would ignore the behaviour and give attention at any other time of the lesson. Within the 6.9% of the respondents who explained their interventions, two of them state that these interventions entirely depend on the situation, which matches Dreikurs's method. Among those two, one of them claim to ignore the behaviour if it was not noticed by the rest of the students, which gives clues about how important is to preserve the harmony in the class for some teachers.

Finally, the data collected in item N, 'the student offers to help classmates', shows that 57.6% of the respondents advocate praising or sending a positive note to the families, whereas 33.9% of the respondents advocate encouraging the student privately. Once again, the alternative interventions (8.5%) indicate that teachers prefer delivering compliments in public and using the behaviour as a model in class.

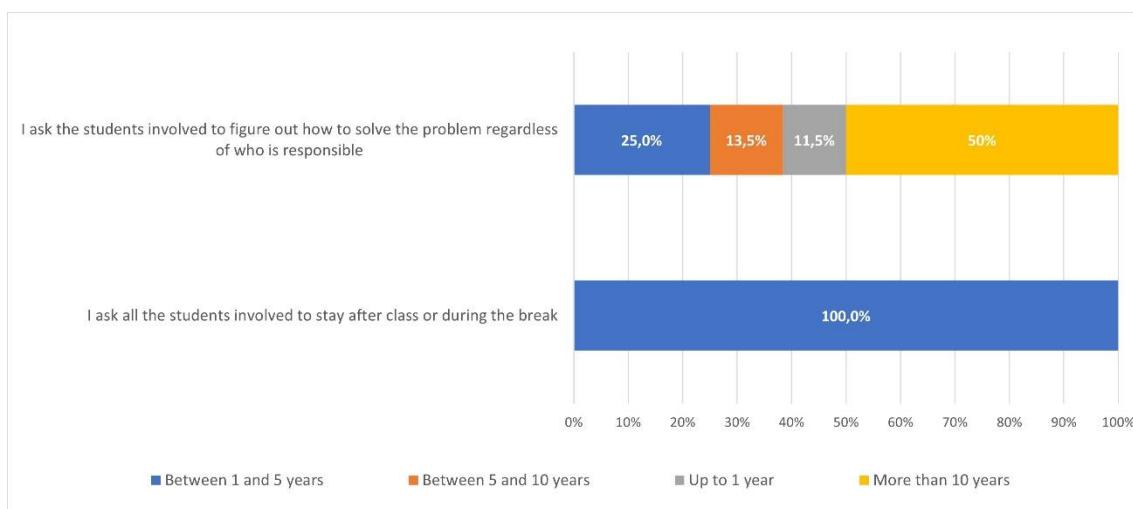


5.4.1.1.3. Group dynamics

ITEM	% of responses		
	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences	Other
O) There is a group conflict where it is not clear who started it or who is responsible.	I ask all the students involved to stay after class or during the break. 3	I ask the students involved to figure out how to solve the problem regardless of who is responsible 88.3	8.3
P) Students collectively managed to solve a conflict or achieved an established goal.	I use group rewards. 23.3	I tell the students involved how hard they worked to solve the conflict and congratulate them for it. 76.7	

Table 6. Classification of teachers' responses in section '5.4.1.3. Group dynamics' according to the discipline method.

The data collected on this section give information about the attitude of teachers towards behaviour issues that involve two or more students. The results obtained in item O show teachers' preference regarding solving a group conflict where there is a lack of information about who started it. Most teachers prefer to ask the students to figure out solutions for the problem (88.3%). Only 3% of the respondents prefer to administer a consequence such as staying in during the break. Among the teachers who explained their alternative intervention (8.3%), most of them referred to practices similar to the Logical Consequences option.



Graph 5. Teachers' years of experience in relation to their responses to item O 'There is a group conflict where it is not clear who started it or who is responsible'.

It can be observed that within the 3% of teachers who chose the Assertive Discipline option 'I ask all the students to stay after class or during the break', all of them have between 1 and 5 years of experience. In a similar way to what results revealed in item K, this information



might suggest that teachers with at least one year of experience prefer using practices that solve discipline issues on the spot.

In the case of item P, the responses show how teachers generally tend to reward group behaviours. The results revealed that the majority of teachers prefer encouragement over the use of group rewards: 76,7% of them indicated encouraging the student as their preferred intervention, whereas 23,3% claimed to prefer using group rewards. It is very interesting that rewards are not as popular among teachers when they involve more than one student. Instead, verbal acknowledgment is preferred.

5.4.1.2. Classification of items by majority choice of discipline model.

The following table sorts items into two columns – Canter vs. Dreikurs – according to majority answers. The items in the grey cells refer to misbehaviour and the items in the blue cells refer to positive behaviour.

		Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences
ATTITUDE	Attention	C) The student pays attention during the lessons.	A) The student is frequently inattentive (looks through the window, plays with materials, etc.)
	Speaking time	E) The student makes useful contributions to the lesson.	B) The student is unable to stay in their assigned place. D) The student talks out of turn.
	General attitude and towards the teacher	F) The student talks back. G) The student is kind and polite to everybody. I) The student follows the rules and instructions.	H) The student disobeys or confronts the teacher and/or does not follow the rules. J) The student throws temper tantrums.
SOCIAL SKILLS	L) The student is able to solve conflicts peacefully and constructively. M) The student clown around. N) The student offers to help classmates.	K) The student argues with classmates and is unable to yield.	



GROUP DYNAMICS		O) There is a group conflict where it is not clear who started it or who is responsible. P) Students collectively managed to solve a conflict or achieved an established goal.
TOTAL OF ITEMS	8	8

Table 7. Item classification into the two methods according to the frequency of responses.

The table shows that there are the same number of items for Assertive Discipline and for Logical Consequences. This means that, seemingly, there is not a predominance of one method over the other. However, it can be noticed that most of the positive behaviours (cells in blue) appear in the Assertive Discipline column. This, once again, demonstrates the teachers' tendency to reinforce positive behaviour through praise or rewards, which are practices advocated by Canter. Many of them claim to use praise or rewards under the assumption that praising students in front of others is bound to increase their motivation levels. Interestingly, when it comes to reinforcing good behaviour with more than one student involved, most teachers prefer to encourage and acknowledge students' efforts rather than grant them a reward.

On the other hand, the column of Logical Consequences gathers mostly all the items that refer to misbehaviour. From this information, it can be inferred that the preferred practices for tackling undesired behaviours are those that encourage the student to reflect on their actions and help them to regulate their behaviour, instead of imposing consequences. This is to say, teachers take the trouble to learn why the student behaves like that and attempt to intervene according to the situation.

By and large, this section suggests that the preferred practices for reinforcing positive behaviour match the Assertive Discipline method and, by contrast, the preferred practices for addressing misbehaviour tally with the Logical Consequences method.

5.4.1.3 Analysis of individual respondents' discipline model preferences.

This section shows the classification of the teachers into the two methods analysed – Canter vs. Dreikurs – according to their majority responses. The cells contain the items that correspond with each method for each respondent. The coloured cells indicate the method that is predominant in each respondent. The table below shows the results:



Respondent	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences
ITEMS		
1	c, f, g, i, l, p	a, b, d, e, h, j, k, m, n, o
2	b, c, e, f, g, i, m, p	a, d, h, j, k, l, n, o
3	a, b, f, g, h, i, m, n, p	c, d, e, j, k, o
4	c, f, j, m	a, b, d, g, h, i, k, l, n, o, p
5	d, g, j	a, b, c, d, e, f, h, i, k, l, m, n, o, p
6	a, d, e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n	b, c, j, k, o, p
7	a, c, e, f, g, i, l, n	b, d, h, j, k, m, o, p
8	a-p	
9	c, h	a, b, d, e, f, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p
10	c, d, e, f, h, i, k, l, m, n	a, b, j, o, p
11	a, c, e, l, m	b, d, f, h, i, k, o, p
12	a-p	
13	a, c, d, e, f, g, i, j, l, m, n, p	b, h, k, o
14	a, c, d, e, f, g, h, l	b, i, j, k, m, n, o, p
15	b, c, d, e, f, g, i, j, l, n	a, d, h, k, m, o, p
16	a, c, d, h, m, p	b, e, j, k, l, n, o
17	a, c, e, f, g, j, m	b, d, h, i, k, l, n, o, p
18	a, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n	b, j, k, o, p
19	e, f, g, n	a, b, c, d, h, i, j, k, l, m, o, p
20	b, c, d, e, g, i, l, n, p	a, c, d, f, h, i, j, k, m, o
21	c, d, e, g, i, j, l, m	h, k, o, p
22	c, e, g, i, n	a, b, d, f, h, k, m, o, p
23	f, g, k	a, b, c, d, e, h, i, j, k, o, p
24	b, c, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n	a, d, o, p
25	g, l, m, n	a, b, c, d, e, f, h, i, j, k, o, p
26	f, k, m	a, b, c, d, e, g, h, i, j, l, n, o, p
27	c, e, f, g, i, l, n	a, b, d, h, j, k, m, o, p
28	a	b-p
29	a, d, e, f, g, h, j	b, i, k, l, m, n, o, p
30	a, g, h	d, k, o, p

