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Nina Kristin Bürger

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1. Introduction

Having worked as a tutor teacher for many years, I have frequently experienced that being able to write constitutes a major challenge for a great number of foreign language students of any age. Moreover, not only students, but also foreign language teachers seem to frequently encounter problems when it comes to teaching L2 writing due to the complexity of this skill. Nevertheless, writing occupies an important role in the foreign language classroom as it is one of the four main language skills, and forms part of a great number of exams, such as the Austrian school-leaving exam, called 'Matura'. Besides its contribution to success in school, the ability to write is also essential at university and in the students' future workplace. Additionally, due to our highly globalized world, being able to write in English is certainly of great necessity at universities and workplaces, which clearly highlights the need of practicing this particular skill in the English language classroom.

However, as already pointed out, writing is a complex task that involves many skills and knowledges such as grammatical and lexical knowledge, planning and composing skills, as well as the ability to communicate ideas in a clear and concise way, etc. In a foreign language, especially the language component might constitute an issue for the target language learners. As one of the main principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning is to provide students with more language input to improve their language proficiency, it is assumed that CLIL instruction has a positive influence on students' L2 writing quality. Therefore, this thesis aims to explore to what extent CLIL instruction might impact on students' L2 writing competence by comparing the written products of two 8th grade classrooms, one of which received CLIL instruction, besides traditional EFL instruction. More precisely, the following questions guided this analysis:

- *To what extent does CLIL instruction play a role in the development of students' L2 writing competence?*
- *What kind of differences in L2 writing ability do CLIL and EFL students demonstrate?*

• *Which components of students' L2 writing ability are affected by CLIL instruction?*

The thesis is divided into four parts. The first part is concerned with Content and Language Integrated Learning, which is defined and learning theories on which CLIL is based upon are presented. Moreover, this chapter comments on the aims of CLIL and traces its development throughout Europe, as well as in Austria. Additionally, the influence of CLIL on language development in general, but particularly on students' writing ability, is discussed by comparing studies conducted by various researchers.

Chapter 3 then turns towards L2 writing. It starts with a definition of the term 'writing' and differentiates L2 writing from L1 writing. Furthermore, two common approaches to teaching L2 writing, which are product and process approaches, will be examined and compared in order to display advantages and disadvantages of each approach.

In Chapter 4 relevant background information for the study is presented. The development of the writing tasks and questionnaires are discussed and the method of analyzing is explained. The rating categories which were used to assess the students' writing products are then described in detail.

Afterwards, the study's core findings are presented and a connection to the research questions and relevant theoretical perspectives commented upon in Chapters 2 and 3 is established in the final part of this thesis. The conclusion finally sums up the most relevant issues found by means of this research study and possible conclusions are drawn.

2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

The following chapter will provide a theoretical overview of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). First, a definition of CLIL is provided followed by a discussion of CLIL's characteristics and benefits, which are then related to theoretical underpinnings. Subsequently, the development and present situation of CLIL in Europe, as a whole, and specifically in Austria will be reviewed. The final section will focus on the impact of CLIL on foreign language competences by comparing previously conducted research studies, which investigated the influence of CLIL on students' development of specific foreign language competences, will be compared.

2.1. What is CLIL?

2.1.1. Defining CLIL

First of all, in order to discuss the concept of Content and Language Integrated Learning a definition needs to be provided. Do Coyle, Philip Hood and David Marsh (2010) define CLIL as a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1). To put it differently, the subject content is taught through the medium of a language other than the students' native language. What seems particularly essential is the duality of this approach. The focus of CLIL is not only on learning and teaching the subject content, neither exclusively on learning and teaching the language, but both aspects are rather "interwoven" with each other (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010: 1). Moreover, they continue that "CLIL is not a new form of language education" or a "new form of subject education" but an "innovative fusion of both" (2010: 1). Hence, it can be argued that CLIL has two basic aims, which are teaching and learning the subject content while simultaneously fostering the students' target language competence. In other words, "in CLIL the learner's role as a foreign language learner and as a content subject learner

merge” (Wolff 2007: 19). This means that the subject matter is obtained together with its corresponding linguistic terminology (Wolff 2007: 19).

In order to conceptualize the integration of content and language learning in CLIL, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 41-42) refer to the 4Cs Conceptual Framework. This framework demonstrates the relationship that exists between the four main building blocks of CLIL which are content (subject matter), communication (language learning and using), cognition (learning and thinking process) and culture (developing intercultural awareness) (ibid 41), as illustrated in Figure 1.

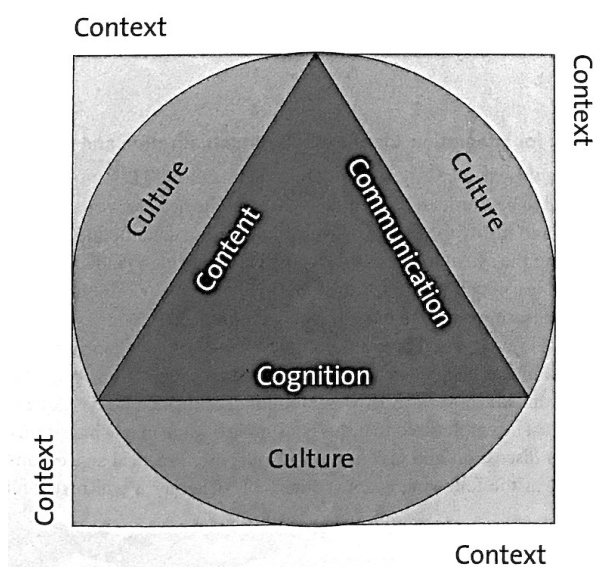


Figure 1: The 4Cs Conceptual Framework (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010: 41)

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 41-42) argue that the framework proposes that effective CLIL takes place through:

- progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the content;
- engagement in associated cognitive processing;
- interaction in the communicative context;
- development of appropriate language knowledge and skills;
- the acquisition of a deepening cultural awareness, which is in turn brought about by the positioning of self and ‘otherness’

Nikula *et al.* (2016: 1) also recognize the integrative aspect of CLIL and even expand the meaning of integration emphasizing that it is a complex issue that concerns not only the integration of language and content learning in CLIL but also many other factors, such as institutional, pedagogical or personal ones. As its name already implies, the integrative aspect plays a significant role in CLIL but Nikula *et al.* (2016: 2) point out that integration is involved in “all forms of education that have simultaneous content and language learning objectives”. Thus, an integrative approach to content and language learning means more than just teaching a subject content through a foreign language, it is “relevant for any teaching and learning, in any language (first, second or foreign/ additional)” (de Graaff 2016: XIV). That is, there are other crucial forms of ‘integration’ involved in CLIL, such as integration of teachers’ diverse expertise and identities or the integration of different discourses, processes and practices (Nikula *et al.* 2016: 4).

Nikula *et al.* (2016: 9) address this multidimensionality of integration by proposing a model that conceptualizes the multidimensionality by means of three perspectives on integration. The first perspective focuses on curriculum and pedagogy planning which involves decisions regarding “what will be integrated and how” (Nikula *et al.* 2016: 8). The second perspective concerns the participants’ beliefs and attitude towards the issue of integration in a content and language learning environment; and the third perspective puts its attention on the realization of integration of content and language learning in the classroom (Nikula *et al.* 2016: 8).

Considering the basic components of teaching and learning in CLIL programs, CLIL appears to be very similar to content-based instruction and immersion programs, which are common ways of bilingual education in North America (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit: 2010: 1). The latter in particular is regarded to be one of the most influential sources of CLIL. Therefore, contrasting CLIL to these bilingual education seems “critical if CLIL is to evolve and improve systematically and if CLIL educators are to benefit from the experiences and knowledge acquired in other educational settings” (Cenoz *et al.* 2014: 243).

Firstly, as previously mentioned, CLIL is not about using a second or official language. Immersion programs in North America and other parts of the world,

on the contrary, aim to enhance students' competences of their second language, which is spoken locally (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit 2010: 1; Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 370). Therefore, students involved in an immersion program usually have many possibilities to meet and use the language in communicative situations outside school, whereas CLIL students do not frequently encounter the foreign language in extracurricular activities, apart from the online world (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 370). Secondly, as opposed to content-based approaches, the content of CLIL lessons in Europe is based on the curriculum of the subject matter in question and "is not so much taken from everyday life or the general content of the target language culture" (Wolff 2007: 15-16; Dalton-Puffer, Smit, Nikula 2010: 2). As Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 2) further argue, language acquisition may be considered important but language goals remain implicit in European CLIL curriculums; and foreign languages continue to be taught as a subject on its own by language experts (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1-2).

Moreover, when it comes to differentiating between CLIL and immersion programs, Llinares, Morton and Whittaker (2010: 2) claim that the main differences between these approaches can be discovered by means of the following areas: "language of instruction, teachers, starting age, teaching materials, language objectives, inclusion of immigrant students and research". Similar to Llinares, Morton and Whittaker (2012), Cenoz *et al.* (2014: 248-254) suggest that immersion and CLIL programs mainly differ in terms of their goals, the participating students, the languages used, the balance between content and language, as well as further pedagogical issues. More precisely, students participating in immersion programs in Canada and North America usually aim for native-like proficiency and enhanced job prospects (Cenoz *et al.* 2014: 248), whereas many European CLIL students "cannot have such a far-reaching objective" (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 372).

Cenoz *et al.* (2014: 249), however, point out that the participating students' language goals cannot always be regarded as a distinguishing aspect between CLIL and immersion programs as these programs usually have different objectives. Whereas CLIL programs in countries such as Sweden and the Netherlands mostly aim for a high language competence, some immersion

programs do not expect the participating students to achieve language competences related to those of native speakers (Cenoz et al. 2014: 249).

As for languages used in CLIL programs, Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010: 11) point out that the “additional language” could be any of the learners’ foreign languages, second languages, and even community languages. Dalton-Puffer (2011: 183), however, argues that CLIL programs in Europe, South America and Asia commonly employ foreign languages which are not ordinarily used in the wider society. Thus, CLIL does not regularly make use of second languages and the students encounter the target language almost exclusively at school (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183). For this reason, CLIL teachers are mostly non-native speakers of the target language as opposed to teachers of immersion programs, who teach one of their country’s official languages (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183; Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 371). Dalton-Puffer (ibid 2011: 183) further maintains that CLIL teachers are not even experts of the target language, but rather content experts. Further differences between CLIL and immersion programs could be found in the materials used or in the starting age of the students (Cenoz *et al* 2014: 253; Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 371-372).

As for differences regarding research of both programs, Cenoz *et al.* (2014: 258-259) argue that more critical research on CLIL is needed in the future. They claim that during the past years CLIL researcher have almost exclusively put their focus on English as a foreign language and at the same time neglected to put their attention to students’ success in non-language subjects. Moreover, they argue that there is a lack of CLIL research focusing on the integration of content and language learning, which, on the contrary, has been frequently investigated by research in immersion contexts. Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 215), however, criticize Cenoz *et al.* (2014) by pointing out that they have “a lack of awareness” of the fact that CLIL research not only acknowledged the influential role of findings related to immersion programs, but also “added new foci and carved a new research agenda in ways that have not been equally prominent in work on immersion” (Dalton-Puffer *et al.* 2014: 215). Furthermore, contrarily to Cenoz *et al.* (2014), they argue that CLIL

research of the last years especially put its focus on the integration of content and language learning and teaching in the CLIL classroom.

Lastly, to further elaborate on the definition of CLIL, it appears extremely important to mention the flexibility of the approach. Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit (2011: 2) describe CLIL as an umbrella term since there are various ways of implementing it. That is, CLIL can be practiced in many different ways depending on the specific educational policies of each country or even individual objectives of each educational institution. CLIL might be used in primary, secondary or tertiary school. Moreover, it can be practiced short term (i.e. only one subject or only a few weeks), as well as long term (i.e. entire school years or entire school careers). Another flexible aspect of CLIL is the intensity of target language use. Whereas some classrooms might solely discuss specific aspects in the target language, others exclusively apply the foreign language for communication in the content subject (Wolff 2007: 16-17; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit 2011: 2). This difference might exist due to the variations of educational systems among numerous countries practicing the approach, as well as among individual countries.

Despite the flexibility and variability of the approach, Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 215) suggested three basic characteristics of CLIL. First, CLIL instruction is mostly conducted in international lingua francae, which are English, French, Spanish and German in Europe, with a clear dominance of English. Moreover, CLIL does not replace the foreign language classroom but happens in addition to foreign language teaching. Lastly, CLIL “is timetabled as content lessons” (Dalton-Puffer *et al.* 2014: 215). That is, the lessons are taught by the specific content teachers and assessed with regard to content knowledge.

Hence, it has been demonstrated that there seems to be no clear-cut definition of CLIL as the approach is translated in multiple ways by different educational institutions. Nevertheless, its underlying aim, which is teaching and learning the subject content while fostering foreign language competences at the same time, remains the same across its multiple forms and adaptations.

2.1.2. Benefits of CLIL and their theoretical underpinnings

As already pointed out, CLIL has a twofold aim, which is to foster simultaneously students' foreign language competences and the specific subject's content knowledge. In the following, the influence of CLIL on students' content knowledge as well as on students' foreign language competences will be discussed. While the relationship between CLIL and content language will only briefly be addressed, the linguistic advantages of CLIL will be explained in detail and related to theoretical underpinnings due to its relevance to the present empirical study.

The fact that in CLIL classrooms a content subject is taught through a foreign language frequently causes concerns for parents. While a great number of parents want their children to enhance their foreign language skills, others worry that the students are not able to understand certain concepts of the subject's content in the foreign language (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 188). Wolff (2007: 21), also addresses such parental concerns regarding CLIL and content learning and eventually concludes that these concerns are "more or less unfounded". He argues that "content is processed more deeply by the learners when it is in a foreign language, whereas mother-tongue processing is more shallow and leads to more shallow language processing as well" (Wolff 2007: 21). Practically speaking, when learning certain concepts in a foreign language, students might look at these concepts more closely and approach them from various perspectives which certainly fosters deeper understanding.

Regarding foreign language learning in CLIL classrooms, one of the most substantial advantages of CLIL is that it offers 'natural' or 'authentic' conditions to use the foreign language in the classroom as opposed to traditional foreign language classes (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, Smit 2010: 6). This means that in CLIL classrooms students acquire language skills without explicit instructions. The input comes from the content of the respective content subject as one of the aim is to develop content knowledge, whereas in EFL classrooms only the aim of developing foreign language competence is present. Wolff (2007: 20) points out that "learners prefer to work with this kind of content because they

are able to identify with it". Consequently, when students are involved with the content at hand, motivation will certainly be increased.

It has also frequently been argued that in CLIL lessons the attention is put on meaning rather than on linguistic form in order to encourage the students to use the foreign language. CLIL teachers aim to reduce students' anxiety and increase their motivation to communicate in the target language (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 29). This is also highlighted by Dalton-Puffer & Smit (2007: 8) who point out that learning about a content subject "gives the use of the foreign language a purpose over and beyond learning the language itself". They further mention that "language and content integration represents more of an actual communicative event [...] than language teaching per se" (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 9). Thus, CLIL appears to be an intelligent realization of communicative language teaching which has been very influential and prominent in recent years when it comes to foreign language learning and teaching.

Wolff (2007: 22) further mentions that CLIL classes prepare students more efficiently for future work life than traditional language classrooms as the students get involved with specific registers of content subjects. Such academic language proficiency will certainly be of great importance in a globalized world.

In the following, the previously mentioned benefits of CLIL will be related to second language learning and acquisition theories. Thus, three language learning theories will be discussed at this point, which are Krashen's Monitor Model, Long's Interaction Hypothesis and Swain's Output Hypothesis. The selection is based on Dalton Puffer and Smit's (2007: 9-10) discussion of foreign language learning and acquisition theories which are linked to CLIL. These theories can also be regarded as fundamental theories when it comes to second language language learning and acquisition.

As mentioned above, CLIL classrooms offer an opportunity for 'naturalistic' language learning where students gain foreign language skills implicitly, without formal instruction. Hence, as Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007: 9) point out, these assumptions about CLIL correspond to Krashen's monitor model. This model, which is probably one of the most influential models when it comes

to second language learning and acquisition, consists of five hypotheses and was developed by Stephen Krashen in the late 1970s. Summarized, Krashen's model suggests that languages are best learned in a 'natural', subconscious way during meaningful conversations and through comprehensible input, in contrast to consciously learning the formal rules (Krashen 1983: 26-33). Such acquired language skills eventually lead to production, whereas the conscious learning of rules may occupy a monitoring function (being able to correct one's own or other's language production) (Krashen 1983: 30-32). Moreover, Krashen (1983: 37-38) stresses the importance of attitudinal variables when it comes to foreign language learning and proposes that the "best situations for language acquisition seem to be those which encourage lower anxiety levels" (Krashen 1983: 38). As pointed out above, in CLIL classrooms the focus is on meaning rather than linguistic form, thus, students' anxiety towards using the foreign language might be reduced.