Respondent	Assertive Discipline	Logical Consequences
ITEMS		
31	e, f	a, b, c, d, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p
32	a, c, f, h, i, k, l, m, n	b, j, k, l, o, p
33	a, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, n	b, j, k, l, o, p
34	a, c, e, f, g, i, j, l, n	b, d, k, o, p
35	a, c, f	b, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p
36	a, c, g, i, l, m, n	b, d, g, h, j, k, o, p
37	a, c, d, f, g, h, i, j, n	b, e, k, l, m, o, p
38	b, c, d, e, f, g, i, l, m, n	a, h, j, k, o, p
39	c, e, g	a, b, d, f, h, i, k, l, m, n, o, p
40	a, c, e, f, g, i, l, n	h, j, k, m, o, p
41	a, c, g, i, l, n, p	b, d, e, j, k, m, o
42	a, f, g, i, l, m, n, o	b, c, d, e, h, j, k, p
43	a, f	b, c, d, e, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p
44	c, d, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, n, p	a, b, m, o
45	c, f, g, j, l, m, n	a, b, d, e, h, i, k, o, p
46	c, e, f, g, h, j, k, l, m	a, b, d, n, o, p
47	c, e, f, j, l, m, p	a, b, d, h, k, n, o
48	e, f, g, h, i, l, m, n, p	a, b, c, d, j, k, o
49	c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, l, m, n	a, b, h, k, l, o, p
50	c, e, f, g, j, l, m, n	a, b, d, h, i, k, o, p
51	c, d, e, f, g, i, l, n, p	a, b, h, j, k, m, o
52	a, b, d, e, f, g, n	c, h, i, j, k, l, m, o, p
53	c, d, e, f, g, h, i, n	a, b, j, k, l, o, p
54	c, e, f, g, i, l, m, n	a, b, d, h, j, k, o, p
55	f, g	a, b, c, d, e, h, i, j, k, l, n, o, p
56	c, d, d, g, j, l, n, p	a, b, e, f, h, i, k, m, o
57	e, f, g, j, m, n	a, b, c, d, h, i, k, o, p
58	c, d, f, g, j, l, n	a, b, m, p
59	b, c, f, g, l	a, d, e, h, i, j, k, m, n, o, p
60	a, c, e, f, g, i, l, m, n	a, d, h, j, k, o, p



TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS:	ONLY ONE METHOD:	24	29
	BOTH METHODS:	7	

Table 8. Teachers' classification into the two methods according to their responses.

Table 8 illustrates that there are more teachers whose overall intervention style corresponds with Dreikurs's method, although the difference in numbers is not very wide (5 teachers). However, the individual responses of each teacher indicate that few teachers' interventions correspond exclusively with one method (only respondents 8 and 12), and their practices are mixed between one method and the other. This phenomenon can be clearly noticed in the fact that there are 7 teachers whose answers are evenly distributed between Assertive Discipline and Logical Consequences. Additionally, this phenomenon was also observed in the previous section, which proved that teachers adhere to Assertive Discipline for reinforcing positive behaviour, but they adhere to Logical Consequences for addressing misbehaviour.

It can be inferred from the heterogeneity on the responses that many teachers may not follow a specific discipline method very precisely, but they may adapt their intervention to the circumstances instead. The dominance of Dreikurs's method over Canters's demonstrates that, to address misbehaviour, there is a preference among teachers for practices that require conversing with the student and guiding them on self-regulating their behaviour, instead of imposing consequences. However, paying attention to the teachers' tendency to reinforce positive behaviour, teachers seemingly tend to choose one method over the other because it simply works. That might explain the extensive use of praise and rewards, since these are practices that have been proved to be effective.

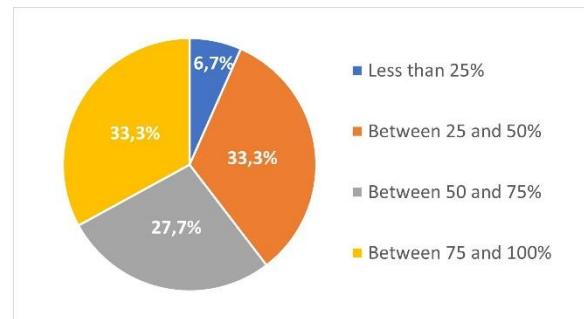
5.4.2. Teachers' responses in relation to language use.

In order to carry out the analysis of these items, the responses of each part will be analysed separately in different sections. The first section focuses on analysing the responses related to the time of use of the L2, and it attempts to find a correlation between the time of use of the L2, and the language proficiency and CLIL training levels of the respondents. The second and the third section deal with the role that CLIL teachers attribute to the L2: the second section analyses the purposes for which the L2 is generally used during the lessons, and the third section analyses whether there is a criterion followed by teachers to use the second language. Lastly, the fourth

section focuses on how teachers perceive the difficulty of CLIL subjects compared to those taught in the students' L1.

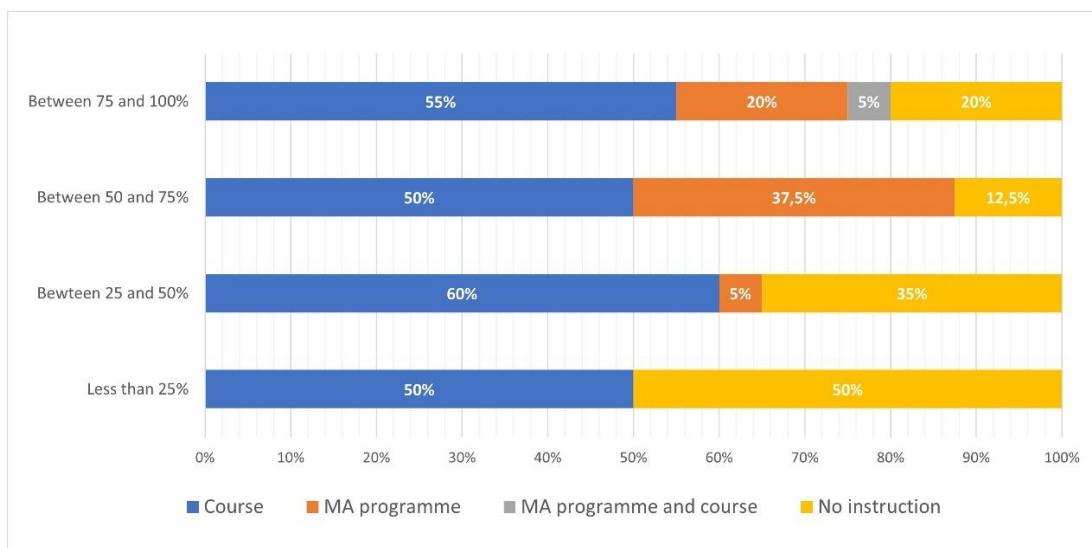
5.4.2.1. Time of use of the second language during the lessons.

CLIL teachers were asked about the amount of time they use the second language within the lessons. The results revealed that the majority of the respondents tend to use the second language for more than a quarter of the time of the lesson: 33.3% of the teachers use the L2 between 25% and 50% of the time; 27.7% of them use the L2 between 50% and 75% of the time; and 33.3% of them use the second language between 75% and 100% of the lesson; only 6.7% of the teachers claim to use it less than 25% of the lesson.



Graph 6. Time of use of the second language during the lessons.

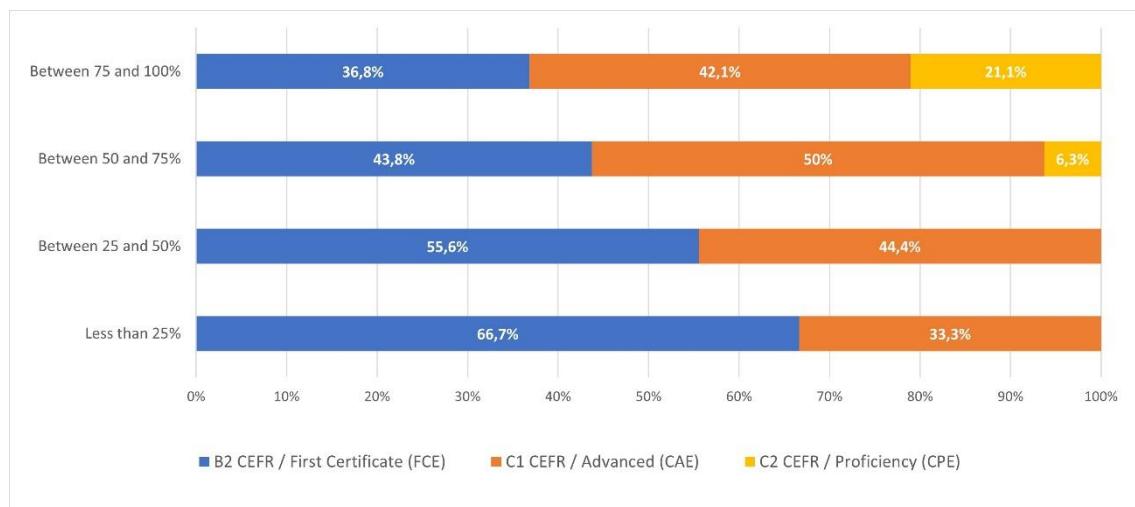
It is worth examining those results according to several criteria in order to find out whether there are significant differences within the samples, and the potential implications these have on the lessons. One of those criteria to be analysed is the specific instruction in CLIL methodologies. Graphic below shows the differences in the use of the L2 according to teachers' specific training in CLIL:



Graph 7. Use of the L2 according to the specific training in CLIL.



As can be observed, teachers who completed an MA programme tend to make a more frequent use of the second language (generally over 50% of the lesson), whereas teachers who did not, make a less frequent use: only 12.5% of the teachers who use English between 50% and 75% of the time during the lessons, and 20% of those who use it between 75% and 100% have no specific training in CLIL. Additionally, the sample includes a teacher who completed a MA programme and a course, who claimed to use the second language between 75% and 100% of the lesson. According to the results obtained, it can be inferred then that the more training in CLIL, the more intensive is the use of the second language in the lessons.



Graph 8. Use of the L2 according to the English proficiency certificate.

In relation to language proficiency, graph 8 illustrates how teachers with a higher level of English proficiency tend to use the L2 more during the lessons, whereas those with lower levels, tend to use it less: the majority of those who use the L2 more than 50% of the time hold a C1 MCER certificate, and the majority of those who use it less than 25% of the time hold a B2 MCER certificate. From this data it can be inferred that CLIL teachers' language proficiency is a factor that influences the use of the second language: the higher the language proficiency of teachers, the more frequent the use of the L2.

One of the main purposes of CLIL is to provide students with a greater exposure to the L2 than is possible in traditional second language contexts. Taking this into account, the results obtained on this section are quite encouraging: almost 95% of the respondents claim to use the L2 over 25% of the lesson, and 61% claim to do it over 50%. At the end of the day, this is highly beneficial to students since great exposure to the L2 is bound to enhance their second language skills.



Throughout this section it has been observed that there is a correlation between the use of the L2 and the teachers' language proficiency as well as their CLIL training. The analysis of the data revealed that the higher is the teacher's language proficiency and CLIL training level, the more extensive is their use of the second language during the lessons. It is very important that teachers are well qualified to teach in CLIL lessons, in order to create contexts with a high level of exposure to English where students can learn and develop their language skills. However, the extensive use of the L2 should always be accompanied by the proper strategies to support the students' comprehension, otherwise students may become discouraged due to inability to understand the teacher. That is why it is crucial that CLIL teachers are well trained, not only to make the best of this contexts, but also to avoid this kind of issues.

5.4.2.2. Situations where the second language is used during the lessons.

Teachers were asked about the situations where they use the second language during the lessons. According to the data obtained, teachers make a more frequent use of the L2 for academic issues (96.7%), followed by classroom management (75%), care and attention matters (45%) and, lastly, conflict resolution (18.3%).

It is worth noting that, within the sample, there is a 3.3% of respondents who do not use the second language for academic issues. This is to say, there are 2 teachers who claimed not to use English for matters such as delivering contents during the lessons. This may suggest that it might be a mistake when checking the boxes, but it was observed that one of those respondents checked more than one box and, therefore, it cannot be regarded as a mistake; additionally, none of those respondents have specific training in CLIL. It is difficult to draw conclusions given that the sample is small, but it is however a striking coincidence. It may be interesting to investigate this issue with a larger sample of teachers in future studies.

5.4.2.3. Criteria to use the second language or the mother tongue during the lessons.

Teachers were asked about the criteria they follow to use the second language during the lessons. In order to carry out an analysis, both items C and D in the third section of the questionnaire need to be analysed together since there is a correlation between them; choosing one language means the exclusion of the other, and this choice should be made according to



consistent criteria. According to this hypothesis, both graphs should look the same. However, there are variations that require examination.

The most striking information is found when asking teachers whether they take the students' language proficiency into account to use the second language in the lesson. 81.7% of the participants claimed to bear in mind students' language proficiency to use English, which means that 18.3% do not use it as a criterion. Additionally, in the second graph (when teachers are asked about their use of the students' mother tongue), the percentage of teachers who consider that an important factor diminishes to 65.5%. However, given the high response rate, it can be determined that the language proficiency of the students is a criterion followed by the majority of the CLIL teachers.

With respect to the rest of the items, they display neutral values, most of them below 50%. The most striking variation appears in the question regarding the adequacy of each language to the lesson. Whereas 65% declared to take this factor into account when choosing English, only 43.1% did the same for Spanish. This might be an indication of both teachers' and students' higher level of comfort in Spanish language contexts, which eliminates the need for a deliberate choice.

On the other hand, given the small differences in the percentages, it is difficult to determine any of them as a criterion followed by CLIL teachers.

5.4.2.4. Perceived difficulty of the subjects in CLIL programmes in relation to subjects in students' mother tongue.

Teachers were asked their opinion about the difficulty of the subjects taught through English in relation to the taught through students' mother tongue. Results show that 59.3% of the teachers think that CLIL subjects are more difficult than the others, 32.2% think that the difficulty is the same, and 8.5% think that CLIL subjects are less difficult than the others.

As can be observed, respondents' views are divided, but there is a majority of them who perceive CLIL subjects as more difficult. However, this is not necessarily negative. Teaching and learning contents through a foreign language is objectively more demanding since the language dimension is involved too. Therefore, these results may reflect CLIL teachers' commitment to their profession, as well as their awareness of all the challenges this methodology carries.



5.5. CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

As regards the findings about behaviour management, it is difficult to state that there is a preference for one method over the other. However, as already pointed out, results revealed that teachers lean towards Assertive Discipline for reinforcing desired behaviour, and towards Logical Consequences for addressing misbehaviour. On the one hand, teachers seem to prefer practices that, instead of arbitrarily imposing consequences, promote self-regulation of student's behaviour. This is the case, for instance, of items B and K: for item B, 'the student is unable to stay in their assigned place', the preferred intervention was to address the problem privately with the student and suggest an alternative to misbehaviour, such as standing up after completing the task and going back to their assigned spot; for item K, 'the student argues with classmates and is unable to yield', the preferred intervention was to try to reach an agreement with the student. These examples illustrate how for two different types of misbehaviour teachers would similarly address them through two practices suggested by Dreikurs. In the first example, when the teacher delivers a choice to that undesired behaviour, the responsibility is placed on the student since he decides whether to choose that alternative or not and, therefore, whether a consequence will follow or not. In the second example, when the teacher addresses the issue with the student in order to come to an agreement, he is acknowledging the student's feelings and showing him an alternative form to achieve his purpose. Overall, in terms of addressing misbehaviour, teachers seem to prefer providing their students with the tools to gradually shape their own behaviour.

On the other hand, results revealed that positive reinforcement – praise and reward systems – is still nowadays one of the preferred practices to reinforce positive behaviour among teachers. Praise seems to be, however, more popular than tangible rewards. The majority of the respondents claimed to praise their students assuming that it is bound to motivate them, especially when done in front of others. This misassumption was addressed in previous sections of this dissertation, and it was explained that praise and rewards do boost extrinsic motivation levels, which means that children become motivated to work in order to receive commendation. Despite the previously addressed controlling nature of these practices, the study revealed that teachers still seem to prefer this type of interventions when it comes to reinforcing desired behaviour, probably, as already pointed out, because these practices are truly convenient and because they simply work.



Interestingly, it was found that there is a change in the trend when teachers have to reinforce a collective behaviour. Items O and P analysed the respondents' attitude when there is more than one student involved: results in item O, 'there is a group conflict where it is not clear who started it or who is responsible', proved once again how teachers lean towards practices that match Dreikurs's method for tackling misbehaviour; conversely, results in item P, 'students collectively managed to solve a conflict or achieved an established goal', revealed that teachers prefer to acknowledge students' work and effort rather than delivering a group reward. Although it is impossible to draw conclusions from this insight, the reason that explains this might be that reward systems are more difficult to manage, and they require more consistency. For instance, filling a jar with marbles every time a student behaves well, or taking one marble out when they misbehave, takes more time than delivering verbal recognition, which is something that can be done on the spot. In any case, it would be interesting to obtain insight about teachers' perception on this matter and analyse it for further studies.

In relation to the respondents' profile and behaviour management, no major differences were found in relation to their age or their experience. However, it was observed that for certain misbehaviours that involve a greater degree of negotiation with the student (such as item K, 'the student argues with classmates and is unable to yield'), novice teachers (up to one year of experience) tend to respond with interventions that correspond with Dreikurs's method. This might be connected to their pre-service education, where teachers learn about new methodologies that advocate being empathetic and flexible with children, and where they may actually have few possibilities to experience these challenges. Novice teachers begin their teaching career with a positive and diplomatic attitude towards the new challenges and, due to that, in many cases they may appear as less strict. However, this trend may change as teachers become more experienced.

As regards second language use within CLIL contexts, the findings are quite encouraging in relation to the language proficiency and the CLIL training level of teachers. According to the Royal Decree 1594/2011, the required level to teach in CLIL (bilingual) programmes is a B2 MCER. Almost 50% of the respondents of the study claimed to hold a C1 MCER or higher language certificate. Additionally, more than 50% of the respondents claimed to have received instruction in CLIL – a MA programme, a course, or both. From this information, it can be stated that most teachers are not only linguistically prepared but are also familiar with the



methodologies to deliver contents through a foreign language, which has been described as key in terms of providing a good quality CLIL education.

The results showed a correlation between teachers' CLIL training levels and the use of the second language within the lessons. The teachers who claimed to have training in CLIL methodologies indicated that they tended to make more extensive use of the L2 than those who do not have training in CLIL. Language proficiency similarly appeared to have a correlation with the use of the L2, since the participants with higher English levels affirmed that they used English over 50% of the lesson. Additionally, only 6.7% of the respondents claimed to use English less than the 25% of the lesson, which partially demonstrates the teachers' concern about the importance and the benefits of using English as often as possible.

It was observed that there is a quite extensive use of the L2 for certain of situations, whereas it does not happen for some others: the majority of the respondents affirmed that they use the second language for academic matters, three-quarters of them claimed to use it for classroom management, and almost half of them claimed to use it for care and attention matters. However, only a small part of the sample (18.3%) claimed to use English for conflict resolutions, which may suggest that many teachers prefer to address emergent conflicts using their students' mother tongue. This may happen because its more convenient and easier in order to avoid miscomprehension issues and to ensure that students grasp the message.

Students' language proficiency appears to be the only criterion followed by the participants in order to choose the situations to use the second language. That would partially explain the previous statement, which is that the majority of the teachers prefer addressing conflicts through the students' mother tongue. The fact that teachers bear in mind students' language skills in order to convey any message to them is truly positive. It means that for them it is essential that their students understand the message that is conveyed, regardless of whether it is related to contents or behaviour management. For this reason, it is necessary to highlight, once again, the importance of training CLIL teachers not only in language itself but in the specific methodology, because that would provide them with the strategies to aid the message comprehension.

By and large, results have demonstrated how the discipline method has a pivotal role in the teaching practice. Through this analysis it was possible to find out how traditional approaches such as behaviour modification techniques are still in vogue in schools. As explained, applying punishments or granting rewards simply aim to achieve students' compliance or to



make the disruptive behaviour cease, without exploring further areas such as the cause of the conduct or encouraging the student to reflect on the consequences of the misbehaviour on the group or themself. This contrasts with certain education perspectives such as the education for human development by Martha Nussbaum (2009), which claims that the purpose of education is “producing decent world citizens who can understand the global problems to which this and other theories of justice respond and who have the practical competence and the motivational incentives to do something about those problems” (p. 8). According to her words, teachers are in charge of helping students grow and develop citizenship skills, as well as encouraging them to reflect on their actions and take responsibility for them.