Another theory which is relevant to foreign language learning in CLIL classrooms is Long's Interaction Hypothesis. Long (1996) agrees with Krashen's (1983) hypothesis regarding the importance of comprehensible input but he further emphasizes the need of interaction for foreign language learners in order to fully understand the input. He especially highlights the influential role of the learner's engagement in negotiating meaning. Students need to have opportunities to interact with other speakers in the target language in order to develop different ways of keeping conversations going. Long (1996: 452) argues that speakers employ specific devices in the negotiation process which are "repetitions, extensions, reformulations, rephrasings, expansions, and recasts". Especially in situations where one of the speakers is not a proficient speaker of the foreign language, students must "negotiate for meaning" which Long considers a prerequisite for language development (1996: 451f). Moreover, negative feedback might also be important for second language development according to Long (1996: 14). Errors might lead to conversation breakdowns and thus encourage students to work on their mistakes in order to avoid future misunderstandings or communication break downs. Consequently, feedback is certainly vital for students when it comes to developing foreign language competence.

Contrary to Krashen's input hypothesis, Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis emphasizes the influential role of a language learner's output in foreign language acquisition. Swain acknowledges the importance of input in foreign language acquisition but she does not consider it enough for students to develop foreign language competence (Swain 1995: 125-128). "[...] output pushes learners to process language more deeply (with more mental effort) than does input" and thus "learners can play more active, responsible roles" in their foreign language learning process (Swain 1995: 125). Swain proposes three functions of output in second language acquisition. First, she argues that output promotes 'noticing', which means that by producing the foreign language students might "notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say", which consequently supports them to recognize which aspects of the target language they still need to focus on (Swain 1995: 129-130). Another function of output is hypothesis testing as output frequently triggers feedback, which might encourage students to alter their output (Swain 1995: 130-131). Lastly, the third function of output is its metalinguistic function. As students "reflect upon their own target language use, their output [enables] them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge" (Swain 1995: 126).

To sum up, the discussion of L2 learning and acquisition theories has demonstrated in which ways these theoretical underpinnings correspond to foreign language learning in CLIL classrooms. The learning outcomes related to students' foreign language competence, however, will be discussed in Section 2.3.

2.2. Political implications of CLIL

2.2.1. CLIL in Europe

Education in a foreign language plays a vital role in meeting the requirements of today's increasingly globalized society. However, teaching in a language which is not a learner's first language, can be traced back to ancient times.

After the Romans conquered Greece, upper-class children in Rome learnt Greek in order to gain social and professional possibilities. Nowadays, the accessibility of education in a foreign language is not restricted to the upper class since it is offered in various forms across many different educational institutions throughout the world (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 2).

When it comes to Europe, before the 1970s, teaching a content subject in a foreign language was only possible for people living in a particular sociolinguistic context. That is, schools in which subjects were taught in foreign languages were only situated in linguistically distinct regions. Thereafter, in the 1970s and 1980s, bilingual education in Europe was intensely influenced by immersion teaching from North America and the United States. Although immersion programs produced favorable outcomes especially in Canada, they did not adequately fit European aims. Immersion teaching, nevertheless, acted as a role model for Europe in the promotion of further research in this area (Eurydice 2006: 7).

Finally, from the 1990s onwards, various forms of bilingual teaching were implemented in Europe's educational institutions due to the present globalization and its rising demands regarding effective language competence. Hüttner et al. (2013: 270) argue that from the beginning "the implementation of CLIL has been fuelled from two ends: high-level policy-making and grass-roots actions". In other words, parents and teachers were keen to foster foreign language education due to the requirements of today's internationally oriented economy. Their aim was to provide children with the best possible formation to be well prepared for competition in the contemporary global labor market. Moreover, as for the European Union

Within the context of high-level policy, the European Commission played a major role in promoting CLIL. They strongly recommended the approach in order to fulfill the EU's basic goal of "enabling citizens to communicate in two languages other than their mother tongue" (European Commission). As Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit (2010: 4) point out "a political union [...] featuring 23 official languages [...] has no choice but to be multilingual and language policy has a crucial role in implementing the EU's 'unity in diversity principle'."

As previously mentioned, CLIL is conducted in significantly differing ways in the individual member countries as there are no official regulations and only “few of the 17 national education systems in the European Union have actually responded with substantial management investments into CLIL implementation, teacher education and research” (Hüttner et al. 2013: 271). The Eurydice report of 2012 which investigated CLIL at schools in Europe, clearly illustrate these differences. Whereas in Malta, Luxembourg and some parts of Belgium CLIL could be found in all schools, in most of the other European countries CLIL was only offered in some schools. Turkey, Iceland and Greece, on the contrary, did not provide CLIL education at all back then (Eurydice 2012: 39). Regarding the current situation of CLIL provision in Europe, no recent data was available.

2.2.2. CLIL in Austria

Having defined the concept of CLIL and portrayed its political development in Europe, it is necessary to outline the situation of CLIL in Austria as the present empirical study was conducted in an Austrian school.

CLIL was introduced to Austrian schools in the 1990s in order to “encourage the use of foreign languages outside the language lessons” as well as “to raise intercultural awareness and develop motivation” (Eurydice 2005: 6). Moreover, there were increasing requests regarding the provision of schools for English-speaking children by parents who were employed in international organizations in Vienna. Consequently, the Vienna Bilingual School (VBS) concept was created, later followed by many other schools implementing CLIL.

Nevertheless, there currently seems to be a lack of regulations or guidelines in the Austrian curricula, and a surprising lack of information regarding CLIL in Austrian schools found on the website of the ministry of education. When addressing the implementation of language education in Austria, they mention the importance of CLIL on their website; however, there is no further explanation of the concept.

Von besonderem Interesse ist neben der Entwicklung der Bildungssprache Deutsch die Einbeziehung der Fremd- und Familiensprachen als Bildungssprachen, was insbesondere für den bilingualen Unterricht und für CLIL [...] in verschiedenen Sprachen gilt

The legal basis of CLIL in Austria is constituted by paragraph 17/3 of the Austrian “Schulunterrichtsgesetz” (BGB1. – Nr. 33/1997), which reads:

Darüber hinaus kann die Schulbehörde auf Antrag des Schulleiters die Verwendung einer lebenden Fremdsprache als Unterrichtssprache in einer öffentlichen Schule anordnen, wenn dies wegen der Zahl von fremdsprachigen Personen, die sich in Österreich aufhalten, oder zur besseren Ausbildung in Fremdsprachen zweckmäßig erscheint und dadurch die allgemeine Zugänglichkeit gemäß § 4 des Schulorganisationsgesetzes nicht beeinträchtigt wird. Diese Anordnung kann sich auch auf einzelne Module beziehen [...] (§17/3 SchUG, BGB1. Nr. 33/1997)

The law highlights the autonomy of Austrian schools regarding the implementation of CLIL programs. CLIL can be performed in individual classrooms, as well as in specific subjects as the law does not specify any regulations concerning CLIL. Moreover, it can be implemented in the form of individual lessons or be provided over a whole year. Hence, CLIL provision in Austria mainly depends on a school’s local interests and resources (Hüttner et al. 2013: 271). This is also highlighted by Gierlinger (2007: 80) who argues that due to the lack of regulations and guidelines, CLIL in Austria “is a voluntary enterprise driven mostly by individual teachers’ motivation”. More precisely, he (2007: 81) points out that the situation in Austria is characterized by little support for CLIL teachers regarding methodology, no extra money or increased status, little support from pedagogical authorities, and a lack of appropriate material. Thus, implementing CLIL instruction in Austria clearly implies greater efforts on the part of the teachers which might discourage school authorities from offering such programs.

With regard to teacher training, Austrian teachers do not need any specific qualifications, apart from their master’s degree, to teach a content subject by means of a foreign language. They do not even need to have any additional training in the foreign language. Therefore, CLIL is frequently provided by

teachers of the particular content subjects in which they are qualified. However, various teacher training colleges, as well as postgraduate programs frequently provide CLIL training in Austria (Abuja 2007: 19). As for universities, CLIL has received considerable attention recently, and the University of Vienna has been offering methodology courses focusing on CLIL education during the past years.

Moreover, the lack of regulations concerning CLIL may also explain the existence of a great variety of terms associated with the concept in Austria. The terminology contains EAA (Englisch als Arbeitssprache - English as a working language), EAC (English across the curriculum) and LAC or DLP (Language across the curriculum or Dual Language Programme).

EAA means “the use of English (or any other FL) in teaching situations ranging from short projects to bilingual education throughout the whole school year” (Abuja 2007: 15). In this approach, language is considered a tool which is applied to teach certain content. EAA aims to increase the students’ linguistic ability, to raise students’ motivation towards the language, to prepare them for their future and to enlarge their knowledge and communicative skills in the target language (Eurydice 2005: 3).

EAC is interpreted differently across the institutions involved. Some people believe that within this approach, English language skills are developed in several or all subjects, while for others EAC implies that “the idea of integrating the foreign language into content lessons is not just an individual strategy, but one adopted by schools as a whole in support of a cross-curricular approach to foreign language acquisition and intellectual networking” (Eurydice 2005: 3).

In LAC, foreign languages, mostly English, are used in project works in various content subjects. The official name of this program is Dual Language Programme, as suggested by the Stadtschulrat für Wien (Vienna Board of Education).

Furthermore, it is recommendable to distinguish between CLIL and similar programs and bilingual schooling in Austria, such as the Vienna Bilingual Schooling, for instance. In bilingual schooling, only 50% of the students are native speakers of German, whereas the remaining students are English

native speakers. As for the teachers in bilingual schools, students are taught according to the Austrian curriculum by German as well as English native speakers (Abuja 2007: 17). On the contrary, in CLIL and all the previously mentioned approaches, most of the students do not have English as their dominant language (Eurydice 2005: 4).

2.3. CLIL and its impact on students' foreign language competences¹

As previously discussed in section 2.1.2, one of the basic objectives of CLIL instruction is to improve students' foreign language competences by providing them with more opportunities to receive target language input as well as to produce the target language. Thus, the relationship between CLIL instruction and students' development of foreign language skills, including receptive (listening, reading), as well as productive (speaking, writing) ones, has been investigated by various researchers in recent years. Dalton-Puffer (2011: 186) argues that due to the "fact that CLIL students nearly always continue with their regular foreign language program alongside their CLIL content lessons [...] it is to be expected that their foreign language test scores surpass those of the mainstream learners." Moreover, as Dalton-Puffer (2011: 186) points out it is necessary to mention at this point that CLIL students are usually not compared to native speakers of the target language but to students of traditional foreign language classes, who attend the same school as the CLIL students. Whereas it has been shown by a great number of studies that CLIL certainly has a positive effect on students' general language competence, individual areas of language proficiency seem to be only affected to varying degrees or have not been investigated sufficiently yet. In the following I would like to name a number of corresponding studies and discuss their results. However, since the aim of the present thesis is to examine the impact of CLIL on students L2 written production, receptive skills, such as reading and

¹ Some parts of this chapter have been adapted from a literature review that I have written in a course at university

listening, as well as the productive skill speaking will not be addressed. The influence of CLIL instruction on writing skills, however, will be discussed in detail.

Lasagabaster (2008) and Zydatið (2007) investigated the effect of CLIL instruction on students' development of foreign language competences by conducting large scale studies. Lasagabaster (2008) examined foreign language competences of 198 secondary students in Spain through English tests corresponding to grammar, listening, speaking and writing. The results of the comparison between two CLIL groups and two non-CLIL groups indicated that the students enrolled in a CLIL program outperformed their non-CLIL peers considerably in all the language aspects measured. Regarding the writing part of Lasagabaster's study, the results revealed considerable advantages of CLIL students for all five dimensions of the writing competence which have been evaluated. These dimensions included content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics.

Likewise, Zydatið (2007) included a large number of samples in his study (180 secondary students). Eventually, he provided an even more complete view of the influence of CLIL on students' foreign language competence, including, besides grammatical, lexical and communicative competences, students' subject-matter literacy. The results of his study also proved the advantages of CLIL educational programs, as CLIL students showed a significantly higher language competence than did the non-CLIL groups. Moreover, the findings for the writing part of Zydatið's study (2007) also indicated positive effects of CLIL instruction. He concluded that CLIL students specifically outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts regarding lexicon, grammatical range and accuracy, as well as syntax (Zydatið 2007: 196-198).

Zydatið findings concurred with the results of Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer's (2010) research study, who also examined learners' L2 writing competence. Similar to Zydatið (2010), their results indicated inconsistencies among the rating categories. The data of Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer's (2010) investigation of students' L2 writing ability at two higher secondary technical colleges in Austria revealed that the CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in every category investigated. However, whereas certain

categories yielded clear differences between CLIL and EFL students' performances, other differences could not be regarded as significant (2010: 175-181). The results especially differed in the categories grammar and vocabulary as CLIL students demonstrated superior performances in these fields (2010: 179-181). Contrarily, no considerable differences between the CLIL group and their EFL peers were found in the categories organization and structure (2010: 177-178). Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer (2010: 182), however, point out that these skills were not well developed in both groups. Eventually, they (2010: 182) conclude that the advantages of CLIL students as opposed to their peers "result from their greater general language ability and also a greater awareness of the pragmatic demands of the task". As they did not find significant differences regarding students' textual competence, they argued that this can be ascribed to the fact that very little writing is practiced in Austrian classrooms.

Ruiz de Zarobe's study (2010) also indicated that CLIL students performed better than their EFL peers in written production tests, with significant differences in the categories vocabulary and language use, as well as spelling and punctuation (2010: 202). Nevertheless, her results showed that most of the scores of CLIL students were only slightly better than those of the non-CLIL students, which led her to conclude that the findings were not statistically significant in all of the scales (2010: 202). Especially with regard to some variables of the written performance, such as discourse function, style, coherence and cohesion, the results were not as positive as had been expected. This might be caused by the students' lack of written competence in their L1 (Ruiz de Zarobe 2010: 203). Moreover, Ruiz de Zarobe also included a longitudinal study. Her data suggested that under CLIL instruction the rate of second language acquisition is considerably faster since the participating CLIL students' results of the writing tests surpassed the results of EFL students some grades ahead (2010: 205). Consequently, she (2010: 207) argued that CLIL instruction is clearly "more useful than traditional language teaching in promoting proficiency in the foreign language."

The assumption that CLIL instruction might accelerate the foreign language acquisition process was further supported by Navés and Victori (2010), who

aimed to investigate whether CLIL students in lower grades might outperform their non-CLIL peers who were some grades ahead. They undertook two research studies in two primary and three secondary schools, focusing on the students' language proficiency in general, as well as on students' writing skills in particular. Finally, the findings confirmed their hypothesis that younger CLIL learners at lower grades might perform as well as those non-CLIL learners who were a few grades ahead as the results illustrated that CLIL students performed as good or even better than their non-CLIL counterparts who were some years of study ahead (2010: 47).

Merisuo-Storm and Soininen (2014) also investigated CLIL students' L2 writing skills but adopted a slightly different focus as compared to the studies previously mentioned. In their longitudinal study in Finland, they examined the influence of CLIL education on the development of student's literacy skills in their L1 during their first six years of school. While they did not observe any significant differences regarding the students' literacy skills at the end of the first grade, after two years of studying, the CLIL students' reading and writing skills were substantially better than the skills of the EFL group. (2014: 75). After six years of study, the differences between the two groups became even more obvious as the CLIL students had achieved considerably better spelling skills than had their non-CLIL colleagues (2014: 76). In addition, the results demonstrated that the CLIL students' attitudes towards reading and writing were more positive than were the attitudes of their EFL peers (2014: 77). Consequently, Merisuo-Storm & Soininen (2014: 78) conclude that CLIL learners pay more attention to foreign languages, as well as to their mother tongue. In addition, they argued that languages certainly "played a more important role in the lives of the students studying in the CLIL classes than for the students in the other classes" (Merisuo-Storm & Soininen 2014: 78).

Llinares and Whittaker (2010) made a comparison of the language used by CLIL students of history and that of students following the same syllabus in their first language. This comparative analysis indicated that both groups encountered several issues in the development of history genres; however, L1 students were shown to have a greater distinction between written and spoken registers. Moreover, their results showed that CLIL students tended to use

simpler, everyday lexis when using the L2 as opposed to L1 students who made use of various complex vocabulary such as abstract nouns (Llinares & Whittaker 2010: 139). At the same time, they found that CLIL students not only explained and reproduced events in their written production but also used argumentation, which was not found in the L1 students' texts. Thus, Llinares & Whittaker (2010: 140) argue that this might reflect that content is approached from a different perspective in CLIL classrooms and that CLIL classrooms certainly provide students with more opportunities to interact (2010: 141).

Finally, lexical knowledge could be considered as one of the central requirements of being able to communicate in a foreign language. Thus, it could be argued that students' lexical ability certainly has a great influence on their writing performances. A large number of researchers have examined CLIL students' receptive, as well as productive vocabulary knowledge to ascertain if CLIL instruction has a positive or negative impact on it. Consequently, various studies that considered the lexical dimension showed that CLIL students' receptive and productive lexicon exhibited a wider stylistic range and was applied more appropriately when compared to the lexicon of non-CLIL students (e.g. Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Jexenflieger & Dalton-Puffer, 2010; Zydatiņ, 2010).