6. CONCLUSIONS

Numerous researchers identify misbehaviour as one of the greatest concerns for teachers. Given the variety of discipline issues and the causes and/or triggers for them, theories such as Canter's Assertive discipline (1976), Rudolf Dreikurs's Logical Consequences (1980), or Glasser's Choice Theory (1998) were developed as an attempt to provide in-service teachers with tools to understand the reasons and deal with their students' misbehaviour. This research focused on analysing and comparing two methods – Lee Canter's Assertive Discipline and Rudolf Dreikurs's Logical Consequences – that suggest two opposite approaches to tackling misbehaviour.

On the one hand, Canter's method is a very good example of how Skinner's behaviourism theory (1974) can be influential not only in the field of Psychology nowadays, but it is also in force in current education. His method promotes the use of rewards and punitive consequences as a means of achieving students' compliance. On the other hand, Dreikurs' method approaches misbehaviour through a more empathetic attitude and aims to aid students to self-regulate their behaviour. In contrast with Canter, who prioritises compliance with classroom rules, Dreikurs considers it more important to show the students that their unwise actions may have consequences on them and on others.

The choice of these two methods was based not only on how their principles differ significantly, but also on their presence in classrooms nowadays. Prioritizing negotiation over immediate punishment in order to tackle some behaviours has always been a choice for many teachers. On the other hand, the system of rewards has amazingly evolved to a point that classrooms are full of layouts and materials that, despite being disguised, are nothing but rewarding systems; tools such as token economies or the latest trend of behaviour charts are some examples.

The research has also taken into account the language dimension, which is an essential part of CLIL lessons. The demand for CLIL has gradually increased in Spain, which has eventually led to the implementation of bilingual programmes in many schools in the country. The use of the second language during the lessons may add an extra challenge to the ones already faced by teachers, such as the previously addressed behaviour management. This dissertation has discussed the potential implications the use of the L2 may have on the lessons since it may presumably hinder communication with the students and, consequently, lead to misbehaviour issues.



The main aim of this research was to find out about teachers' preferences in dealing with disruptive behaviour, using the Assertive Discipline and the Logical Consequences methods as reference. Through the questionnaire, it was possible to learn whether teachers prefer to solve discipline issues on the spot or to address their possible causes. Although it is difficult to draw conclusions about a broad and complex subject such as misbehaviour based on questionnaires, this data collection method provided interesting insight about teachers' perceptions on how to approach behaviour and misbehaviour.

On the other hand, the study also aimed to examine the role of the second language within CLIL lessons, and to evaluate whether it may have detrimental effects on students' behaviour. The responses of the questionnaire gave information about how CLIL teachers use the second language during the lessons, and about the criteria they followed. Due to oversight in designing the questionnaire, however, it was unfortunately not possible to establish a correlation between the use of the second language and misbehaviour issues. It would also have been interesting to complement the teachers' own perceptions with objective in-class observation. Both questions will hopefully be addressed in future research.

Results by and large demonstrated that overall teachers adapt their intervention to the students and the situation. Teachers do not thoroughly adhere to a specific approach, but they tend to combine practices from different approaches instead. Results suggest that, whereas for addressing misbehaviour teachers prefer practices that require negotiating with the student, for reinforcing desired behaviours teachers prefer rewards. These latter have been described by several authors cited in this dissertation as certainly convenient and effective (Kohn, 1999, 2001; Richard & Deci, 1985). In terms of practicality, teachers need to find strategies that have been empirically proven to be effective; methods which do not demand too much effort to secure the students' compliance as well as the recurrence of a desired behaviour; and methods that prevent misbehaviour and contribute to preserve harmony in the classroom. This might explain why these practices are still nowadays a generalized approach for classroom management.

By the same token, findings demonstrated that there is an equally haphazard nature to the use of the second language within CLIL lessons. In a similar vein to what they do with behaviour management, CLIL teachers tend to use the L2 in accordance with the situation and with the students' proficiency levels; in fact, teachers highlighted this latter as essential factor in their choice of language. This suggests that they are aware of the importance of adapting learning to the students' needs.



However, although all this is quite reassuring, there is still a long way to go in terms of achieving quality CLIL education. Xavier Gisbert, president of the Bilingual Education Association, considers a B2 CEFR not enough to teach in CLIL and he suggests specific training programmes (Arcos, 2017). It was proved that the higher the teachers' English proficiency and CLIL training levels, the more extensive is the use of the second language and, consequently, the more the students are exposed to it. Teachers must be powerful role models for their students in every aspect, including language; due to that, it is necessary to change the requirement to teach in CLIL to a C1 CERF at the national level, as it already occurs in some autonomous communities such as Madrid. Additionally, investing in providing CLIL teachers with a well-rounded education through specific programmes may help to accomplish this ambitious goal.

All in all, having well trained teachers is only the first step. Providing well instruction in second language and CLIL methodology is likely to make the L1 become less frequent during the lessons. Additionally, regarding one of CLIL's basic premises, which is creating language immersion contexts, the second language should ideally be integrated in every aspect of the lesson, including classroom management. This training would provide teachers with the tools in order to respond to every aspect of the lesson using the second language, including some important parts such as addressing misbehaviour and solving emergent conflicts.



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8. APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Cuestionario sobre la gestión del comportamiento y la segunda lengua en aulas AICLE.

Mi nombre es Raquel Tena y actualmente estoy cursando el máster en Educación Integrada en Lengua Inglesa y Contenidos de la Universidad de Oviedo. Este cuestionario corresponde al estudio de mi Trabajo de Fin de Máster, el cual tiene como fin averiguar las percepciones de los docentes de AICLE sobre sus estrategias de manejo del aula, así como sobre el uso de la segunda lengua para este. El cuestionario está **únicamente destinado a maestros de Educación Primaria de secciones bilingües/programas AICLE que estén actualmente en activo en centros educativos, o que lo hayan estado en los últimos tres meses.**

Este es completamente **anónimo** y la información recogida será usada únicamente para fines investigadores.

Para cualquier duda puede ponerse en contacto conmigo a través del correo uo238516@uniovi.es.

¡Muchas gracias!

PREGUNTAS GENERALES

1. Edad:

- Entre 20 y 30 años.
- Entre 30 y 40 años.
- Entre 40 y 50 años.
- Entre 50 y 60 años.
- Mayor de 60 años.

2. Género:

- Hombre.
- Mujer.
- Otro.
- Prefiero no decirlo.



3. Años de experiencia docente:

- Sin experiencia [si se marca, cerrar encuesta].
- Hasta 1 año de experiencia.
- Entre 1 y 5 años de experiencia.
- Entre 5 y 10 años de experiencia.
- Más de 10 años de experiencia.

4. Certificado de nivel de inglés:

- B2 MCER / First Certificate (FCE)
- C1 MCER / Advanced (CAE)
- C2 MCER / Proficiency (CPE)
- Otro: _____.

5. ¿Formación específica en metodología AICLE?

- Máster
- Curso
- Ninguna formación

PREGUNTAS SOBRE LA GESTIÓN DEL COMPORTAMIENTO

Debe marcarse aquella opción que se ajuste más a la intervención real en el aula ante los comportamientos indicados. En caso de que ninguna se ajuste, explique brevemente cómo actuaría.

A. ACTITUD GENERAL EN EL AULA

ATENCIÓN Y FOCALIZACIÓN

a) El alumno se distrae con frecuencia (mira por la ventana, juega con el material, etc.)

- Le lanzo una advertencia, por ejemplo, establezco contacto visual o me acerco al lado del alumno.
- Averiguar la razón de su falta de atención para planificar una intervención acorde.
- Otro: _____.



b) El alumno no se queda quieto en su sitio.

- Time out* en un punto específico del aula.
- Hablo en privado para proponerle una opción alternativa a ese comportamiento, como por ejemplo que se levante al terminar la tarea, dé una vuelta por el aula y vuelva a su sitio.
- Otro: _____

c) El alumno presta atención durante las explicaciones.

- Le elogio por hacer las cosas bien.
- Le animo en privado reconociendo su compromiso y le felicito por ello.
- Otro: _____

TURNO DE PALABRA

d) El alumno interviene o habla fuera de turno.

- Le pido que no interrumpa o su comportamiento tendrá consecuencias, por ejemplo, quedarse sin recreo.
- Permanezco en silencio mientras persista la actitud, le interrumpo o hablo con él en privado.
- Otro: _____

e) El alumno participa haciendo contribuciones provechosas.

- Le doy un privilegio especial: asignarle un rol de clase, que elija un juego para jugar, que sea el primero de la fila, etc.
- Le animo en privado reconociendo su compromiso y le felicito por ello.
- Otro: _____

ACTITUD GENERAL Y HACIA EL DOCENTE

f) El alumno es impertinente y se muestra grosero.

- Le comunico que se aplicará una consecuencia en caso de que el comportamiento persista, por ejemplo, hacer una llamada a su familia.
- Intento quitarle peso haciendo que parezca algo trivial.



- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

g) El alumno se muestra amable con todo el mundo.

- Recompenso verbalmente al alumno con un elogio.
- Animo al alumno en privado comunicándole lo feliz que están todos a su alrededor gracias a su amabilidad y le felicito por ello.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

h) El alumno desobedece/se enfrenta al profesor o no respeta las normas.