However, some researchers argued that CLIL instruction might not be the primary cause of CLIL students' advantages with regard to lexical knowledge. The study by Admiraal et al. (2006) indicated that, while CLIL students showed a greater amount of receptive vocabulary from the beginning, the initial differences between CLIL and non-CLIL students' receptive lexicon remained stable instead of increasing. These results are in line with the findings of Olsson's (2015) study, which focused on students' productive vocabulary knowledge. The results of Olsson's longitudinal study showed that CLIL students also used a larger proportion of academic vocabulary when they began, but CLIL students' use of general academic vocabulary did not progress further than it did among non-CLIL students in terms of relative increase. Consequently, Olsson (2015: 56) argued that these initial differences could be expected due to the fact that CLIL is an option; therefore, students who chose to enroll in a CLIL program were shown to be both more proficient

in English, and to already have a more positive attitude towards English yet before starting to attend school. Moreover, with regard to the comparability of different studies concerned with CLIL instruction, it needs to be pointed out that transferring research findings uncritically from one context to another might be disadvantageous due to the flexibility of CLIL (Cenoz *et al.* 2014; Dalton-Puffer *et al.* 2014). That is, as the objectives of individual CLIL programs in different countries vary considerably, with some programs aiming for higher language outcomes than others, it can be presumed that students show different levels of performance. Consequently, when it comes to comparing results of research studies of different countries one needs to consider that they were carried out within a very specific context. However, Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 215) point out that “this problem is inherent in comparative educational research in general”.

To summarize, CLIL was found to be a diverse and flexible approach to teaching and learning. Although there seems to be no clear-cut definition of this concept due to its flexibility and its similarities to related teaching and learning concepts, such as immersion, its underlying aim of simultaneously fostering language and content competences remains the same across its diverse forms and adaptations. CLIL has been implemented in educational settings in a great number of European countries in the past years; therefore, it has received considerable attention by multiple researchers. With regard to the influence of CLIL instruction on students' L2 writing competences, various researchers found that CLIL students show significant advantages contrarily to their EFL counterparts. As this thesis also puts its attention on the impact of CLIL instruction on students' L2 writing performance, Chapter 3 will focus on various aspects of L2 writing.

3. L2 Writing

The following chapter will draw its attention to L2 writing and the aspects that are relevant to it. First, I will start defining the term 'writing' and exploring some reasons for writing in our society. Next, L2 writing will be distinguished from L1 writing and an examination of current approaches to L2 writing will be provided. Finally, important aspects of planning and administering a writing test will be addressed and prominent scoring methods will be described.

3.1. What is writing?

3.1.1. Defining writing

'Writing' is a common term which is part of the basic vocabulary in our daily life. Nevertheless, to further elaborate on this term, it seems relevant to first define the word by discussing various definitions and commenting on the need for writing in our society. Thus, two well-known dictionaries (*Oxford Dictionary and Cambridge Dictionary*) were consulted to ascertain how the term 'writing' can be defined:

According to the Oxford Dictionary, there are 5 meanings of the term. That is, writing is:

- an activity or skill
- a sequence of letters, words, or symbols marked on a surface
- handwriting
- the activity or occupation of composing text for publication
- written work, especially with regard to its style or quality

(<https://www.oxforddictionaries.com>, adapted)

Likewise, the Cambridge Dictionary provides 6 related meanings:

- a person's style of writing with a pen on paper that can be recognized as their own
- something that has been written or printed
- the written work, such as stories or poems, of one person or a group of people

- the activity of creating pieces of written work, such as stories, poems, or articles
 - the skill or activity of producing words on a surface
- (<http://dictionary.cambridge.org>)

Consequently, it becomes clear that the term involves various meanings which depend on the context in which it occurs. Even though these meanings differ slightly, they could still be regarded as similar or related to each other. Summarized, considering both dictionaries' definitions, the term 'writing' refers to the physical and cognitive activity of composing or to the actual product of this activity. Moreover, both dictionaries point out that writing is a 'skill'. This is especially relevant for the foreign language classroom, where writing is one of the four main skills that students need to develop besides reading, listening and speaking.

As already mentioned, the term 'writing' is part of our everyday vocabulary, which can be ascribed to the extensive need for writing in our society. Writing is needed more often on a daily basis than is generally realized. People are engaged in different forms of writing for working reasons, as well as for several other reasons unrelated to work, such as writing a letter, diaries, text messages or shopping lists (Grabe & Kaplan 1996: 3). With regard to foreign languages, Manchón (2013: 1) argues that "as a consequence of globalization, schools and society are also expected to promote multiliteracy development, that is, literacy in more than one language." Put differently, developing the ability to write is not only crucial for students in their native language, but also in foreign languages, if they are to be successful in their future lives. Moreover, developing writing skills "holds an important role in the development of [general] language skills" (Mourssi 2013: 734). Thus, in the foreign language classroom, great emphasis should be placed on the teaching of writing skills.

When it comes to reasons for writing, it seems impossible to classify what people write and why they write. Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 3) mention some function which include "writing to identify, to communicate, to call to action, to remember, to satisfy requirements, to introspect or to create, either in terms of recombining existing information or in terms of aesthetic form". Moreover, they differentiate between writing which involves composing and writing which does

not. As opposed to writing diary entries or shopping lists, composing means to combine and restructure single units into a cohesive and coherent text (Grabe & Kaplan 1996: 4).

Moreover, in order to further elaborate on the definition of 'writing', the issue of acquiring the writing competence will be discussed by distinguishing writing from speaking. As opposed to reading and listening, writing and speaking are both considered productive skills, which means that students are involved in producing language rather than just receiving it (Tribble 1996: 9). Nevertheless, despite sharing the characteristics of being productive skills, there are significant differences between oral and written language. Kress (2006: 33) argues that within various societies or cultures, different social roles and values are ascribed to speaking and writing. For example, in many societies written language is considered more important and trustworthy than spoken language (Malcolm 1999: 129). However, this does not apply for written language found on the internet.

Furthermore, when it comes to differentiating between writing and speaking, the lack of non-verbal signs in writing needs to be taken into consideration. That is, in spoken communication various non-verbal signs and paralinguistic features are applied to make meaning, such as facial expressions, physical gestures, rhythm of speech or pauses. As these aspects are significant to ensure comprehensibility and to keep conversations going, writers have to be careful to formulate their ideas to make up for this loss (Tribble 1996: 16).

Moreover, whereas people usually learn to speak a first language, many people are not able to read or write at all (Grabe & Kaplan 1996: 5; Tribble 1996: 11). "Writing abilities are not naturally acquired; they must be culturally [...] transmitted in every generation", which might happen within schools or other assisting environments (Grabe & Kaplan 1996: 6). The ability to write includes a great number of skills, which need to be practiced and learned adequately. These assumptions are especially relevant when it comes to foreign language writing. The fact that students need to develop various skills in order to be able to write in a foreign language might explain why writing is frequently classified as a complex competence. Students do not acquire necessary skills naturally; they rather need to develop them by putting much

effort into practice (Tribble 1996: 9). For this reason, students might need assistance in order to develop such composing skills in a foreign language (Grabe & Kaplan 1996: 6).

3.1.2. L1 writing vs L2 writing

Whereas the previous section was primarily concerned with writing in general, the following sections will focus on L2 writing, due to its relevance to the present thesis. First and foremost, when it comes to examining L2 writing it seems inevitable to begin with distinguishing it from L1 writing. L2 writing can be defined as “the study and teaching of writing done in a language other than one’s mother tongue” (Silva & Leki 2004: 5). Although it seems obvious that L2 writing entails other aspects than L1 writing considering the issues of second language development involved in the writing process, L2 writing did not receive any research interest in the past. It was rather a subordinate field of L1 writing and foreign language teachers or anyone interested in foreign language writing had to orientate themselves to instruction methods which were mainly based on research into L1 writing. In recent years, however, researchers (Hyland 2003; Silva 1997; Weirde 2002) have pointed out that L1 writing and L2 writing differ considerably. Thus, in the following, L2 writing will be differentiated from L1 writing to demonstrate differences which clearly emphasize the need of treating L2 writing as a separate field.

First of all, individual components which are involved in foreign language writing need to be addressed. Hyland (2003: 32) points out what competences L2 writers need to develop by referring to Canale and Swain’s (1980: 29ff) model of communicative competence. On the basis of this model, students need the following competences in order to be able to write in a foreign language:

- grammatical competence
- discourse competence
- sociolinguistic competence
- strategic competence

(Hyland 2003: 32)

More precisely, grammatical competence includes knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, as well as syntax. The second competence, which is discourse competence, means the ability to combine and organize forms and meanings to create a coherent as well as cohesive text in different genres. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the understanding of different contexts in which the text is written. In other terms, it includes the ability to use language appropriately with regard to a specific social context. By strategic competence it is meant that the writer is capable of keeping the communication going and avoiding communication breakdowns by compensating for his/her or the recipients lack of linguistic knowledge through the use of communicative strategies. With regard to writing, strategic competence thus refers to the writer's ability to establish a relationship with his/her reader(s) (Hyland 2003: 32).

Considering these skills and competences which are involved in being able to write, it seems clear that foreign language writing is usually regarded as more difficult and complex, as opposed to writing in the native language. Especially writers at the beginner level might encounter several issues when writing in the foreign language as individual competences, such as grammatical competences, might not be sufficiently developed. These competences are sometimes not even fully developed in one's native language but in contrast to the foreign language, they are certainly present to a higher degree. This is highlighted by Weigle (2002: 4) as she argues that when starting to write in their native language, the language that students use "builds upon linguistic resources that [they] already possess". On the contrary, this cannot be said for L2 writing as students usually develop certain skills and competences in the foreign language at the same time. That is, they start writing even though they do not hold a wide number of vocabulary and lack various grammatical structures. Whereas writing in the native language also involves the development of a specialized version of the L1, which differs considerably from spoken language (Weigle 2002: 4), students still have a greater repertoire of vocabulary and know most of the grammatical structures when they start composing texts.

Hyland (2003: 34) also argues that L2 writers encounter several difficulties in "adequately expressing themselves in English" due to their different

knowledge bases. While L1 writers usually start to write when they have already developed a lexicon of several thousand words, and are able to use the grammar of the native language intuitively, L2 writers frequently have to develop their L2 lexicon and L2 grammar rules simultaneously when they learn to write in the foreign language (Hyland 2003: 34). This twofold challenge which students need to master often has the effect that students encounter several issues when it comes to L2 writing and frequently complain about not being able to convey their ideas appropriately through the foreign language (Hyland 2003: 34).

Silva (1997: 217) points out that L2 writers' texts tend to be shorter, less effective and contain more errors. That is, L2 writers usually use "shorter words and less specific words and generally exhibit less lexical variety and sophistication" (Silva 1997: 216). L2 writers also frequently encounter problems regarding the structure and organization of texts in the foreign language. Another challenge for them seems to be argumentation since L2 writers' texts exhibit less defining, less exemplifying and less justification of claims (Silva 1997: 212).

Another essential point of differentiation between L1 and L2 writing is culture. Students' cultural background influences their way of thinking and shapes their background knowledge thus clearly has a significant influence on their writing performance (Hyland 2003: 36). Hyland (2003: 36) highlights the influential relationship between language and culture when he emphasizes that "our cultural values are reflected in and carried through language". These cultural differences which exist between L1 and L2 writers especially need to be considered by L2 teachers. They need to be careful not to assume that students already have background knowledge of specific text genres, for instance (Hyland 2003: 37).

Moreover, Weigle (2002: 5-6) argues that the individual goals for L2 writing vary considerably between L1 and L2 writers. Whereas virtually all children in countries that have a formal education system learn to write in their native language, L2 writing strongly depends on the situations in which people learn and use the foreign language (Weigle 2002: 3). Groups of foreign language learners and users can be differentiated by age, as learners may be children

or adults, by level of education, as well as by their first-language literacy. Hence, it can be argued that the “variety of backgrounds, experiences, needs and purposes for writing is mostly much greater for second-language writers than for native-language writers (Weigle 2002: 7).

To sum up, there are various differences between L1 and L2 writers which certainly need to be taken into consideration when it comes to teaching foreign language writing. Whereas research of L1 writing also offers insightful information for L2 writing, L2 writing is linguistically, rhetorically and culturally different from L1 writing and needs to be addressed as a discipline on its own in order to fully understand the factors that are involved in being able to write in a foreign language.

3.2. Teaching L2 writing

Having distinguished L2 writing from L1 writing, this section will examine two prominent approaches to L2 writing instruction which either focus on the final product or on the process of composing. As for the past, L2 writing was primarily considered a subordinated field of L1 writing and did not receive any considerable attention from researchers until the end of the 20th century (Silva & Leki 2004; Matsuda 2003). Thus, it has undoubtedly been influenced by the developments in the study and teaching of L1 writing, which is also emphasized by Silva & Leki (2004: 5) as they point out that the study of L2 writing “has evolved into an interdisciplinary field, drawing on work in composition studies in addition to work in applied linguistics”. Two approaches which had a significant influence on the development of L2 writing instruction and are still prominent methods to teach L2 writing in the present classroom are the product and the process approach. Consequently, these two approaches will be examined at this point by explaining their basic aims, exploring teacher roles, as well as commenting on their strengths and weaknesses

3.2.1. Product approaches towards L2 writing instruction

Text-oriented approaches to teaching L2 writing exclusively put their focus upon the final product, rather than on the activity of writing itself. They were already used during the 1970s and heavily influenced by the prevailing learning theories of this time, which were structuralism and behaviorism (Silva & Leki 2004: 5). Nevertheless, they are still frequently used in foreign language classrooms. Hyland (2016: 146) differentiates product approaches between those which view texts as objects and those which view them as discourse. By viewing texts as objects the attention is directed towards formal and grammatical features of students' texts. That is, according to this perspective, linguistic accuracy is the ultimate goal of writing, which entails the correct usage of vocabulary, grammar and cohesive devices, as well as the complete avoidance of errors (Hyland 2016: 147).

Similar to Hyland, Cumming (2001: 3) distinguishes between features of texts that are considered as indicators for 'good' writing according to a text-oriented perspective. Thus, he argues that at a micro-level, students have to show control in syntax and morphology, and be able to use a wide range of vocabulary accurately in their texts. At a macro-level, students also have to show the ability to use a great number of cohesive devices to structure their texts in a logical and reasonable way.

As for teaching techniques, text-oriented teaching methods common to L2 writing are gap filling, guided composition and substitution exercises, in which writing is not attached to a specific context or reason for writing (Hyland 2011: 22). Such controlled composition tasks can be regarded as "an offshoot of the audiolingual approach to language teaching" (Silva & Leki 2004: 5) since they share two of its central characteristics: language is considered as speech (from a structural linguistic perspective) and learning is regarded as habit formation (from the behaviorist perspective). Moreover, the product-oriented approach to teaching writing is regarded to be teacher-centered and detailed feedback is often disregarded in this approach (Mourssi 2013: 732). Put differently, the teacher is seen as an expert, who corrects errors and passes "knowledge on to novices following a prescribed view of texts" (Hyland 2016: 147) which

suggests that there is only one right way of writing a specific text genre. With regard to audience and writing purposes, these aspects are often ignored in the product approach and not regarded as important since the only purpose of writing is to practice language (Silva 1990: 12-13; Silva & Leki 2004: 5).

According to Hyland (2016: 146-147), the product approach to L2 writing instruction usually includes the following stages:

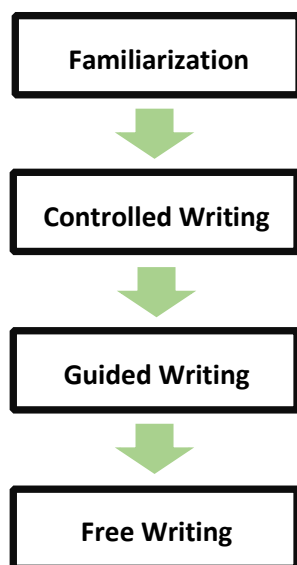


Figure 2: The four stages of the product approach towards L2 writing instruction (Hyland 2016: 146-147)

In the first stage, students are taught specific grammar or vocabulary in order to become familiarized with certain structures or words. They then get to write their own sentences, thus, “manipulate fixed patterns” (Hyland 2016: 147) with the help of substitution tables. The stage of guided writing requires the students to imitate texts or to write a description of an object or a picture. Finally, they get to use the patterns they have learnt during the first three stages to write a text, which could be an essay or a letter, for instance (Hyland 2016: 147).

Another perspective of the product-based approach is to focus on discourse, or put differently, on “functions students need in their writing and the genres they need to write” (Hyland 2016: 148). Hyland (2016: 148) suggests that the most influential approach among the multiple approaches to teaching writing

as discourse is genre-based pedagogy, which will be briefly discussed at this point. As opposed to viewing writing as a text, genre-based approaches put their emphasis especially on the context in which the text is written. This context is considered to determine the texts' characteristics; and consequently, has a great influence on the final written product. Raimes (1998: 151) argues that in terms of genre-based approaches "teachers and students examine not only the structure of a text, but also question its purpose and examine the text as one that occurs within a social situation". An important aspect in the genre-oriented writing classroom is thus the use of text models. That is, teachers discuss models of text with students to help them encounter typical rhetorical structures of the individual genres they need to produce (Hyland 2016: 148). As opposed to focusing on texts as objects, focusing on texts as discourse involves putting attention on contextual aspects, which are required by a text's genre. However, whereas the genre-based pedagogy's aim to focus on the social context in which a text is produced can clearly be regarded as beneficial, it has been criticized as "undervalue[ing] the skills needed to produce a text and see[ing] learners as largely passive" (Badger & White 2000: 157).

To sum up, text-oriented approaches to teaching L2 writing primarily focus on linguistic accuracy and lexical richness. Whereas some approaches completely ignore any contextual aspects, others focus on the contextual conventions that individual genres entail. However, the act of writing itself is totally neglected by text-oriented approaches, which has been highly criticized by various researchers. That is, the product approach focuses on the final written product and does not draw enough attention to the process of composing the product (Harmer 2005: 11). Hyland (2016: 148) argues that "focusing on accuracy is exactly the wrong place to look for writing competence, as there is little evidence to show that either syntactic complexity or grammatical accuracy are the best measures of good writing". More precisely, some students are able to produce grammatically accurate sentences but their texts are still inappropriate as they might lack coherence or do not fulfill any communicative purpose. Moreover, as the readers' differing backgrounds and beliefs certainly influence a text's interpretation, controlled

composition has been highly criticized due to the missing consideration of the written product's intended audience or purpose. Students cannot “produce a successful text without considering appropriate purpose, audience, tone, formality and so on”, (Hyland 2016: 148) which means that the mere knowledge of grammatical rules does not support students to write a correct text as they need to “apply this knowledge for particular purposes and genres” (Hyland 2016: 148).

3.2.2. Process approaches towards L2 writing instruction

The process approach is a writer-oriented approach to L2 writing which puts its main attention on the writer and the writing process, rather than on form. It emerged as a response to the rising dissatisfaction with previous approaches which merely focuses on the final product (Silva & Leki 2004: 6). The process approach considers writing a “complex, recursive, creative, exploratory, and generative process, wherein ideas are discovered and meaning [is] made” (Silva & Leki 2004: 6). This is also emphasized by Hyland (2016: 154) who argues that “personal creativity, cognitive process and the writer's immediate context” are involved in process approaches to L2 writing.

The basic principle of the process approach is to focus on the composing process, that is, the actual act of writing a text. Writing is viewed as the “result of employing strategies to manage the composing process” (Hedge 2000: 302), which involves a number of stages and activities that are grouped as cycles of planning, translating and reviewing by Graham and Sandmel (2011: 396). Planning involves the setting of goals, as well as the generation and organization of ideas and information. Translating means to put the plan into action by selecting appropriate language and composing a first draft. Finally, the stage of reviewing incorporates the reading and evaluating of the first draft, as well as editing and revising it to reach a final product.

Likewise, Hyland suggest the following model of a process-based writing instruction which describes the individual stages in greater detail:

- **Selection of topic** – by teacher and/ or students

- **Prewriting** – brainstorming, note taking, outlining, journal writing, etc.
- **Composing** – getting ideas down on paper
- **Response to draft** – teachers/peers respond to ideas, organization and style
- **Revising** – reorganizing, style, adjusting to readers, refining ideas
- **Response to revisions** – teachers/peers respond to ideas, organization and style
- **Proofreading and editing** – checking and correcting form, layout, evidence, etc.
- **Evaluation** – teacher evaluates progress
- **Publishing** – by class circulation, presentation, blog, noticeboard, website, etc.
- **Follow-up tasks** – to address weaknesses

(Hyland 2016: 156)

Hyland's model for process-based L2 writing instruction illustrates the complexity and the various stages that are involved in composing a final written product. Hence, the process approach views writing as consisting of more than one single step. The process of composing usually follows a clear organization where much planning and guidance is needed on the part of the teacher. More specifically, the teacher's role in such a classroom environment is to give students the possibility of finding ideas, multiple drafting, thoughtful revision, as well as to provide them with beneficial feedback on various occasions during the composition process (Raimes 1991: 410). Another task for the teacher is to encourage students to work collaboratively by supporting their peers and giving feedback to each other. Such collaboration, however, is only possible if the teacher creates a supportive and nonthreatening environment for writing (Graham & Sandmel 2011: 396). With regard to feedback, Hyland (2011: 20) argues that the response is a crucial aspect of the process approach that assists learners "to move through the stages of the writing process". Such responses could take the form of teacher-student conferences, peer feedback, audio-taped feedback or reformulation, for instance (Hyland 2011: 20). A further aim of the process approach is to encourage self-discovery, thus, teachers have to foster students' ability to express their opinions by including topics which students are interested in, and to which they can easily relate (Hyland 2016: 155).

Finally, process approaches to teaching L2 writing carry a great number of advantages. A crucial benefit is that the process approach supports students to develop multiple abilities and skills that are involved in the act of writing (Hedge 2000: 308). That is, as they go through the various stages of planning, drafting and revising their piece of writing, their attention is drawn to the actual process of writing, which encourages them to work on their strategies and might lead to cognitive development (Graham & Sandmel 2011: 397). Furthermore, by means of the process approach attention is paid to students' specific strengths and weaknesses. Put differently, teachers can provide beneficial feedback by addressing the individual needs of students which might lead to a greater quality of writing. Additionally, students' motivation is certainly increased due to the collaborative and nonthreatening working environment provided by the teacher.

On the contrary, there are also some disadvantages attached to the process approach. It is often criticized for devoting too little attention to basic skills such as sentence construction or spelling (Graham & Sandmel 2011: 397). Whereas the focus is put upon strategies to fulfill writing tasks, the process approach fails to incorporate sufficient teaching of grammar and vocabulary, for instance. Moreover, process-based approaches are particularly time-consuming. Teachers need to provide a great deal of time for feedback and the revision of drafts which seems unrealistic considering the constraints of school systems (Hedge 2000: 318). Another possible drawback is related to examination. Most exams are timed and students need to demonstrate their abilities within a short time. Thus, as Hedge (2000: 319) argues, process approaches frequently fail to address the reality as essays often have to be produced under time pressure.

Summing up, this brief discussion of product and process approaches to L2 writing instruction has demonstrated that each method has its strengths and weaknesses. In recent years though, due to the rising dissatisfaction with product approaches to L2 writing, process approaches have received much attention and have become increasingly popular (Matsuda 2003: 67). Nevertheless, as the ability to write in a second language involves multiple dimensions, teachers should incorporate the insights of both product and

process approaches to develop a methodology that corresponds to the specific needs of their students and by doing so ensure that their students will be able to develop appropriate writing skills and competences.

3.3. Assessment of L2 writing

Having commented on two prominent methods to teaching L2 writing, this section will continue focusing on various aspects involved in the assessment of students written products in a foreign language. The term assessment refers to a great number of ways used to gather information on a learner's ability or achievement. It comprises various practices, ranging from short essays to large-scale standardized tests. Thus, the understanding of the concept might differ for its diverse stakeholders. As this thesis aims to investigate differences regarding the writing competence of CLIL and EFL students, this section will focus on the aspects of L2 writing assessment that teachers need to consider. First, substantial issues of test design and administration will be discussed, such as establishing the purpose of the assessment, as well as validity and reliability issues. Subsequently, two prominent scoring procedures, which are holistic scoring and analytical scoring will be distinguished and explained.

3.3.1. Designing a writing test

When it comes to designing a writing test, teachers first need to define the overall purpose of the test by considering what it will be used for. Bachman and Palmer (1996: 17) argue that the usefulness of the test is the most substantial consideration in developing a language test. Hence, they established a model of test usefulness which should provide a basis for quality control during the test's development process. The model comprises six qualities which are reliability, construct validity, authenticity, instructiveness, impact and practicality. According to various researchers (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 19; Hyland 2003: 215), however, the most crucial qualities are reliability

and validity, which ensure that a test consistently measures what it is intended to measure.

Bachman & Palmer (1996: 19) define reliability as “consistency of measurement”. Put simply, a language test can be regarded as reliable if it is consistent across various dimensions of the test. If the same test is administered with the same students, or different students, at different times, the results should be fairly similar. Factors that might influence a test’s reliability might be the test takers themselves, the scoring process, the administration of the test and the test itself (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 27-28). The first factor that might have an influence on the test’s reliability is the test taker. Since writing is a complex activity, students might not be able to perform efficiently at all times. Issues might be caused by illnesses, anxiety, conditions of the day and the time of administering the test (Hyland 2003: 215). Hughes (2003: 44-50) suggests that reliability of tests can be achieved by including enough samples, not allowing test takers too much freedom, avoiding ambiguous items, providing clear and explicit instructions, as well as assuring that students are familiar with the tests’ format and testing techniques. The second factor of reliability is concerned with the rater and scoring of the test. A reliable test would yield the same results even though two or more raters were involved independently with the scoring process. Such reliability concerning the rating of the test can be achieved by carefully choosing and specifying an analytical scoring instrument, for instance (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 28). Further factors which might have an influence on the reliability of the test are test administration and the test itself. Thus, one needs to assure that non-distracting conditions are provided during the administration of the test, which means that light and temperature need to be checked and a quiet setting has to be maintained during the whole administration process (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 28). Lastly, the test itself might be designed in a way that it yields unreliable results. To avoid unreliability concerning test design, the tasks should be unambiguous and students need to be familiar with the test format and techniques. Moreover, teachers need to ensure that the students are able to fulfill the tasks within the time frame, otherwise students might become stressed, which would then

certainly influence student-related reliability (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 29).

The second important quality of a test is validity. Bachman and Palmer (1996: 21) argue that validity “pertains to the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretations that we make on the basis of test scores”. In other terms, a test can be considered valid if it assesses what it proposes to assess and only involves questions or tasks that ask for something that has been taught. Thus, a test’s validity ensures that the teacher is able to justify any interpretation he or she makes of the test scores (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 22). There are various types of validity which are criterion validity, content validity, consequential validity, face validity and construct validity. The objective of criterion validity is to measure the extent to which test results match those results of other tests with the same criterion. Content validity aims to assess whether a test’s content is relevant to the language skills and abilities with which it needs to be concerned (Hughes 2003: 26). Consequential validity refers to the consequences and impact of test scores on test takers and on future teaching whereas face validity measures the extent to which the test seems valid for the test takers. Finally, construct validity is concerned with the theoretical constructs which have been defined before the administration of a language test, and thus, refers to “the extent to which we can interpret a given test score as an indicator of the ability(ies), or construct(s), we want to measure” (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 21).

Another major principle of language tests is authenticity. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996: 23), authenticity is “the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a TLU [target language use] task”. That is, a test should not only assess students’ performance on the test but rather their language in domains other than language tests (Bachmann & Palmer 1996: 23). Brown & Abeywickrama (2010: 37) suggest that an authentic test applies language that is as natural as possible, includes contextualized items, as well as meaningful and relevant topics, and offers tasks that reflect what can be found outside the classroom.

Interactiveness is a further test quality which intends to measure a test's usefulness according to Bachman and Palmer (1996: 25). It refers to "the extent and type of involvement of the test taker's individual characteristics in accomplishing a test task" (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 25). These individual characteristics comprise students' language ability, topical knowledge, as well as affective schemata. Put differently, interactiveness means that a test engages these areas of students' language knowledge.

The fifth major quality of a language test is its impact on society or the educational system, as well as on individuals. An aspect of impact which is particularly essential for language tests is washback (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 29). Hughes (2003: 1) defines washback as "the effect of testing on teaching". That is, washback is the effect a test might have on students' future language development, which can either be positive or negative, whereas it could also refer to the effect a test has on future teaching practices.

The last quality of a language test is practicality. The term simply refers to administrative aspects that are involved in planning, administering and scoring a language test (Brown & Abeywickrama 2010: 26). Put differently, practicality means that the design and administration of a test does not exceed budgetary limits and does not need more human resources than available. Moreover, the language test stays within its time limit as it does not take too much time to design the test, administer it, and finally score it.

3.3.2. Approaches to scoring

Having discussed various issues concerning the development and administration of L2 writing tests, this section will briefly distinguish two possible approaches for scoring written products of foreign language students. Due to the fact that decisions and inferences regarding the future teaching and learning are often based on language test scores, scoring procedures need to be thoroughly selected and realized (Weigle 2002: 108). Thus, developing and designing an appropriate rating scale is of crucial importance for the validity of

the assessment and the rating scale definitely need to be in alignment with the purpose of the test or task (Weigle 2002: 108).

When it comes to determining an approach to scoring a writing test, the first issue addressed will be the type of rating scale used. It needs to be determined whether a single score will be used for a script or whether each script will be scored on various features (Weigle 2002: 109). These issues are addressed by two widely known scoring procedures which are holistic scoring and analytic scoring.

Holistic scoring means “assigning a single score to a script based on the overall impression of the script” (Weigle 2002: 112). In other terms, the objective of holistic scoring is to rate the proficiency of a writer according to an individual impression of the script’s quality. In this procedure, texts are usually read quickly and subsequently rated by means of a single scoring rubric. The advantages of holistic scoring methods are that their focus is put upon the writers’ strengths as opposed to their weaknesses (Hyland 2003: 227). This way of approaching written products might encourage students and their motivation could increase due to the positive feedback they would receive. However, there are various disadvantages related to holistic scoring methods. First of all, as already pointed out, holistic scoring solely involves a single score which means that raters are not able to focus on individual aspects of writing ability, such as organization or control of grammar and vocabulary. Thus, teachers do not receive sufficient diagnostic information, which they would need to provide beneficial feedback for the students (Weigle 2002: 115). Weigle (2002: 115) points out that this is especially an issue for foreign language writing since students often develop some aspects of writing in the foreign language earlier than others. That is, while some students might struggle with the organization of their writing, they may show excellent grammatical control. Furthermore, some problems might arise with regard to the test score’s reliability. Due to the orientation to one single scale, different raters might not arrive at the same score for the same writing sample, which is another disadvantage of holistic scoring (Hyland 2003: 227).

Another common method to grade students’ written products is analytical scoring. As opposed to holistic scoring, where a single rubric is used to

measure a text's quality, in analytical scoring the aim is to utilize various rubrics each of which addresses a different aspect of L2 writing ability. Thus, the rating scale might include aspects such as "content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar or mechanics" (Weigle 2002: 114). Consequently, by means of analytical scoring, the attention is put upon various components of writing ability, which ensures the provision of more detailed information about the students' competences as well as reliability of the test scores (Hughes 2003: 103). As mentioned earlier, especially for second language writers, such detailed information might be beneficial as they often develop different aspects of writing ability at a different time (Weigle 2002: 115). Teachers are encouraged to focus on each component of writing ability individually which helps them to provide more beneficial feedback to the students, telling them which aspects they still need to work on. As Hughes (2003: 102) argues, teachers are "compelled to consider aspects of performance which they might otherwise ignore", which could certainly be regarded of great advantages for second language learners. Disadvantages of analytical scoring methods are primarily related to practicality issues. Due to the fact that each individual aspect of writing ability is considered and teachers have to make more than one decision for each text, the scoring takes considerably more time, as opposed to scoring through other scoring methods, such as holistic scoring (Weigle 2002: 120). Moreover, putting attention onto the individual aspects might move concentration away from the overall effect of the text, which could also be regarded as disadvantageous (Hughes 2003: 103).

Finally, it can be concluded that each scoring method has its own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, it is eventually up to the teachers to decide which scoring method would be suitable to the individual needs of their students, as well as to ensure that they get the most appropriate and useful feedback on their writing performance.

4. Empirical Study

Having outlined the theoretical background of L2 writing and Content and Language Integrated Learning, the following chapter presents relevant background information on the empirical study and describes the analytical process. The study was conducted in an Austrian lower secondary school in order to ascertain differences regarding L2 writing between students attending traditional EFL classrooms and students who have additionally received CLIL instruction. The chapter begins with a general description of the study's aims, participating school and background information on the participants. The chapter then proceeds with a description of the design and administration of the writing tasks and questionnaires. Finally, the method of evaluating the students' written materials, as well as the data gained through the questionnaires, are presented.

4.1. General description of the empirical study

This section outlines the general aims of this thesis by presenting and commenting on the research questions. Subsequently, the school chosen, its bilingual program and the individual participants are described in detail, before the possible restrictions and limitations of the study are pointed out.

4.1.1. Research questions and aims of the study

The aim of this study is to ascertain whether CLIL instruction positively affects students' English writing competence in Austria. Frequently, foreign language students encounter problems when it comes to writing in a foreign language as the ability to write involves many subskills. Especially in a foreign language, writing often constitutes difficulties for students as they might not have developed certain subskills sufficiently, such as grammatical or lexical competence, for instance (see section 3.1.2.). However, writing, whether it be

in the native or foreign language, is an essential skill for students if they are to be successful in school, at university, and in the workplace. Moreover, in Austria, many exams, such as the school-leaving exam, called 'Matura' also include a writing section in English, which further emphasizes the importance of practicing this particular skill in the English language classroom.