- Aplico una consecuencia severa, por ejemplo, hago una llamada a sus padres o lo envío al despacho del director.
- Hablo en privado con el estudiante.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

i) El alumno sigue las normas y las instrucciones dadas

- Le recompenso verbalmente o le doy un premio (una pegatina, un caramelo, etc.)
- Le animo y le felicito en privado reconociendo su esfuerzo por escuchar activamente y seguir las normas.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

j) El alumno tiene rabietas

- Soy empático pero firme y aplico igualmente una consecuencia.
- Espero a que termine el arrebato o llevo al alumno aparte para atajar el problema en privado.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____



B. HABILIDADES SOCIALES

k) El alumno discute con sus compañeros y no da el brazo a torcer.

- Le comunico que si no cesa en su comportamiento tendrá un castigo, como por ejemplo quedarse sin recreo.
- Intento llegar a un acuerdo con el estudiante.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

l) El alumno es capaz de resolver conflictos de forma pacífica y constructiva.

- Le recompenso verbalmente o envío una nota positiva a los padres.
- Le animo y felicito en privado, reconociendo su esfuerzo por resolver el conflicto y diciéndole lo contentos que están todos por ello.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

m) El alumno hace el payaso.

- Le pido que cese en su comportamiento ya que, si no, este tendrá consecuencias.
- Ignoro el comportamiento e intento que el alumno reciba atención en otros momentos de la clase.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

n) El alumno se ofrece a ayudar a sus compañeros.

- Le recompenso verbalmente o envío una nota positiva a los padres.
- Le animo y felicito en privado diciéndole lo felices que están sus compañeros de recibir su ayuda.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____



C. ACTITUDES GRUPALES

o) Hay un conflicto grupal en el que no se sabe quién lo empezó o quién es el responsable.

- Castigo a todos los alumnos involucrados sin recreo.
- Hago que todos los alumnos involucrados busquen una solución al problema sin importar quién sea el responsable.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otra: _____

p) Un grupo de alumnos han resuelto un conflicto o logrado algo que se había establecido.

- Doy una recompensa grupal.
- Animo y felicito a todos los estudiantes involucrados.
- No sabe/no contesta.
- Otro: _____

PREGUNTAS SOBRE EL USO DE LA SEGUNDA LENGUA EN EL AULA AICLE

A. Durante la sesión, el uso de la segunda lengua ocupa el siguiente porcentaje del tiempo total:

- Entre 0 y 25%
- Entre el 25 y el 50%
- Entre el 50 y el 75%
- Entre el 75 y el 100%

B. Señale en qué situaciones se utiliza la segunda lengua (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas). [multiselección]

- Cuestiones académicas (explicaciones, lecciones, ejercicios, etc).
- Resolución de conflictos.
- Manejo del aula.
- Cuidados y atención.



C. A la hora de escoger en qué situaciones se utiliza la SEGUNDA lengua, lo hago basándome en los siguientes criterios (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas):

- Nivel en dicha lengua del alumnado.
- Exigencias curriculares / académicas.
- Adecuación al temario y la lección actual.
- Comodidad y facilidad para impartir la sesión.

D. A la hora de escoger en qué situaciones se utiliza la LENGUA MATERNA, lo hago basándome en los siguientes criterios (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas):

- Nivel en dicha lengua del alumnado.
- Exigencias curriculares / académicas.
- Adecuación al temario y la lección actual.
- Comodidad y facilidad para impartir la sesión.

E. En relación a las asignaturas impartidas exclusivamente en la lengua materna del alumnado, ¿cómo definiría su grado de dificultad en comparación con las asignaturas en segunda lengua?

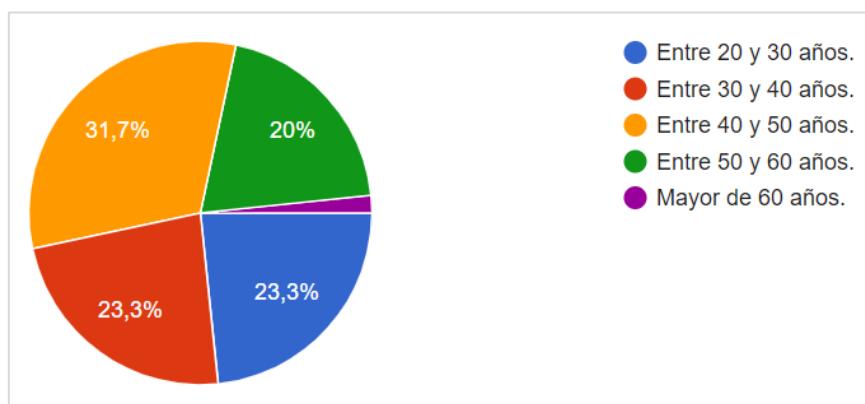
- Más dificultades que en las asignaturas en lengua materna.
- Menos dificultades que en las asignaturas en lengua materna.
- Las mismas dificultades que en las asignaturas en lengua materna.



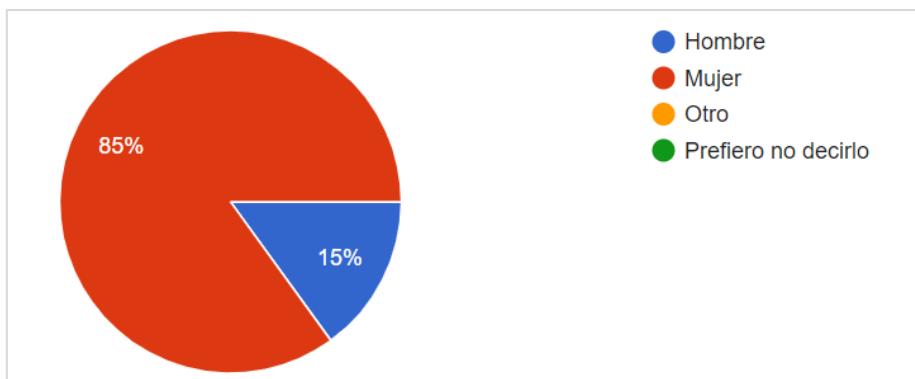
Appendix 2. Respuestas cuestionario sobre la gestión del comportamiento y la segunda lengua en aulas AICLE.

PREGUNTAS GENERALES

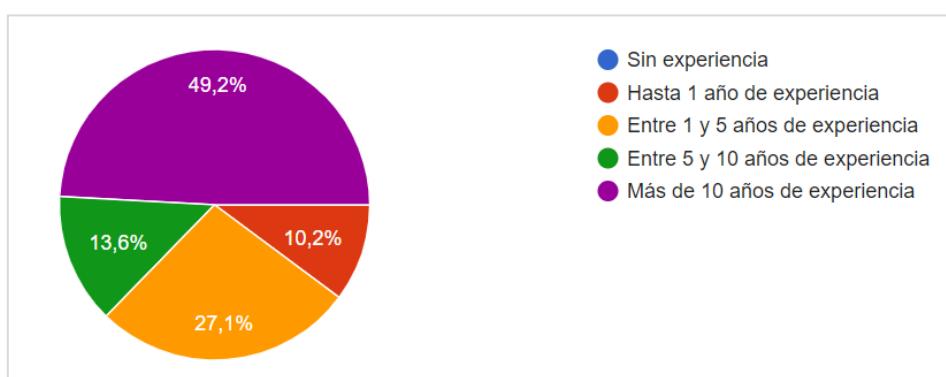
1. Edad: 60 respuestas



2. Género: 60 respuestas

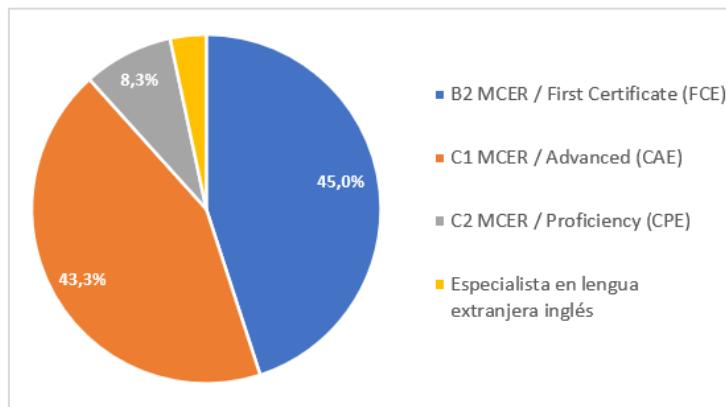


3. Años de experiencia docente: 59 respuestas

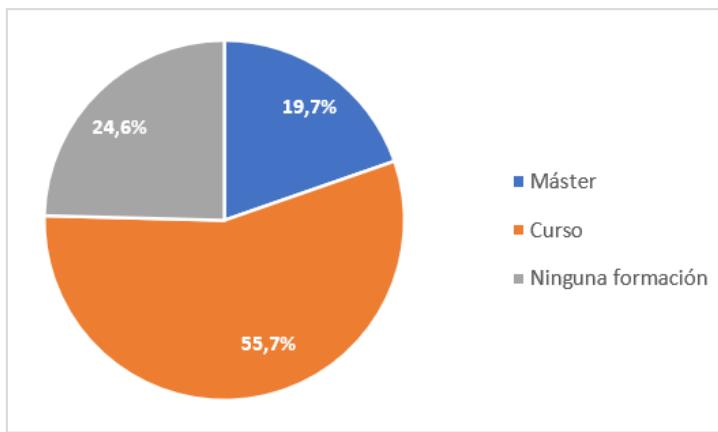




4. Certificado de nivel de inglés: 60 respuestas



5. ¿Formación específica en metodología AICLE? 60 respuestas



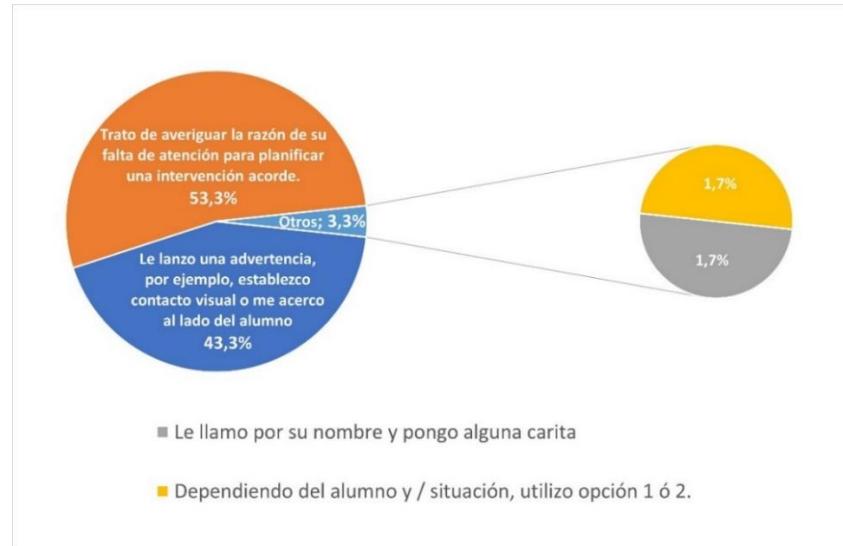
PREGUNTAS SOBRE LA GESTIÓN DEL COMPORTAMIENTO

Debe marcarse aquella opción que se ajuste más a la intervención real en el aula ante los comportamientos indicados. En caso de que ninguna se ajuste, explique brevemente cómo actuaría.