One of the underlying aims of Content and Language Integrated Learning is to foster students' language competency by providing them with more language input, as opposed to the traditional system, where students usually do not need English outside the EFL classroom. Consequently, it could be argued that students enrolled in a CLIL program are more proficient in English than their EFL counterparts due to greater exposure to the foreign language. Such proficiency might create many advantages for CLIL students when it comes to the individual skills which they have to master in the foreign language. Hence, this thesis aims to investigate how far CLIL instruction might have a positive effect on students' L2 writing competence. More specifically, the following research questions are addressed in this study:

- *To what extent does CLIL instruction play a role in the development of students' L2 writing competence?*
- *What kind of differences in L2 writing ability do CLIL and EFL students demonstrate?*
- *Which components of students' L2 writing ability are affected by CLIL instruction?*

For this purpose, English writing performances of Austrian 8th grade students who are approximately 13 years old and, in addition to traditional EFL instruction, have received CLIL instruction in English for more than three years, are compared to the writing performances of EFL-only students. This comparison is performed by evaluating the students' written products by means of an analytical scoring method to ascertain which subskills of writing highlight the differences between both test groups. Moreover, the writing tests are supplemented by questionnaires to gather information on the participating students' background and to reveal whether the program

students are enrolled in has an influence on their language ability or their linguistic background and general interest in English.

4.1.2. The school

The study was conducted in an Austrian secondary school which is situated in a small town in Burgenland and has existed since 1845. From 1993 onwards, the school has offered CLIL instruction in English, in addition to traditional EFL classes (information obtained from the participating school's homepage). More precisely, students are offered the possibility to register for CLIL instruction either at the beginning of lower secondary (fifth grade; i.e. students of approximately 10 years of age), or at the beginning of upper secondary (ninth grade; i.e. students of approximately 15 years of age). Besides traditional EFL instruction, students enrolled in the school's bilingual program receive CLIL instruction in specific subjects. Whereas in lower secondary English is used in three subjects as a medium of instruction (history, biology, and geography), in upper secondary, chemistry and physics are also taught in English. Within the CLIL program, these subjects are either taught by English language teachers whose second subject is one of the respective subjects, or by English native speakers. The amount of time that English is used as a medium of instruction in these content subjects depends on the students' proficiency levels. That is, at the beginning of lower secondary (fifth grade) the content subjects are only partially taught in English due to the fact that primary schools in Austria do not usually offer English instruction. However, from the sixth grade onwards, the duration of using English in the lessons is gradually increased. Moreover, during the third grade, students enrolled in the CLIL program have to choose between French or Latin, which they learn as a second foreign language.

4.1.3. Description of the participants

Having briefly outlined the participating school's context and background, the participants of the empirical study need to be described in detail. In all, 52 students participated in the empirical study. 24 of these students received CLIL instruction, besides their regular EFL classes, while the remaining 28 students received merely traditional EFL instruction (see Table 1). All students attended the eighth grade (i.e. approximately 13 years of age) at the point of conducting the empirical study. As pointed out in section 2.3., Olsson (2015: 56) argues that differences in language competence between CLIL and students enrolled in mainstream programs could be expected due to the fact that CLIL instruction is an option. That is, students who chose to enroll in a CLIL program might have been more proficient in English before they started the program. To circumvent this issue, this study investigated lower secondary students' writing performance. As Austrian students do not usually receive any instruction in English before entering lower secondary school, it has been assumed that the participating students chose the CLIL program for other reasons, rather than being highly proficient in English. Moreover, the writing tasks were supplemented by questionnaires focusing on students' extracurricular contact with English, which aimed to indicate whether past experience with English was a determining factor for CLIL students to select the program. Table 1 provides basic background information on the participating students:

Grade	Program	Number of students	Gender
8	CLIL	24	13 females 11 males
8	EFL	28	11 females 17 males

Table 1: Detailed information about participants

As previously mentioned, 52 students participated in the research study, out of whom 24 students were enrolled in the CLIL program whereas the remaining 28 students obtained mainstream education in English. As for the gender of

the participants, there were 13 females and 11 males in the CLIL group, and 11 females and 17 males in the EFL group (see Table 1 above).

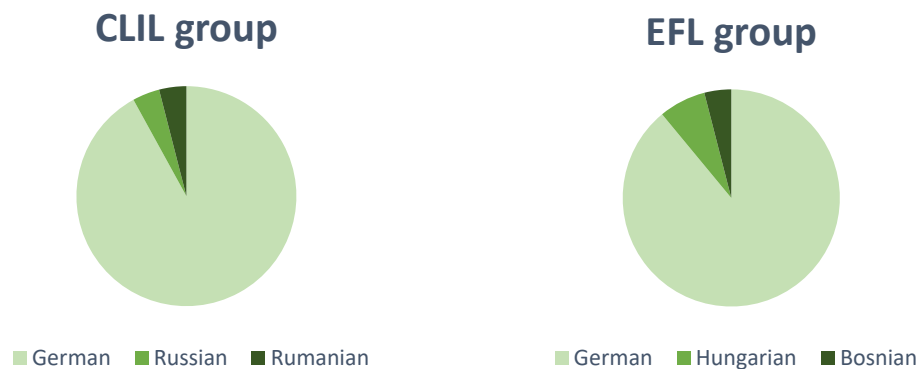


Figure 3: Native languages of the CLIL and EFL students

As can be observed in Figure 3, no significant range of native languages could be observed in either groups. The majority of the participating students have German as their native language. In the CLIL group, one student described Russian as his/her native language, and one student had Rumanian as his/her native language. In the EFL group, two students stated Hungarian as their native language and one student was of Bosnian background. The remaining students in both groups described German as their mother tongue.

When it comes to the students' languages spoken at home, the results were more varied. 5 out of 24 (21%) students enrolled in the CLIL program stated that they had been raised bilingually or even trilingually at home whereas only 3 out of 28 (11%) EFL students grew up with a second language. What is worth noting is that out of these 5 CLIL students who had grown up with a second language, 3 students described English as their second language. The remaining 2 students were raised in Italian, Romanian and English, as well as Hungarian, Russian and Ukrainian, respectively. Concerning the EFL group, 2 students described Hungarian as their second language next to German whereas one student was raised in Bosnian and German.

Consequently, since the data regarding the students' linguistic background revealed that the majority of students were raised in English or did not receive

any extracurricular instruction in English, it can cautiously be argued that these factors might not have any noteworthy influence on the final results of the students' writing performance.

4.1.4. Possible limitations of the study

Having described the participating schools' context and presented relevant background information on the participating students, restrictions and limitations of the study need to be pointed out at this point. Due to the limited scope of the project, only a relatively small amount of participants was possible. Thus, one single school was chosen to participate in the project in order to gather data in a quick and easy manner. However, due to these constraints imposed by the project's scope, the findings can certainly not be generalized. Moreover, when it comes to comparative research, results need to be treated with caution and one should not generalize them or uncritically compare them to similar research studies. Due to the fact that research studies are usually carried out within specific contexts, one needs to consider the individual conditions of each specific context. Put differently, CLIL programs in some countries might aim for higher language outcomes than others. Hence, to compare results with that of other studies, the results need to be considered in the specific contexts of the study.

As regards the distribution of students among the test groups, both groups included approximately the same number of students (24 students in the CLIL group, and 28 students in the EFL group). However, both groups have had different English teachers for the last three years, which might also have a considerable influence on the results of this study.

Moreover, one might argue that the comparison of CLIL and EFL students' writing performances does not prove that any advantages for a particular group are caused by the English instruction the students received. That is, differences could be caused by the fact that some students might have been raised bilingually, possess the aptitude to learn foreign languages more easily, or have received extracurricular instruction in English. Therefore, the study

was supplemented by questionnaires which aimed to reveal students' linguistic backgrounds and give insights whether students have been raised bilingually or received any extracurricular instruction in English, which might have had an effect on their writing results. However, due to the limited scope of this study, only a fairly small amount of information could be obtained through the questionnaires.

Finally, student-related reliability also needs to be addressed when it comes to the interpretation of the results. That is, the participating students' motivation, as well as their mood on the day the study was carried out might also have influenced the results of the writing task. Since the written performances were not graded by the students' teachers, some students might not have taken the task seriously enough. Even though I tried to prevent this issue by asking the teachers to encourage the students to perform efficiently, it can be assumed that some of the participating students still lacked sufficient motivation. Additionally, the students' mood and condition during the administration of the writing task also needs to be considered. Some students might have been tired or in a bad mood, which would have certainly effected the results in a negative way.

4.2. Test design and data collection

The following section provides a detailed explanation of the test design and material choice, as well as a description of the administration of the writing tasks and questionnaires. Hence, it will clarify the task chosen for the writing test and give information on the individual items of the questionnaire.

4.2.1. Design of the writing tasks

The writing task required the students to write an e-mail of between 100-150 words to a student from a partner school in England, telling him/her about their lives and school in Austria. More specifically, the students were asked to give

information about themselves, such as age, family, hobbies, describe their school and ask the English student about his/her life and school in England. The prompt consisted of a heading, a photograph and an explanation of the task.

As regards the choice of task, I originally prepared a different task. Since I planned to administrate the test in September, I wanted to ask the students to write about their vacations. My mentor teacher, however, pointed out that this might not be a topic which has recently been covered in class and that the students might lack fundamental vocabulary to complete the task, which would have had an influence on the result. Consequently, I chose to ask the students to write about their lives and school, which can certainly be regarded as a familiar topic for the participating students to which they are able to relate easily without any preparation in advance.

In order to find this topic, I consulted the students' textbook (i.e. *More 4*) and the Common European Framework to gain information on the students' required level, which is A2+. The A2 descriptor in the CEFR explains that students at A2 level are able to write "short, simple pieces of writing" such as "simple personal letters, postcards, messages, notes [and] forms" (Common European Framework of Reference 2010: 240). Concerning the topic choice, it is stated that students can "describe immediate needs, personal events, familiar places, hobbies, work, etc." (Common European Framework of Reference 2010: 240). As the task chosen for this empirical study asked students to write about their lives and school, it fulfills the standardized criteria of the CEFR and thus can certainly be regarded as appropriate for both CLIL and EFL students. Additionally, it was assumed that the students are familiar with writing an e-mail as they all have a subject dealing with information technology in the participating school.

4.2.2. Design of the questionnaires

The data gained from the writing task was supplemented by a questionnaire which aimed to reveal specific background information on the participating

students, such as their mother tongue, extracurricular use of English, self-assessment of their English writing competence and information on previous marks in English. Moreover, they were asked to indicate reasons for choosing the program in which they are enrolled. This section will describe the compilation procedure of the questionnaires and outline the purpose of each individual item. The way of evaluating the questions will be then discussed in more detail in section 4.3.2.

The questionnaires for both the CLIL and mainstream classes largely included the same questions except for the last one which dealt with reasons for choosing a particular program. As regards the language used for the questionnaires, the questions were all posed in German to make sure that the students were able to understand the questions and were not distracted by English words they might not know.

The aim of the first five questions was to gain relevant background information on the students, such as age, gender, mother tongue and extracurricular experiences with English. The students were asked to indicate in which situations and how often they use English outside the classroom. More precisely, they were asked whether they read English texts or media, listen to English music, watch English movies or TV programs, communicate with English friends or relatives, use English on various social media platforms, or use English to communicate while travelling.

Another central concern of the questionnaires was to ascertain how learners evaluate their own writing competence in English. Consequently, in the following 2 questions students had to evaluate their English writing performance by means of school marks ranging from 'very good' to 'insufficient'. The next question asked the students to indicate how often they encountered difficulties with specific areas that are linked to the writing ability, such as vocabulary, task comprehension, grammar, word count and content.

Finally, the objective of the last question was to ascertain reasons why students enrolled for the CLIL or EFL program, respectively. They were asked to tick corresponding answers which addressed possible factors for choosing a particular program, such as aptitude for languages, previous experiences

with English, parental desires or social reasons. Moreover, there was space for further reasons which were not listed in the questionnaires.

4.2.3. Administration of the empirical study

Before being able to administrate the writing task and questionnaires at the participating school, I had to consider a number of ethical and organizational matters. Having decided on a school and obtained the permission of the responsible headmistress to conduct my research project at this school, an outline of the project was sent to the provincial education authority in August 2016. One month later, the research project was approved by the authorities. The next step was to decide on the particular group of students to be chosen to participate in the research project.

As regards the compliance to ethical standards, information sheets were distributed to the parents of the participating students in advance. These information sheets were written in German to avoid misunderstandings (see appendix). They included a brief description of the research project, explained the aims of the study and ensured the parents that the data would only be used for the research project and remain anonymous. Furthermore, the parents were politely asked for their permission to let their children participate in the research project and they finally all approved the participation of their children.

The English teachers of both participating classes were also provided with information sheets, including a brief description of the study and research aims. In addition, as the headmistress suggested that I do not need to be present during the realization of the research study, I contacted one of the teachers personally to avoid possible problems during the execution of the study. Subsequently, sufficient copies were made and the writing task was stapled together with the questionnaires in order to prevent possible losses of data.

Finally, the data was then collected in October 2016 during an English lesson. As already mentioned, I was not present when the task was carried out by the

teachers. Nevertheless, one teacher contacted me right after conducting the study and informed me that the data was collected without complications.

4.3. Data analysis

This section will provide a detailed description of the evaluation and analysis of students' writing performance by describing the criteria used for evaluation and explaining how the individual aspects of writing ability were assessed. Subsequently, the method used to analyze the data gathered by means of the questionnaires will also be outlined in this section.

4.3.1. Assessment of the writing task

Having prepared a writing task and collected the data, an appropriate method for evaluating the students' written products needed to be developed. Since this research project aimed to investigate the students' general writing ability, as well as to find differences regarding the different subskills involved in writing, an analytical scoring procedure was deemed to be appropriate. Analytical scoring offers the possibility of evaluating various aspects of writing competence separately, which would make the comparison between both participating groups considerably easier and certainly provide more revealing insights (see section 3.3.2.).

The next step was to develop appropriate rating categories, which would cover the most important subskills of writing. As discussed in section 3.1.2., Hyland (2003: 32) points out the subskills writers need in order to be considered successful by referring to Canale and Swain's (1980) Communicative Competence Model. He suggests that in order to be able to write one needs grammatical competence (i.e. a knowledge of grammar or vocabulary), discourse competence (i.e. knowledge of text creation), sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Thus, the rating categories certainly needed to reflect these competences.

Finally, after having consulted various existing rating scales, the assessment scale of the E8 standardized test (Gassner et al. 2011) was chosen and slightly altered to fit the purpose of this research project. This scale was deemed appropriate as it was designed to evaluate writing products of 8th grade students. More precisely, the standardized assessment of English language skills in academic year 8 (E8) is a standardized test which aims to evaluate whether and to what extent Austrian students in academic year 8 have reached the corresponding competences in English according to their level, which is A2+/B1. The test is carried out by the “Bundesinstitut of Bildungsforschung, Innovation und Entwicklung des Österreichischen Schulwesens” and takes place in an annual schedule, whereas the assessment cycle includes Math, German and English. The last standardized test in English was conducted in 2013 in Austria, and the next one will be carried out in 2019. The English test comprises three parts which are listening, reading and writing. As for the administration and assessment of the E8 assessment, the test is carried out and evaluated by external teachers. Whereas listening and reading are analyzed by a computer, the writing performances are evaluated by qualified raters (https://www.bifie.at/system/files/dl/BIF_12%20Broschuere-E8-1802_web.pdf).

Back to the present research study, similar to the E8 standardized assessment, the assessment scale was comprised of four equally-weighted rubrics which are related to specific subskills of writing. That is, these categories focus on the following four key dimensions of writing ability: task achievement, coherence and cohesion, grammar, and vocabulary (see sections 4.3.1.1. – 4.3.1.4). The highest overall score would have been 28 points as the possible scores in each category ranged from 0 to 7 points (see appendix for a detailed description of the rating scale). In the evaluation process, the texts were read at least four times to consider each category individually and different colors were applied for the assessment of each category. To ensure rater-reliability (see section 3.3.1.), the assessment of the writing tasks was preceded by a piloting phase. More precisely, approximately 30% of the written products of both classrooms, were assessed by two further students of the English department in Vienna, one of whom is a qualified rater

of the E8 standardized assessment tests, to avoid potential problems regarding the reliability of the results. Subsequently, their assessment was compared to my assessment and potential inconsistencies were discussed. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that even though an analytical scoring method was applied and a piloting phase of assessment was conducted, a certain degree of subjectivity cannot be avoided when it comes to assessing written products.

In the following, the individual rating categories that have been used to evaluate the students' texts will be described in detail and any modifications will be explained.

4.3.1.1. Task achievement

The first category was task achievement. One issue addressed within this category was whether the content points listed in the prompt were mentioned in the students' texts and to what extent they were elaborated. Put differently, it was evaluated how many content points were addressed by the students in their writing and how far they were evaluated by means of extending their arguments or adding further ideas.

Moreover, this category concerned the extent to which a text was considered appropriate regarding text type, style and register. As the text type of the task was an e-mail written to a student of a partner school, the texts were expected to exhibit a more or less informal style. Besides register and style, further requirements of the text type such as salutation and closing phrases were addressed within this field. Thus, scripts which reflected serious register problems or used a wrong opening and/or closing formula, were downgraded. Another issue in assessing the scripts was whether the students accomplished the communicative purpose of the task, i.e. reflected the ability to enter into communication with their addressee, rather than solely write a text about themselves. Furthermore, text length was also addressed within this category, with longer texts not being punished and texts which were considerably below the requested number of words being downgraded.

Finally, to achieve band 7 within this category, students had to mention and elaborate all three content points, produce an appropriate text regarding register and style, meet the text's communicative purpose and reach the number of words given in the instructions (Gassner *et al.* 2011: 37-38).

4.3.1.2. Coherence and Cohesion

Some minor adaptations were made in the next scale which concerned the logical organization of the scripts. One of the first issues which was measured with this category was whether the scripts reflected a clear organization and progression of ideas and can consequently be regarded coherent. Coherence can be defined as an "aspect of comprehension that is established in the mind of the reader as a result of a perception or relatedness among a text's propositions and between the text and the knowledge that a reader possesses of the world" (McCagg 1990: 113). In other terms, a coherent text makes sense in the eyes of the reader and fulfills the reader's expectations, making it easy for him/her to follow the writer's argumentation. There is no need for the reader to reread certain parts as ideas are arranged logically and transitions are smooth (Gassner *et al.* 2011: 39). Within the task of the research study at hand, coherence could be achieved by the use of paragraphs, logical order and appropriate punctuation. Although the latter aspect was not part of the original scale, it was included in this analysis as appropriate punctuations can be regarded as an essential constituent of successful writing as it supports readers to follow the writer's argumentation by creating clarity and stress in the sentences.

Another aspect addressed with this category was cohesion, which is concerned with lexical and grammatical relationships within a text. Put simply, it is determined by the way in which phrases and sentences are linked within a text by means of cohesive devices. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) cohesion "refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text". Consequently, they argue that cohesion indicates to what extent the script can be regarded as well-connected and comprehensible, as opposed to texts that merely consist of loosely related sentences. There are a

number of ways through which cohesion can be established within a text. First, phrases and sentences can be connected by the use of linking words. Table 2 shows various linking devices which could be expected of writers at level A2+, according to Gassner *et al.* (2011: 39).

Addition	and, or, also
Time	when, after, before
Result	so, therefore
Contrast	on the one hand – on the other hand, although
Reason	because, as
Exemplification	for example
Sequence	first, then, next, finally

Table 2: Cohesive devices that could be expected from writers at level A2+

It needs to be pointed out, however, that the use of linking devices does not automatically presuppose that the text will be coherent. A text can be coherent even if only a limited number of linking words was used, whereas an over-emphasis on linking words would rather result in downgrading the text. Another way of establishing cohesion within a text is employing reference to something that has already been mentioned in the text. Such references could be made by the use of subordinate clauses, pronouns, definite articles, or comparatives.

The organization of paragraphs was a further issue addressed in this category. Whereas the content points mentioned in the instructions already suggested certain organization, it is eventually up to the writer how he/she arranges his/her text. When it comes to evaluating the students' use of paragraphs, it needs to be noted that due to the limited length of the text, it was not compulsory to use paragraphs but if students applied successful paragraphing to structure their ideas in a meaningful way, their texts were upgraded.

Summing up, to obtain the highest score in this field, a text had to be organized in a clear and logical manner and the writer had to establish meaningful links between ideas and paragraphs by the appropriate use of a wide range of linking devices or similar linking techniques (Gassner *et al.* 2011: 39-40).

4.3.1.3. Grammar

Regarding grammatical range, it was measured whether the scripts exhibited a great variety of grammatical forms (i.e. verb modifications, various tenses, comparative or superlative forms, etc.) and complex sentence structures (i.e. subordinate clauses, conditional or relative clauses, etc.). Moreover, the category also assessed whether the students were in control of grammatical structures, that is, applied grammar and structures accurately in their texts (i.e. tense, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions, etc.).

Nevertheless, within this research project grammatical “range overrule[d] accuracy” (Gassner *et al.* 2011: 41). That is, if students used a large range of complex grammatical structures, the possibility for mistakes was certainly higher than if they restrict themselves to simple structures. Consequently, if the students made an attempt to use a wide range of grammatical structures, including complex ones, minor mistakes that did not interfere with the meaning of a sentence did not result in downgrading. On the other hand, errors that impair the meaning of an utterance and interfered with the reader’s understanding of the text, caused downgrading of the script. Moreover, an exaggerated use of complex structures which would not fit to the requirements of the text type also led to scripts being downgraded.

Eventually, to achieve the highest score in this field, a text had to exhibit a fairly large variety of grammatical structures, which were applied in an accurate way. In this respect, minor inaccuracies that did not interfere with the comprehensibility of the script were tolerated, whereas deficiencies that had an influence on the comprehensibility of the text weighed more heavily (Gassner *et al.* 2011: 41-42).

4.3.1.4. Vocabulary

The last category was concerned with the assessment of lexical range and control. Strictly speaking, students' lexical choice, the range of vocabulary used, as well as students' control of using words in their texts, were evaluated within this field.

First, it was assessed whether students made use of a wide range of vocabulary in their performance. That is, students needed to show that they were able to describe their lives and school using appropriate vocabulary, without the need of repeating specific words. Moreover, texts that exhibited solely basic vocabulary were rated lower than texts that included words which could be regarded as more complex (i.e. *extracurricular activities, siblings, physical education, etc.*).

As for accuracy, it was assessed whether the words chosen were appropriate to the text type and topic, and whether the students were able to formulate their ideas in a meaningful and comprehensible way. Similar to the field of grammar, however, range was more important than accuracy. Students who used a wide range of vocabulary scored higher, despite minor inaccuracies, as opposed to students who restricted themselves to the use of easy and familiar words. Whereas spelling mistakes are often punished by downgrading, in this rating scale the treatment of spelling mistakes was a matter of meaning comprehension. That is, spelling mistakes did not weigh heavily if the meaning of the text was still comprehensible and the communication did not break down. On the contrary, those errors that disturbed the reader or interfered with the comprehensibility of the texts, were downgraded.

Finally, to obtain the maximum score in this category, students had to employ a wide range of words which were appropriate to the text type and topic and to show the ability to use them appropriately. Those mistakes that did not result in communication breakdown and did not distract the reader were tolerated, whereas errors that changed the meaning of a text or even made some passages incomprehensible, resulted in downgrading (Gassner et al. 2011: 43-44).

4.3.2. Statistical analysis of the data

Finally, the data obtained by means of the rating scales was analyzed with the help of SPSS software (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Given the fact that the data is represented in an ordinal scale (clear ordering of variables in terms of points corresponding to different proficiency levels), the Mann-Whitney test, which is a nonparametric test and works “on the principal of ranking the data” (Field 2009: 540), was considered appropriate to ascertain whether the results of the data can be considered statistically significant. The significance threshold (p-value) was set at $p < 0.05$. This means that if the p-value is below 0.05, there is a 95% probability that differences between CLIL and EFL students are not likely to be random (Field 2009: 540-549). However, although the p-value helps to determine the significance level of the results, it does not indicate the size of the effect observed. Therefore, the effect size (r) was also calculated by means of the following formula:

$$r = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Z is the z-score, which is produced by SPSS and N is the number of total participants (Field 2009: 550). The result is then compared to the following criterion for the effect size: an r of 0.1 represents a small effect size, 0.3 represents a medium effect size and 0.5 represents a large effect size.

As for inputting the data into SPSS, the data needed to be coded. That is, the code of 1 was used for the CLIL group and 2 for the EFL group. Having entered the data appropriately, SPSS provided the output, summarized in two tables.

	group	N	Mittlerer Rang	Rangsumme
total score	1	24	30,10	722,50
	2	28	23,41	655,50
	Gesamt	52		

Image 1: SPSS output/ table 1

The first table contained the ranking of the data, indicating the average and total ranks of each group. As the Mann-Whitney test ranks scores from lowest to highest, the outcome indicates that the group with the highest mean rank has the greater number of higher scores (Field 2009: 548) (see Image 1).

	total score
Mann-Whitney-U	249,500
Wilcoxon-W	655,500
Z	-1,593
Asymptotische Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,111

a. Gruppenvariable: group

Image 2: SPSS output/ table 2

The second table provided the value of the Mann Whitney U-statistic, the Wilcoxon's statistic, the z-score and the significance level of the test (p-value) (see Image 2). The results of the statistical testing will be provided in Section 5.1.

4.3.3. Analysis of the questionnaires

This section will briefly describe how the data which had been collected by means of the questionnaires was evaluated. The questionnaires consisted of 8 questions, including different response types, such as single choice, multiple choice or open-ended questions. To evaluate the data, the answers first had to be transferred manually from the questionnaires into Microsoft Excel by means of a specific coding system. This coding system, which had to be developed prior to entering the data, consisted in the assignment of numbers to each response item (Dörnyei 2003: 98). Examples 1 and 2 below illustrate how the coding system worked:

(1) *Do you speak English at home?*

Yes 1 No 2

When the responses already included numbers, these were used as codes, as can be observed in the following example:

(2) *How do you rate your competences in English?*

1 2 3 4 5

If a question was unanswered the cell in the spreadsheet was left blank. The same applied for questions where the students circled two responses and it could not be identified which response was selected. Concerning the analysis of open-ended questions, all responses were compiled and similar responses were categorized together (Dörnyei 2003: 99). These categories were then also assigned a numerical score. Image 1 below illustrates the spreadsheet used for entering the data into Microsoft Excel.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
1	Participant Number	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3	Question 4.1	Question 4.2	Question 4.3	Question 4.4	Question 4.5	Question 4.6	Question 5	Question 6.1	Question 6.2 Qu
2	1	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	1	2	2	4	3
3	2	2	1	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	3	2
4	3	2	2	1	1	3	3	3	1	2	2	1	1
5	4	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	4	4	2	2
6	5	2	2	1	1	4	2	1	1	2	3	2	1
7	6	3	2	1	1	3	2	1	3	4	3	2	2
8	7	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	1	1	1
9	8	3	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	4	3	1	2
10	9	3	2	1	1	4	3	2	3	4	3	3	1
11	10	2	2	1	1	4	3	2	2	3	2	1	1
12	11	2	2	1	2	4	2	1	2	2	3	2	1
13	12	4	1	2	2	4	4	2	3	3	3	3	2
14	13	2	1	1	2	4	2	1	2	2	3	2	2
15	14	2	1	1	2	4	2	1	2	3	3	2	2
16	15	2	1	1	2	4	3	1	1	4	3	1	2
17	16	2	2	1	2	4	4	2	4	4	1	1	1
18	17	3	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
19	18	2	2	1	3	4	2	2	4	4	1	1	1
20	19	2	2	1	2	4	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
21	20	2	2	1	2	4	3	2	4	4	2	2	1
22	21	2	1	1	2	4	2	2	3	3	2	2	2
23	22	2	1	1	2	4	2	3	2	4	3	3	1
24	23	3	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	2	2	2	2
25	24	2	1	1	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	2	1
26	25	2	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	2	2	1	4
27	26	2	1	3	3	4	4	2	2	3	3	2	1
28	27	2	2	1	2	4	3	1	1	3	3	2	1
29	28	3	2	1	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	1	1
30													

Image 3: Spreadsheet in MS Excel

Having transferred the data into the spreadsheet (see Image 3) various calculations had to be carried out in order to obtain comparable results for each question. As a first step, the frequency of occurrence of each individual response item was determined by means of an Excel formula. The outcome

was then divided by the total number of students in the respective group (i.e. 24 CLIL students, 28 EFL students) which yielded the respective percentages. The results could thus be expressed as percentages or in absolute numbers. Finally, by means of these results, the data could be presented in tables or diagrams to point out differences between both test groups.

Questions 1-3 asked the students about their age, gender and native languages. The responses of the first two questions were assigned a numerical code. As for the open-ended question about the students' native language, the languages stated were categorized and eventually also assigned a numerical code. For the analysis of question 4, which was a single-choice question, the numbers 1 to 4 were ascribed to the four different options of the sub-questions: 'never' was 1, 'sometimes' was 2, 'often' was 3, and 'always' was 4. The following question (5) asked the students to self-evaluate their English writing competences according to Austrian school grades, ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 being the best grade and 5 the worst grade. Thus, there was no further need of coding, as these grades are already stated in numbers. Question 6 was a single choice question and asked the students to state how often they encounter problems in various key components of writing ability. As in question 4 above, the sub-questions of question 6 were coded by assigning the numbers 1 to 4. Question 7 asked the students about their most recent mark in English, whereby again no further coding was necessary as the Austrian school grades already provided a numerical response. The final question (8) was a multiple-choice question and needed to be coded in a slightly different way. The question was compiled from 9 sub-questions, as well as one open-ended question. The data was then processed as though each response option would be a separated yes/no question. Thus, a column was created for each individual answer, whereas number 1 accounted for a response item marked with a cross and number 2 for a response item which was not marked. Finally, the last question, which was an open-ended question, asking for further reasons for choosing a particular program, was analyzed qualitatively.

In summary, this section provided significant background information on the participating school in general and on the participating students in particular,

and presented the general aims of this empirical study. Moreover, the design of the writing task and questionnaires was explained and the way of assessing the data was described. Finally, the following section will present the results discovered by this research study.

5. Findings of the data

Having discussed various background information on the participating school and students, and commented on the scoring procedure of students' texts, as well as the evaluation of the questionnaires, the following chapter will present the results and data gained from this empirical study. First, the results of students' written productions will be reported by discussing the outcomes of each rating category and finally the findings of the questionnaires will be analyzed.

5.1. Findings of students' written production

First of all, the overall results of the students' written productions will be discussed. As already pointed out, the CLIL group consisted of 24 students, whereas the EFL group contained 28 students. As seen in Table 3, CLIL students obtained a total of 483 points out of a possible 672, which accounts for 72% of the overall score. EFL students, on the other hand, achieved a total score of 513 out of the possible 784, 66% of the overall score. While the overall mean score of CLIL students was 20.13 (SD=3.83), the overall mean score of EFL students was slightly smaller with 18.32 (SD=4.27). The variance was 14.64 for CLIL students and 18.32 for EFL students. Furthermore, the lowest scores were 12 points for CLIL students and 10 points for EFL students, while the highest scores were 28 points for CLIL students and 26 points for EFL students.

	CLIL group	EFL group
Total number of points	483	513
Percentage	72%	66%
Mean	20.13	18.32
Standard Deviation	3.83	4.27
Variance	14.64	18.23
Minimum Score	12	10
Maximum Score	28	26

Table 3: Overall results of students' written productions

As for the overall results of the individual categories investigated, similar trends could be observed. Table 4 shows the findings of each category by providing an overview of the scores achieved by each group and the results of the descriptive statistical analysis:

	Task Achievement		Coherence & Cohesion		Grammar		Vocabulary	
Total number of points	115	129	123	139	123	120	122	125
Percentage	68%	66%	73%	71%	73%	61%	73%	64%
Mean	4.79	4.61	5.13	4.96	5.13	4.29	5.08	4.46
Standard Deviation	1.47	1.52	0.95	1.14	1.33	1.18	1.10	1.11
Variance	2.17	2.32	0.90	1.29	1.77	1.40	1.21	1.22
Minimum Score	3.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.00
Maximum Score	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	6.00	7.00	6.00

Table 4: Overall results of CLIL and EFL students in each category measured

As seen in Table 4, the overall findings suggest that CLIL students achieved better results in each category investigated. Overall the highest results in the CLIL group were reached in the fields of grammar, as well as coherence and cohesion, with an average score of 5.13 (SD/grammar=1.33; SD/coherence & cohesion=0.95) in each category, whereas the lowest results were achieved in the category task achievement, with a mean score of 4.79 (SD=1.47). On the contrary, in the EFL group, the highest level of performance was achieved in the category coherence and cohesion, with a mean score of 4.96 (SD=1.14), whereas the lowest results were reached in the field of grammar, with an average score of 4.29 (SD=1.18). While there are no considerable differences between the groups in the categories task achievement and coherence and cohesion, the results of the categories referring to grammar and vocabulary represent quite obvious differences, suggesting that CLIL students outperformed EFL students. The biggest difference between CLIL and EFL students could be found in the grammar category, with a mean difference of 0.84 points.

Based on these outcomes, one might assume that CLIL students clearly outperformed EFL students with regard to nearly all the categories investigated. Nevertheless, it is not legitimate to make such claims on the sole basis of data obtained by means of descriptive statistics. That is, the differences between the groups might occur due to unusually low or high scores of individual students. Consequently, the Mann-Whitney test was applied to indicate if there is a significant difference between the results of CLIL and EFL students.

With regard to the overall score, no significant differences were found between CLIL and EFL students ($U=249.500$, $p=0.111$, $r=0.22$), even though the results of the CLIL students were considerably better than the EFL students' results. The results of the Mann-Whitney test for the individual categories will be presented in the sections of each corresponding rating categories.