A. ACTITUD GENERAL EN EL AULA

ATENCIÓN Y FOCALIZACIÓN

- a) El alumno se distrae con frecuencia (mira por la ventana, juega con el material, etc.) 60 respuestas

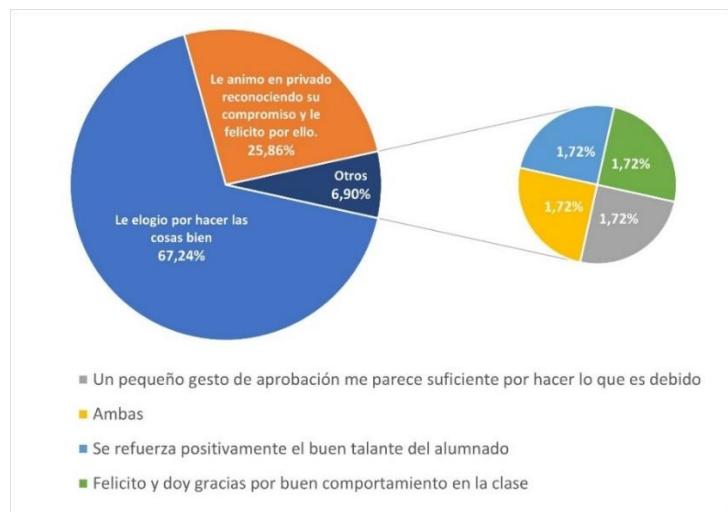


b) El alumno no se queda quieto en su sitio. 59 respuestas





c) El alumno presta atención durante las explicaciones. 58 respuestas



TURNO DE PALABRA

d) El alumno interviene o habla fuera de turno. 60 respuestas



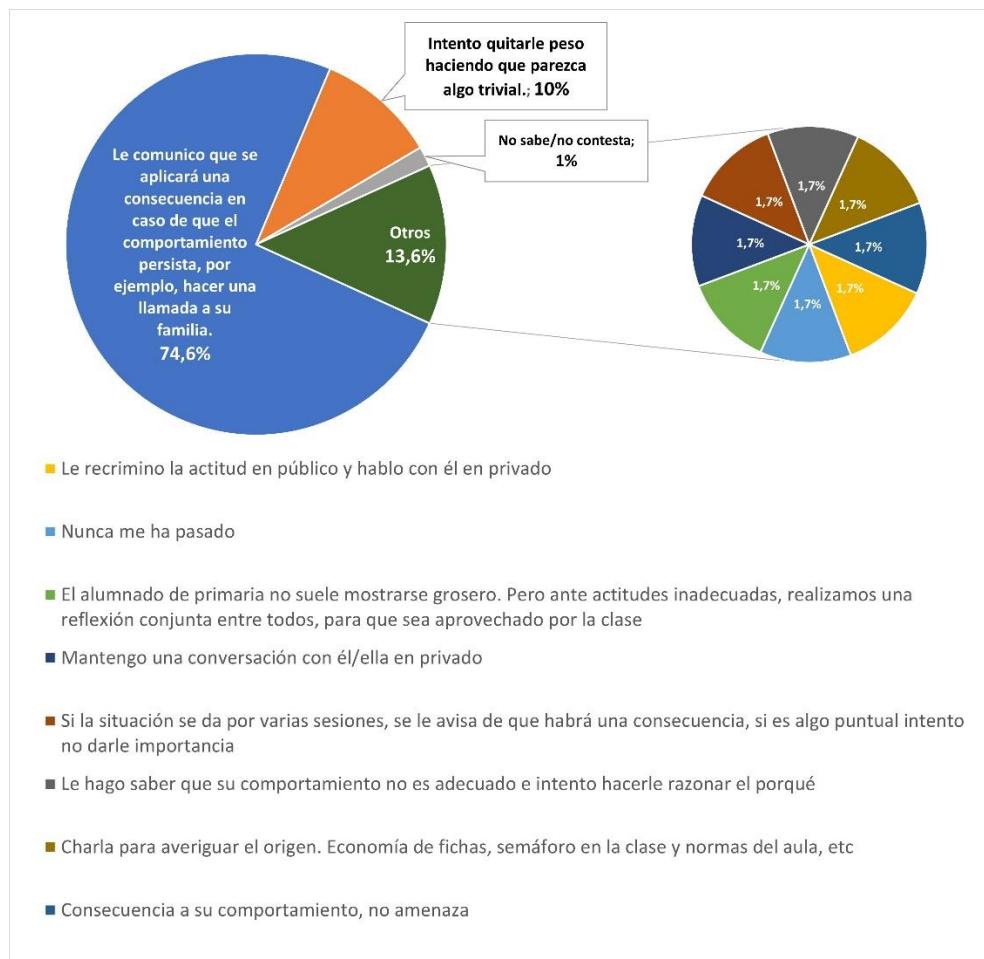


e) El alumno participa haciendo contribuciones provechosas. 57 respuestas

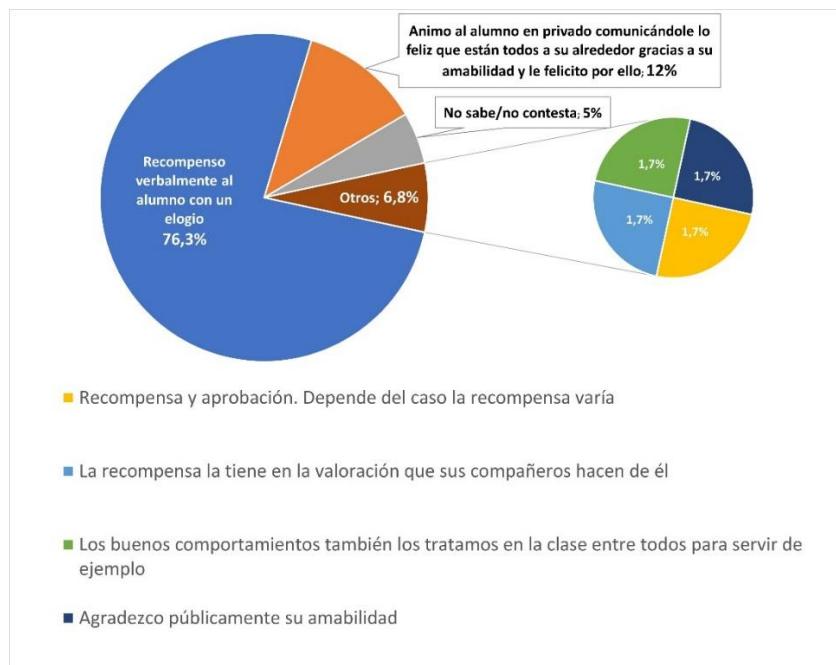


ACTITUD GENERAL Y HACIA EL DOCENTE