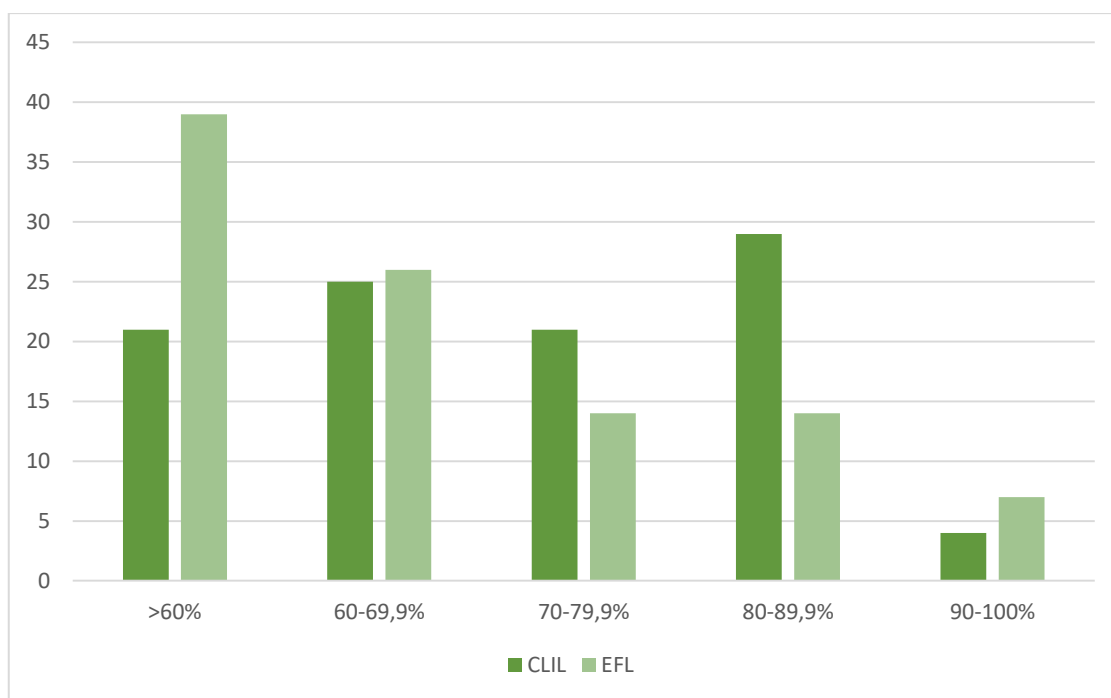


Figure 4: spread of CLIL and EFL students' scores (in percentage)

Figure 4 illustrates the range of scores of CLIL and EFL students, as well as the number of students who obtained each score, expressed as a percentage of the total number of participants in each group. What seems noteworthy is that a substantial number of EFL students (39%) obtained less than 60% of the total score, as opposed to CLIL students, out of which only 21% achieved less than 60%. On the contrary, 33% of the CLIL students obtained more than 80% of the total score, whereas only 21% of the EFL students reached more than 80%. Furthermore, one CLIL student even obtained the highest score of 100%, whereas the top score among the EFL group is 93%. To provide a more detailed picture of the results, the findings will now be further broken down by focusing on each category individually.

5.1.1. Task fulfillment

As discussed in section 4.3.1.1., the first category referred to register, level of formality, length and content. That is, the category intended to measure whether students used appropriate register and style and whether the texts

reached the proposed length. Moreover, it was analyzed if students addressed all content points of the prompt and how far these content points were elaborated. In other words, it was distinguished whether content points were only mentioned by the students or further elaborated upon, which involves either an extension of an argument or the introduction of a new idea (Gassner et al. 2011: 37).

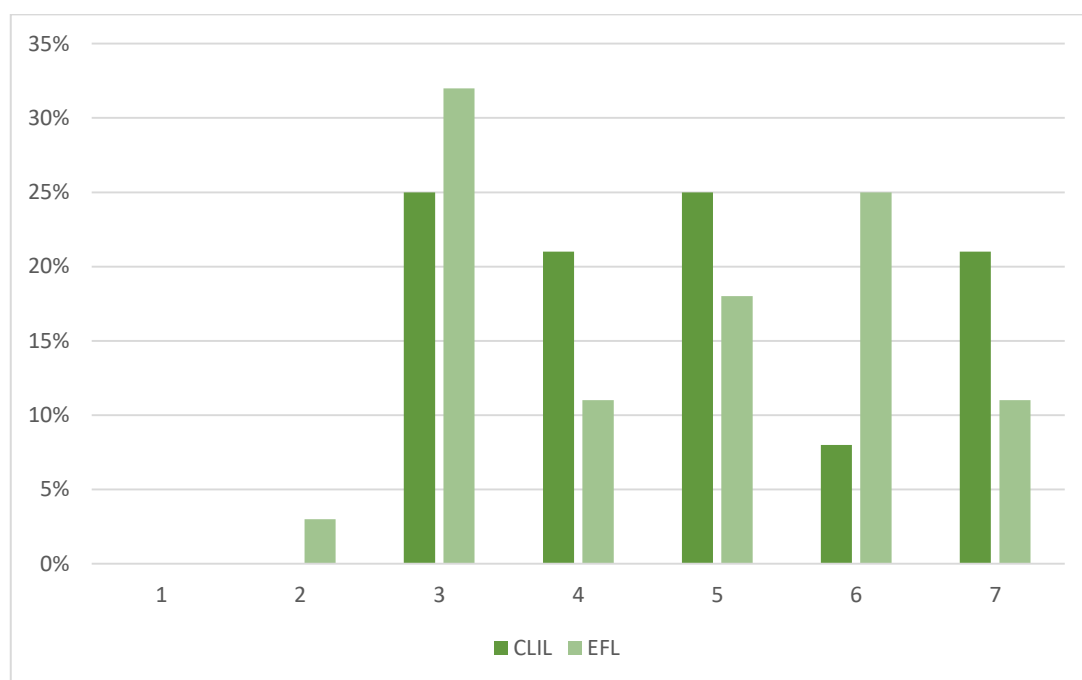


Figure 5: Distribution of scores in the field of task achievement of CLIL and EFL students

Overall, CLIL students achieved slightly better scores than their EFL peers, with a mean score of 4.79 (68%), contrary to the EFL students' mean score of 4.61 (66%). This trend is also reflected by the results obtained by the Mann-Whitney test. When comparing the CLIL and EFL students' results of the category of task achievement, no statistically significant difference was found ($U=313.000$, $p=0.666$, $r=0.06$). With regard to the distribution of points, 21% of the CLIL students and 11% of the EFL students obtained 7 points in this field (see Figure 5). On the other hand, 25% of the EFL students achieved 6 points, whereas only 8% of the CLIL students obtained the same. The results of the remaining points were quite balanced, although it is worth noting that 3% of the EFL students reached only 2 points in this category. In the following, the individual factors which were considered in this category will be discussed.

With regard to style and register, an informal style would have been appropriate as the writing task asked the students to write an e-mail to a student of a partner school in England. Both the EFL and CLIL students were generally able to apply the adequate level of formality throughout their writing performance. Especially in the CLIL classroom, no problems regarding formality were found. Some EFL students (8 out of 28 students), however, displayed formality issues as they ended the e-mail with the closing formula 'yours faithfully'. This formula is highly formal and can certainly not be regarded as appropriate in an informal e-mail to a friend. Moreover, in some written productions of both CLIL and EFL students, the opening or closing formula was missing, which resulted in downgrading of points in this category. More precisely, in the CLIL classroom, 5 out of 24 students did not include a salutation or closing phrase and in the EFL classroom the closing formula was missing in 3 of the 28 texts.

In terms of content, quite varied results were found. Interestingly, almost every student in both classrooms mentioned all three content points in their texts. This might be due to the fact that the students are already familiar with these types of prompts as they are also used in their English schoolbooks (i.e. *More 4*). Additionally, the Austrian school leaving exam, called 'Matura' also asks students to address the proposed content points in their texts which is why the teachers probably start to prepare the students for this exam from the beginning. Overall, 23 out of 24 students in the CLIL classroom and 25 out of 28 students in the EFL classroom addressed all three content points in their texts. However, students in both classrooms seemed to encounter difficulties when it comes to elaborating on their ideas. In the CLIL classroom, only 7 out of 24 students (29%) were able to extend their ideas by adding further information or new ideas. In the EFL classroom, however, almost half of the students (46%) elaborated their ideas in an interesting and meaningful way.

To illustrate the difference between a content point that is mentioned but not elaborated, and an idea or content point that could be considered as fully developed, two examples from the data are provided below:

(3) *My name is XY and I am thirteen years old. I have three siblings. I live in a big house in a small village with my parents and my siblings, who are*

all younger than me. My grandparents live in the same village just a few meters away from us. We also have a dog. My hobbies are singing, dancing and music in general. (CLIL/8)

(4) My name is XY and I come from Austria. I'm 13 years old and I have a little sister. She is 8 years old. (EFL/2)

As can be observed, the first student (Example 4) clearly elaborated on his/her ideas by describing his/her family background, living situation and interests extensively, whereas the second student (Example 4) limited him-/herself to a brief description of his life and family without any elaboration.

Moreover, the last content point in particular, which asked the students to request information about the English student's life and school in England, was not elaborated adequately by the majority of the students in both classrooms. Whereas some students completely neglected this content point (one student in the CLIL classroom and three students in the EFL classroom), the remaining students addressed all three content points, whereas an elaboration on the last point was frequently missing. More specifically, 50% of the CLIL students and 57% of the EFL students did not elaborate on the last content point as they did not include appropriate and sufficient questions or just lifted the suggestions from the prompt without any further elaboration. A few examples might serve as an illustration on what was regarded as prompt lifting:

(5) Bye and tell me how you live in England and about your school and your classmates. (CLIL/1)

(6) And how is your life at school in England. Tell me soon. (CLIL/7)

(7) Now, what are you doing at school? (CLIL/11)

(8) How is your life and school in England? (EFL/5)

(9) I would love to hear more about your life and school in England. (EFL/7)

(10) How is your life? How is your school? Please write back. (EFL/20)

On the contrary, the remaining students of both classrooms did not simply go through the prompt's instructions for the last content point but were also able to elaborate as they asked various questions without including the prompt's descriptions and tried to establish rapport with the English student. That is, the students did not only ask general questions about the student's life and school but asked for details, like school uniforms, the weather, siblings, hobbies, etc. (Examples 11-14). Furthermore, they showed positive rapport management by means of telling the student that they would like to meet one day (Examples 12 & 13).

(11) What is your school like? Do you have to wear school uniforms? I don't have to and I am very glad about this. Do you have siblings or a pet? What are your hobbies? Do you also love music, just like me? Do you play an instrument? Do you have any extracurricular activities? I hope we'll meet one time. (CLIL/8)

(12) And what about you? How is your life going? How about your school? Do you like your teachers and subjects? And what about your family? Do you have any siblings? (CLIL/14)

(13) What's about you? Do you like your school? What's the weather in England? I hope you enjoy everything in England. I go to England next summer. I hope we can meet. (EFL/12)

(14) So you've heard a lot about my life and now I want to know something about your life and school in England. How is your family? What subjects have you got in your school? How are your classmates in England? (EFL /28)

As for the length of students' written products, texts exhibiting more words than necessary were not punished while texts that were more than ten words below the requested word number were downgraded (see section 4.3.1.1.). In the CLIL classroom 3 out of 24 students (13%) did not reach the requested word number, whereas in the EFL classroom only 2 out of 28 students' scripts (7%) exhibited less than 100 words. The majority of students in both classrooms wrote between 100 and 150 words. Moreover, it is worth noting that in the EFL

classroom 6 out of 28 students (21%) wrote more than 150 words, of which 3 students even wrote more than 200 words. On the contrary, in the CLIL classroom, only 1 out of 24 students' texts (4%) was above the requested word number.

To sum up, the results in the category of task achievement were quite balanced as the overall average scores of both student groups vary only slightly. Whereas CLIL students marginally outperformed their EFL peers, especially in terms of register and style, EFL students achieved better scores with regard to the length of their texts.

5.1.2. Coherence and Cohesion

The second category was intended to assess the organization and structure of the students' written production, as well as the students' textual competences.

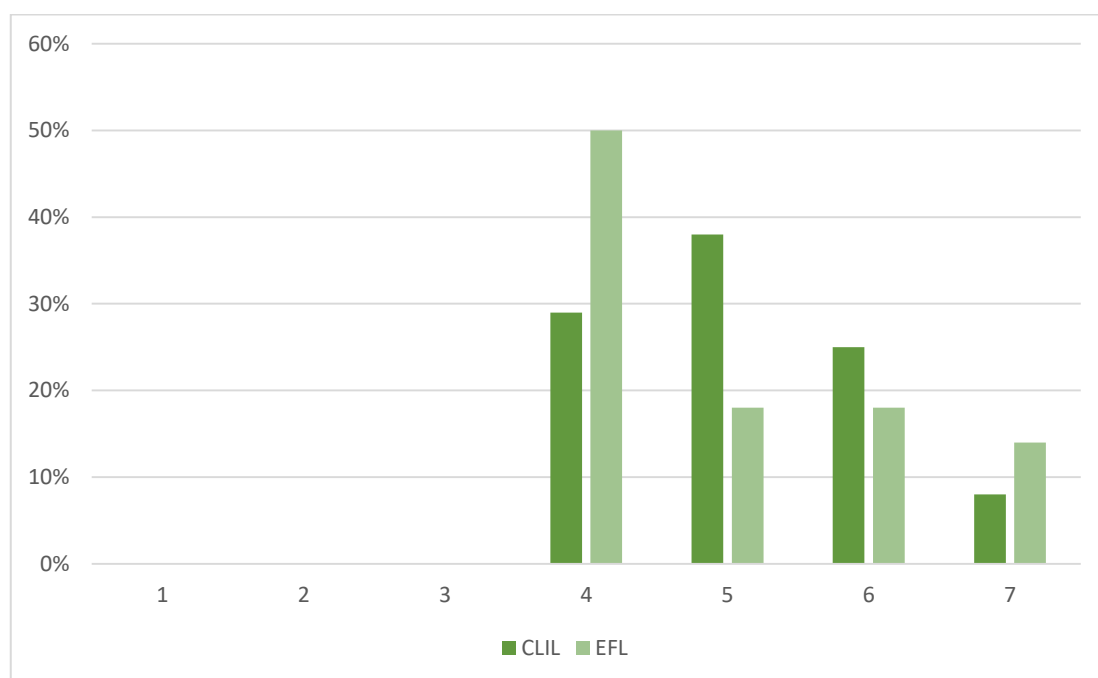


Figure 6: Distribution of scores in the field of coherence and cohesion of CLIL and EFL students

Similar to the previous category, CLIL students' average scores slightly exceeded the average scores of EFL students. To be more precise, students enrolled in the CLIL program obtained a mean score of 5.13 (73%) in this field, whereas their EFL counterparts achieved a mean score of 4.96 (71%). Moreover, the results of the Mann-Whitney test suggested that these differences were not statistically significant ($U=293.500$, $p=0.412$, $r=0.11$)

As can be observed in Figure 6, no considerable differences were visible with regard to the distribution of points. However, it is noteworthy that the worst score in this field was 4 points, which was achieved by 50% of the EFL students, as opposed to 29% of the CLIL students.

With regard to the texts' overall structure, the broad majority of CLIL and EFL students' written productions could be considered as coherent throughout, as the students arranged their ideas in a logical and clear way. Most of the students oriented themselves by the prompt's instructions and structured their texts according to the proposed order. Consequently, the broad majority of all participating students was able to develop a convincing sequence and establish meaningful sentences, which enabled the reader to follow the writer's line of thought.

Nevertheless, a weakness of almost all participating students seemed to be paragraphing. In both classrooms, only a limited number of students used paragraphs in a way that would give clarity to the writer's ideas and support the reader to follow the writer's line of argumentation. When it comes to comparing CLIL and EFL students' use of paragraphing, considerable differences could be observed. Whereas 29% of the CLIL students used effective paragraphing in their writing, only 7% of the EFL students used this structuring device.

Another dimension which was investigated in this category was the students' use of linking devices. Overall, every participating student of both classrooms applied cohesive devices in their texts. However, when it comes to the range of linking devices and their appropriate usage, some problems occurred. The most frequent linking device used by students of both classrooms was 'and' as it was used by 18 out of 23 students in the CLIL classroom and by 22 of the 28 students in the EFL classroom. Further frequently used connectives were

'but' and 'because'. Moreover, the majority of students limited themselves to using solely two or three different types of linking devices in their texts. In the CLIL classroom 41% of the students used more than two types of connectives and 29% used more than three types in their writing. Similarly, in the EFL classroom, 29% of the students applied more than 2 cohesive devices and 39% applied more than three different linking words in their texts. It is also worth noting that whereas the broad majority of all participating students clearly overused the word 'and' in their texts, some EFL students displayed the tendency to use more complex connectives in their texts.