f) El alumno es impertinente y se muestra grosero. 59 respuestas



g) El alumno se muestra amable con todo el mundo. 59 respuestas

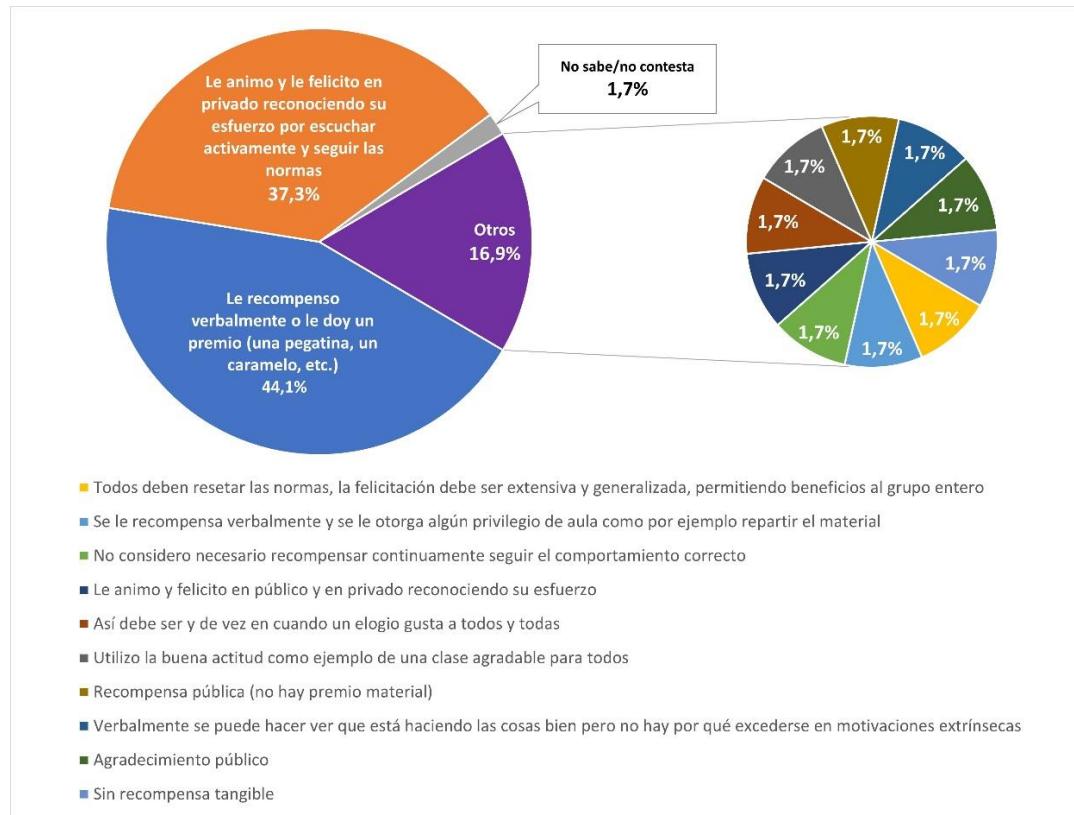




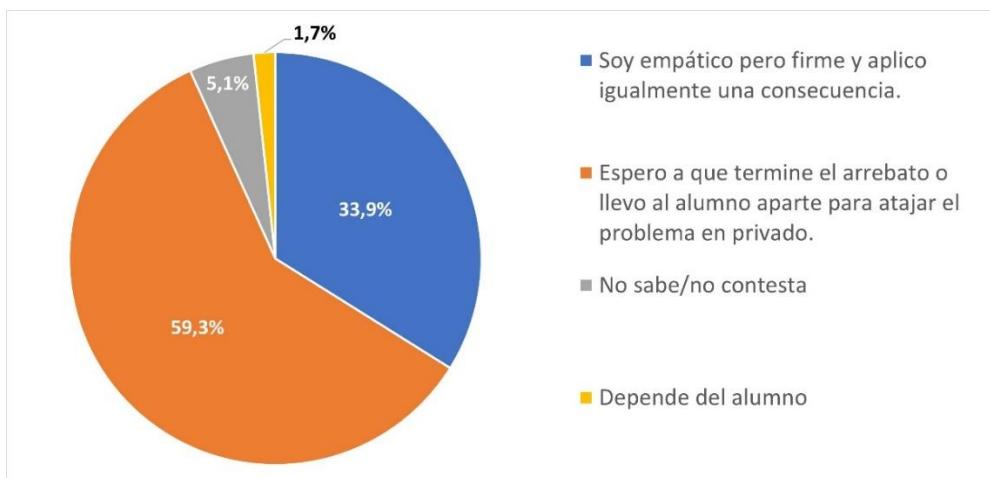
h) El alumno desobedece/se enfrenta al profesor o no respeta las normas. 59 respuestas



i) El alumno sigue las normas y las instrucciones dadas. 59 respuestas

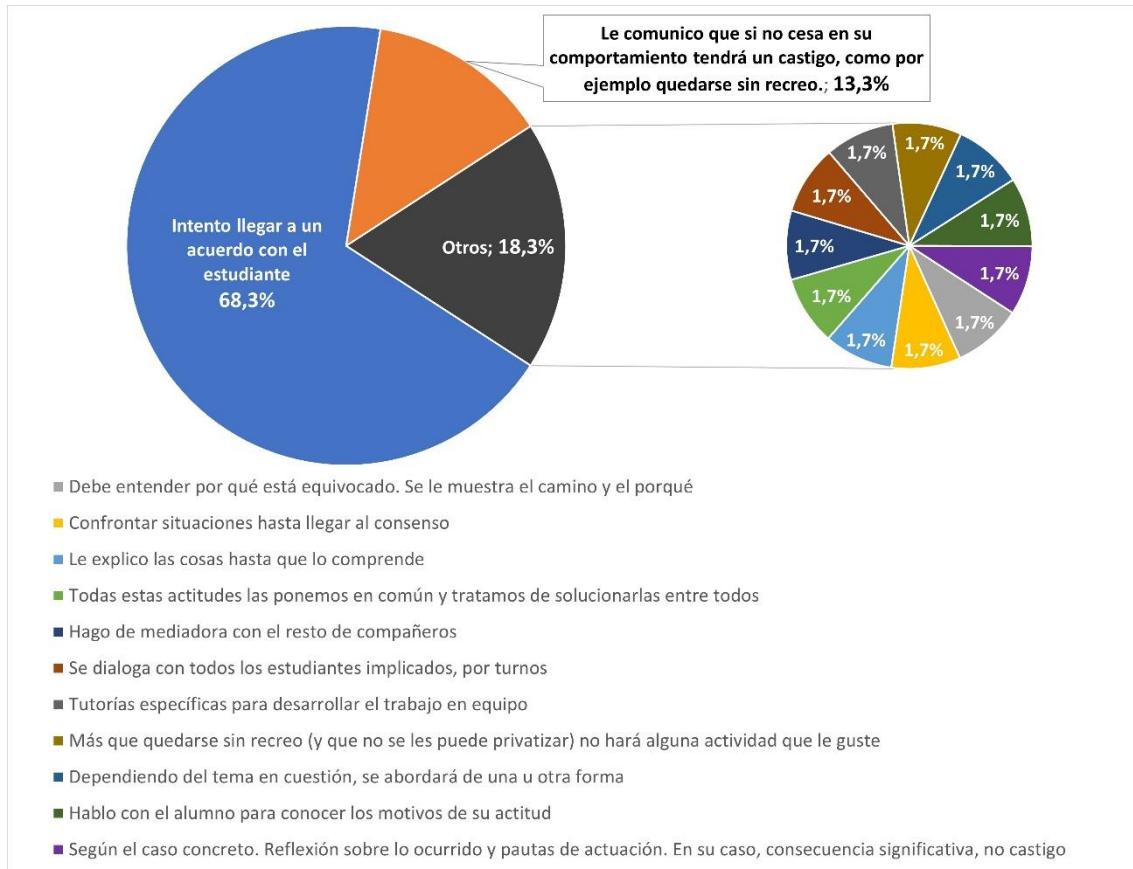


j) El alumno tiene rabietas. 59 respuestas

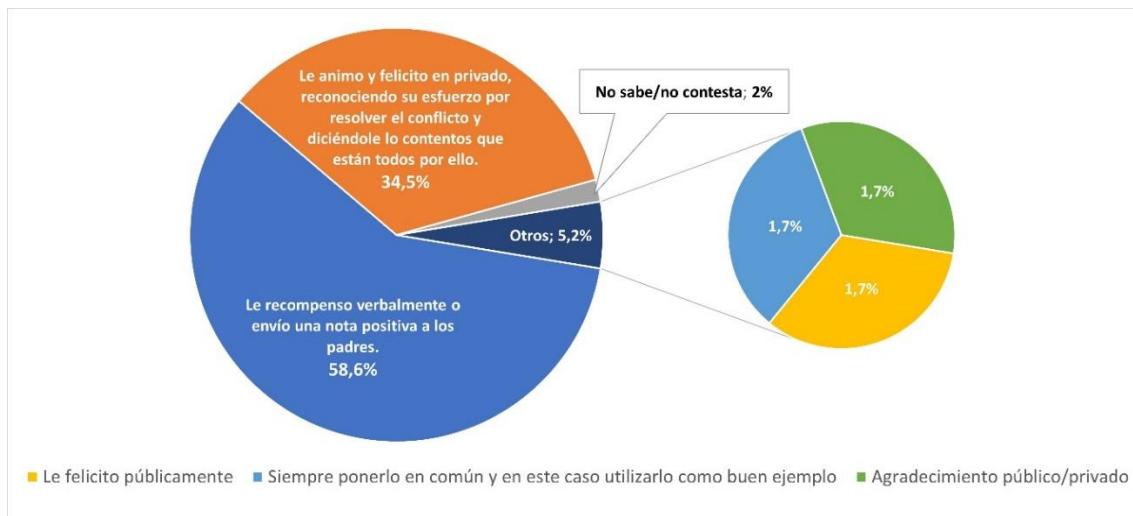


B. HABILIDADES SOCIALES

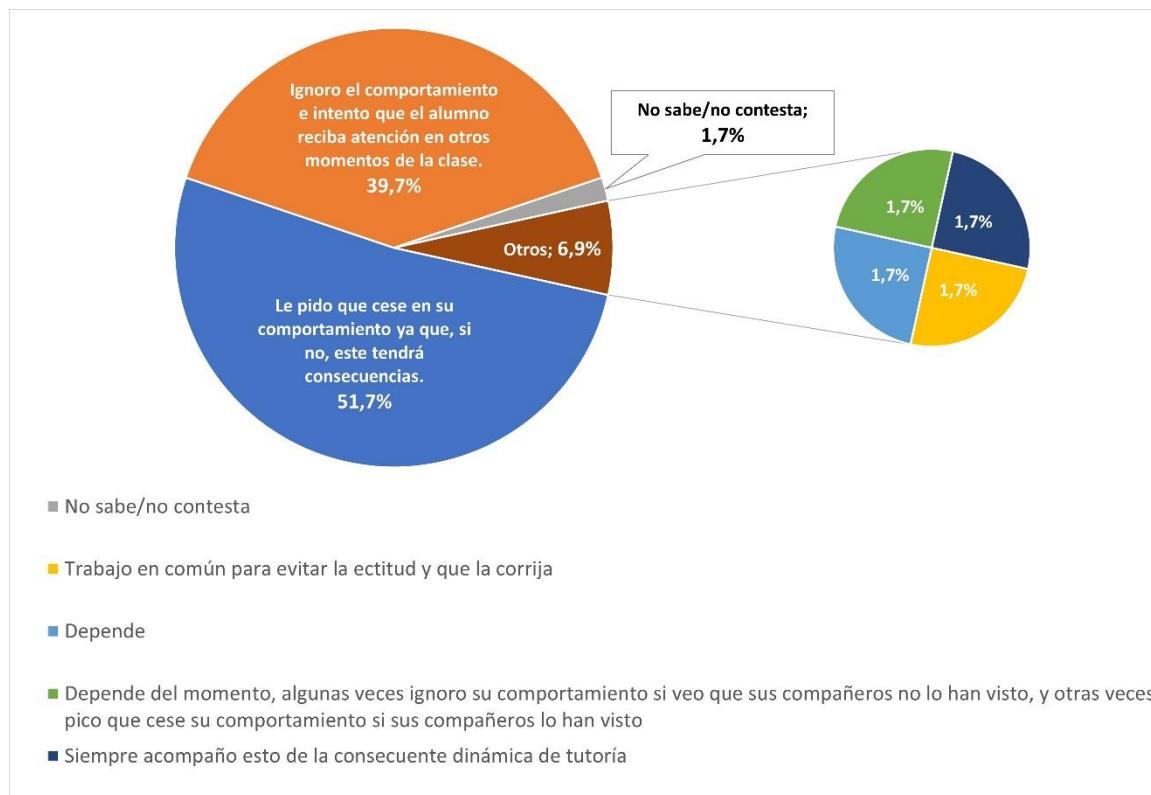
k) El alumno discute con sus compañeros y no da el brazo a torcer. 60 respuestas



l) El alumno es capaz de resolver conflictos de forma pacífica y constructiva. 58 respuestas



m) El alumno hace el payaso. 58 respuestas



n) El alumno se ofrece a ayudar a sus compañeros. 59 respuestas

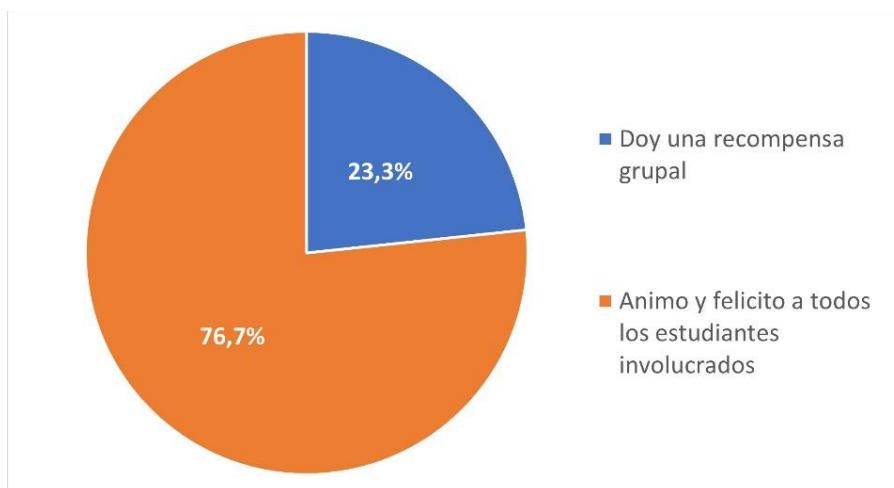


C. ACTITUDES GRUPALES

o) Hay un conflicto grupal en el que no se sabe quién lo empezó o quién es el responsable. 60 respuestas



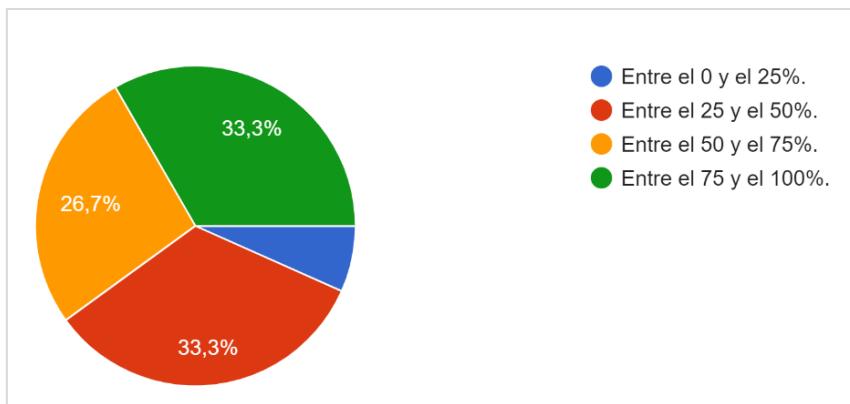
p) Un grupo de alumnos han resuelto un conflicto o logrado algo que se había establecido. 60 respuestas



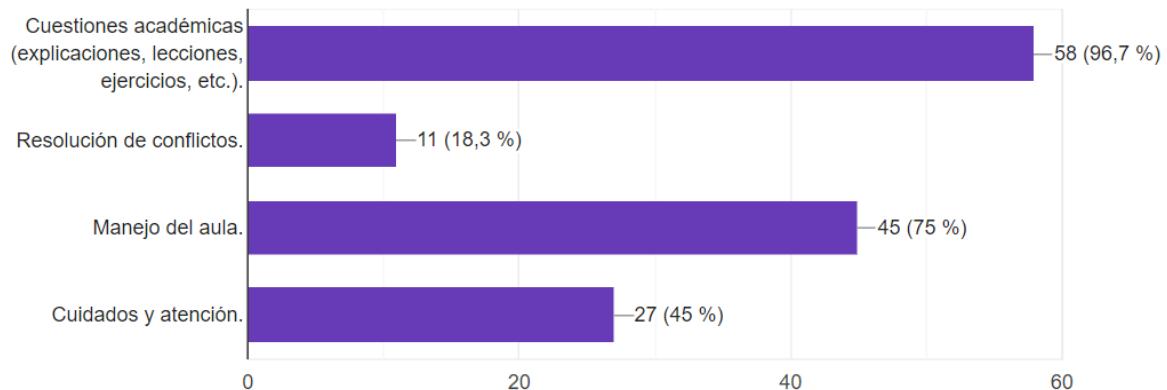


PREGUNTAS SOBRE EL USO DE LA SEGUNDA LENGUA EN EL AULA AICLE

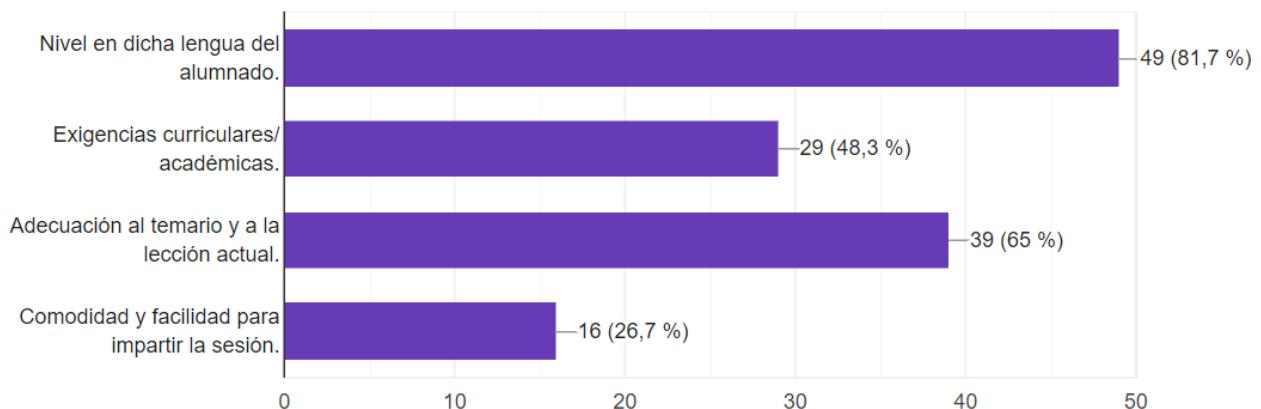
- A. Durante la sesión, el uso de la segunda lengua ocupa el siguiente porcentaje del tiempo total: 60 respuestas



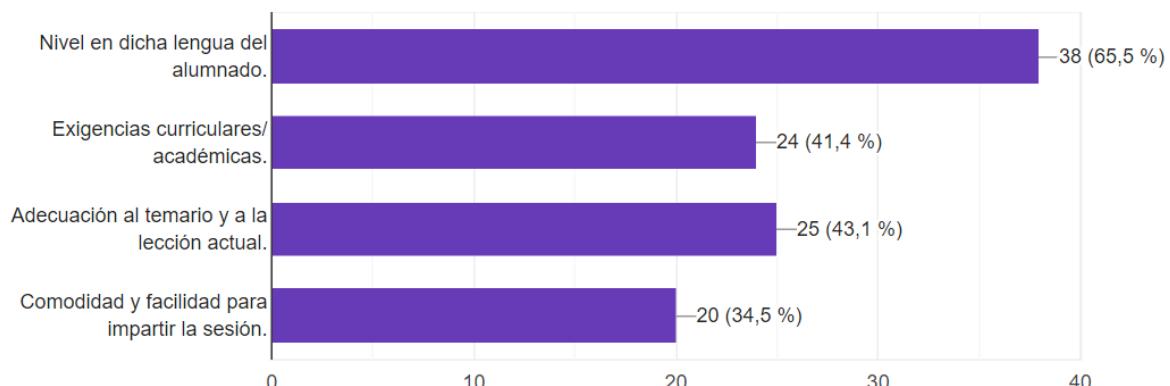
- B. Señale en qué situaciones se utiliza la segunda lengua (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas): 60 respuestas



- C. A la hora de escoger en qué situaciones se utiliza la SEGUNDA lengua, lo hago basándome en los siguientes criterios (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas): 60 respuestas



D. A la hora de escoger en qué situaciones se utiliza la LENGUA MATERNA, lo hago basándome en los siguientes criterios (marque todas las opciones que considere oportunas): 58 respuestas



E. En relación a las asignaturas impartidas exclusivamente en la lengua materna del alumnado, ¿cómo definiría su grado de dificultad en comparación con las asignaturas en segunda lengua? 59 respuestas