Moreover, cohesion was not only measured by means of the students' use of linking devices but also by investigating other techniques that students used in order to connect their ideas in a meaningful way. That is, some students referred to previous ideas by the use of personal or demonstrative pronouns as can be seen in Examples 15 and 16. Furthermore, some students substituted words in a sentence, for instance by the use of superlatives, as can be seen in Example (17).

(15) *I have two younger brothers. **Their** names are XY and XY.* (EFL/19)

(16) *I am 12 years old and I live in XY. **That's** a small village in Austria.*
(CLIL/14)

(17) *The teachers in my school are very friendly. **The friendliest teacher** is Mrs XY.* (EFL/19).

(18) *I live in a big house in a small village with my parents and my siblings, **who** are all younger than me.* (CLIL/8).

Finally, some students also made use of subordinated clauses to link sentences together. Example 18 shows the linking of sentences by means of a relative clause. As for both classrooms, 9 out of 24 CLIL students and 15 out of 28 EFL students were shown to be able to link sentences effectively by means of other techniques than the use of linking devices.

The following examples serve as an illustration of the difference between a text containing only a limited number of linking devices (19) and a text written

by a student who makes a clear attempt to link the sentences in a reasonable and meaningful manner by the use of linking techniques (20):

*(19) Hello, I am XY, I am 13 years old, I am from Austria **and** my hobbies are singing, dancing, playing football, basketball and handball. My mother is 39 years old **and** her name is XY. My father is 40 years old **and** his name is XY. My school is very cool. Our subjects are English, German, Maths, Geographie, Biologie, Chemie, French, Physik and other things. Our teachers are **also** very cool. My timetable is very full and a little bit stressy. A few teachers are not friendly. How is your school and do you think your classmates and teachers are friendly? See ya! (CLIL / 24)*

*(20) Dear John, I wanna tell you about me and my life. So **I should begin with** that I am a boy in the age of thirteen years. I have brown hair and eyes. I am 1.68 metres tall. My name is XY **and** I really like reading and play computer games. In the summer I swim very often. I have two brothers. **One** in the age of 26 and **one** in the age of twelve. I really like my school **because** we have good teachers **who** bring the learning stuff in our heads. Our timetable is a bit stupid **because** some lessons are really set in the false place. **An example is** the maths lesson on Thursday. **It's** just nerving to have all done **but** maths is at the end to hard I think. My classmates are just cool there is no more to say. How is your life? How is your school? Please write back. Yours, XY. (EFL / 20).*

As can be observed in these examples, the first text (Example 19) exhibits a poor range of linking devices. The student limits himself/herself to using only two different linking devices and obviously overuses the word 'and'. On the contrary, the writer of the second text (Example 20) attempts to include quite a varied range of cohesive devices and applies them in a reasonable and meaningful way. As a consequence, the sentences are all linked smoothly and coherently.

One aspect of textual competence which the great majority of students mastered was punctuation. Merely 3 students of both the CLIL and EFL classroom displayed problems when it comes to punctuation. Put differently, these students failed to apply punctuation marks appropriately in their written productions as illustrated in Example 21. It can be argued that this student clearly struggles with punctuation since he/she did not set a full stop at the end of the first idea.

(21) *Our teachers are very cool we sometimes watch movies and we have always a interesting lesson.* (EFL/8)

To sum up, the results in terms of cohesion and coherence were quite balanced between CLIL and EFL students, with negligible advantages for CLIL students. That is, the majority of the texts analyzed were coherent throughout and a fairly large number of students in both classroom settings used a great variety of linking devices accurately in their writing, whereas CLIL students included a slightly larger range of cohesive devices in their texts. With regard to paragraphing, both sets of students largely neglected to structure their written productions by means of paragraphs.

5.1.3. Grammar

The third category dealt with the students' grammatical competences. As previously mentioned above, the difference between CLIL and EFL students were highly significant in this field. That is, CLIL students obtained an average score of 5.13 out of 7 points, which accounts for 73%, whereas EFL students achieved a mean score of 4.26 points, which accounts for 61% of the total score. The Mann-Whitney test also showed that these differences between CLIL and EFL students concerning the category of grammar are significant with a medium effect size ($U = 207.500$, $p = 0.015$, $r = 0.33$).

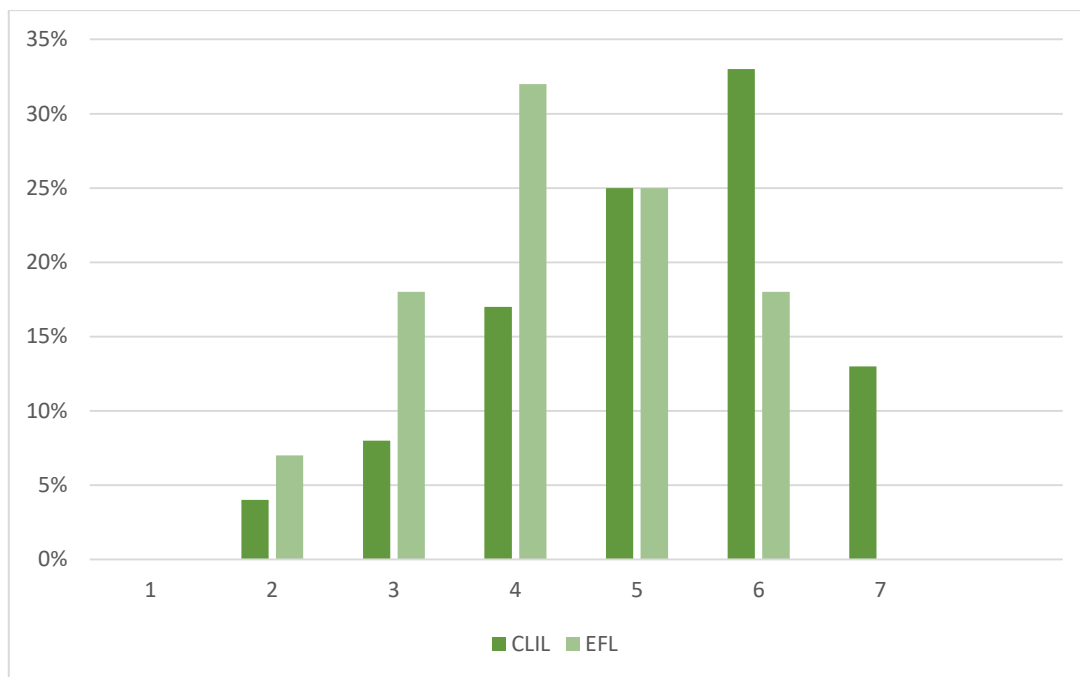


Figure 7: Distribution of scores in the field of grammar of CLIL and EFL students

Moreover, when it comes to the distribution of points among individual students, noteworthy results which point to clear advantages for CLIL students, could be observed. As seen in Figure 7, in the CLIL group 13% of the students reached the top score of 7 points, thus they used a great variety of grammatical structures in an accurate way. Furthermore, 33% and 25% achieved 6 and 5 points, respectively. In the EFL group, on the contrary, none of the participating students reached the highest score in the category of grammar, while 25% and 32% achieved 6 and 5 points, respectively. Thus, according to the overall results in this field, CLIL students clearly outperform their EFL peers when it comes to being able to use a great variety of grammatical structures. These findings can be further emphasized by breaking the category's results down into individual dimensions which were taken into account during the analysis.

One of the most important issues addressed within this category was whether students used a great range of grammatical structures, as well as complex structures, in their writing. The grammatical structures which were found in CLIL and EFL students' texts and classified as complex structures were subordinate clauses (Examples 22-23), comparisons (Example 24), conditional phrases (Example 25) or indirect speeches (Example 26).

Generally, compared to the EFL group, CLIL students tended to use complex structures considerably more often. In other words, 71% of the CLIL students used a great variety of grammatical structures, including complex ones, in their writing. More precisely, 9 out of 24 students (38%) included subordinate sentences in their writing, 4 out of 24 students (16%) applied conditional structures, 3 out of 24 students included (13%) indirect speech and 2 out of 24 students (8%) used comparisons. In the EFL group, only 61% of the students included a wide range of grammatical structures in their texts. 6 out of 28 (22%) students applied subordinate clauses, 4 out of 28 students (14%) used comparisons, 3 out of 28 students (11%) applied indirect speech, and 2 out of 28 students (7%) included conditional structures. These differences regarding students' use of complex grammatical structures was also found to be statistically significant with a medium size effect ($U=225.500$, $p=0.029$, $r=0.30$).

(22) *If you want you can send me a letter **which** describes your life in England.* (CLIL/7)

(23) *I have got an older brother **who** is 19 years old and his name is XY.* (EFL/25)

(24) *My brothers are both younger than me.* (CLIL/17)

(25) *I would also play in a team **if** I could play but I can't.* (EFL/24)

(26) *Our teacher **asked us to write** a letter to a partner school in England.* (EFL/16)

With regard to grammatical accuracy, the results of CLIL and EFL students also differed substantially, with the CLIL group clearly outperforming the EFL group. Overall, a total number of 91 deficiencies in terms of grammatical accuracy were found in 52 students' texts investigated, with a distribution of 36 deficiencies found in 24 CLIL students' texts, and 55 deficiencies located in 28 EFL students' written productions. It is also noteworthy that there were 3 out of 24 texts of CLIL students in which no grammatical inaccuracies were found, and 4 out of 28 texts of EFL students in which no grammatical errors could be located. Moreover, the relationship between range and accuracy certainly needs to be considered. Thus, the fact that CLIL students committed

fewer grammatical errors than EFL students, even though they used a wider grammatical range and more complex grammatical structures within their texts, certainly points to great advantages for CLIL students in the field of grammar.

When it comes to the types of grammatical errors made, the most frequently occurring problem in both classrooms was the students' inability to use the suitable tense in the corresponding context. That is, problems concerning the differentiation between past simple and present simple tense, present simple and present perfect tense, as well as present simple and future tense appeared in the students' texts. As illustrated in Examples 27 and 28, some students described their daily routine using the past tense or talked about past events using the present tense, which can certainly not be regarded as appropriate. Moreover, an overuse of the present perfect tense could also be frequently observed in written productions of both classroom settings (Examples 29-30). Another common grammatical inaccuracy found in both classroom settings is related to word order. Many students seemed to encounter problems with the appropriate English word order. These errors were mostly based on L1 interference (Examples 31-32) and occurred particularly frequently in the EFL students' texts, with 6 errors that were related to L1 interference, as opposed to only 1 such mistake found in the texts of CLIL students. Alternatively, a great number of students struggled with the position of adverbs within a sentence (Example 33). Another grammatical error which was found quite often in written productions of both classroom settings was related to the formation of the irregular plural. In particular, the plural form of the word "hobby", caused problems for a great number of participating students from both classes (Examples 34-35). Furthermore, a few students seemed to struggle with question formation or the choice of question words, as illustrated in Example 36. The remaining errors were related to subject-verb agreement (Example 37), the use of adverbs (Example 38), the genitive case (Example 39), or the use of articles (Example 40).

(27) *I woke up at 6 o'clock and then at 7 o'clock I go to the bus.* (EFL/2)

(28) *I'm born in Steiermark.* (CLIL/12).

(29) *I **am coming** from Oberwart.* (EFL/5).

- (30) *What **is** your school **looking** like?* (EFL/22)
- (31) *Usually I'm at two at home but twice a week I've physical education or handball so I am at home at four p.m.* (EFL/13)
- (32) *I have a lots of friends, who are often **coming** to me.* (EFL/25)
- (33) ***Thomas already has two sons.*** (CLIL/5)
- (34) *My **hobbys** are playing billard, playing drums and build model ships.* (CLIL/1)
- (35) *My favourite **hobbie** is football and I often go cycling.* (EFL/10)
- (36) *How do you think about your classmates?* (EFL/18)
- (37) *I think we fit **perfect** together.* (CLIL/4)
- (38) *They **thinks** it's boring or anything like that.* (EFL/23)
- (39) *My **fathers** name is XY.* (CLIL/ 17)
- (40) *Our teachers are very cool we sometimes watch movies and we have always **a** interesting lesson.* (EFL/8)

The most frequent errors in the CLIL classrooms are related to tenses, with 14 occurrences, followed by errors related to formation of plurals (5 errors) and word order (4 errors). In the EFL classroom, students also mostly committed errors related to tenses, with 18 occurrences. Moreover, word order (10 errors), question formation (5 errors), plural formation (4 errors) and subject-verb agreement (3 errors) seemed to cause problems for EFL students.

However, as already discussed, grammatical errors were not simply counted but they were considered in relation to grammatical range and complexity. A further consideration was whether the errors influenced the comprehensibility of the texts. That is, it was analyzed whether the meaning of the text is clear and comprehensible for the reader. With regard to differences between both classroom settings, the advantages of CLIL students in grammatical competence is further reflected in the results regarding comprehensibility. The meaning of 18 of the 24 CLIL students' text was regarded as clear and comprehensible, which accounts for 75%, whereas in the EFL classroom, 17

out of 28 students' texts were considered clear and comprehensible, which accounts for 61%. The remaining texts in both classrooms were either ambiguous in terms of meaning throughout, or contained some parts which were not fully comprehensible.

To conclude, the data revealed significant differences regarding grammatical competences between both groups investigated, with the CLIL students clearly outperforming their non-CLIL counterparts. CLIL students not only used a larger variety of grammatical structures, including complex ones, but also performed on a higher level when it comes to accuracy. EFL students displayed problems with regard to the use of grammar in the sense that they produced considerably more grammar mistakes than their CLIL peers, even though they tended not to use complex grammatical structures in their writing.

5.1.4. Vocabulary

The final category investigated also refers to students' language competence or more precisely, their way of dealing with vocabulary. Generally, the results further reflect the prevailing positive trend for CLIL students, as they clearly outperform their EFL counterparts, with an average score of 5.08 (73%) as opposed to EFL students' mean score of 4.46 (61%) within this category. Nevertheless, although there are considerable differences between CLIL and EFL students in terms of vocabulary, these differences are not statistically significant according to the Mann-Whitney test ($U=237.000$, $p=0.060$, $r=0.26$).

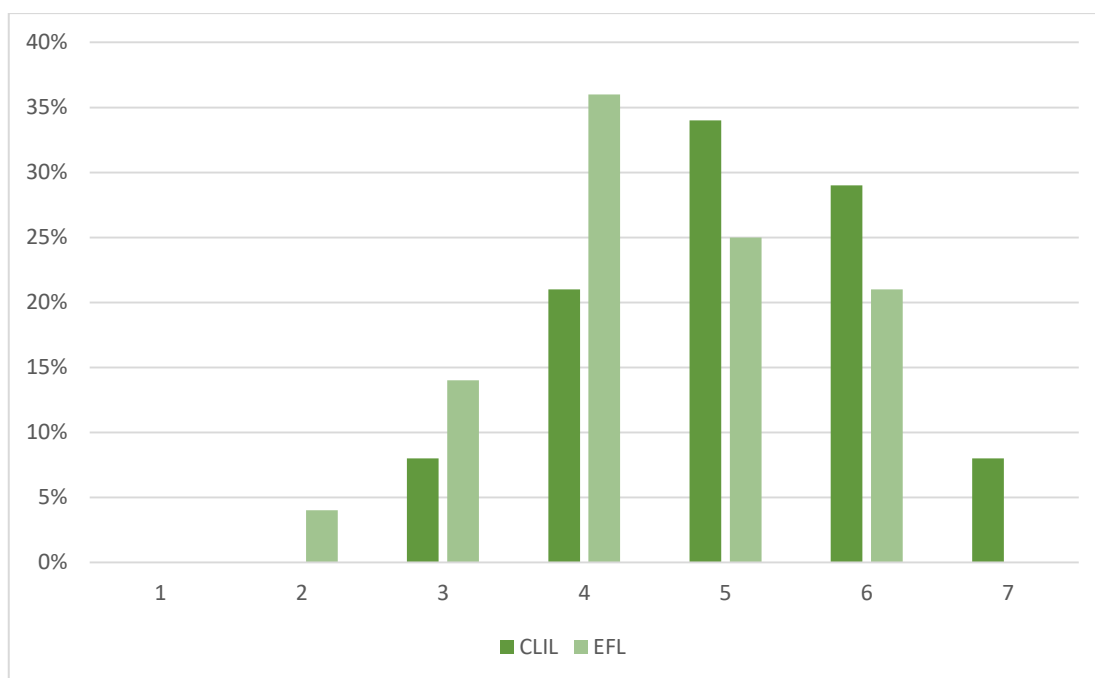


Figure 8: Distribution of scores in the field of vocabulary of CLIL and EFL students

Moreover, similar to the results yielded in the category for grammar, the distribution of points among individual students displayed a positive tendency for CLIL students (see Figure 8). 2 out of 24 (8%) students in the CLIL group reached the highest score of 7 points in this field. That is, they used a wide range of vocabulary, including complex words, which was mostly applied in an accurate way without any errors that impede comprehensibility. Furthermore, 6 out of 24 (29%) students achieved 6 points and the majority of CLIL students (8 out of 24 students, 34%) reached 5 points. In the EFL classroom, however, a rather different picture emerged. The majority of EFL students (10 out of 28, 36%) reached 4 points and no student achieved the total score of 7 points. Moreover, 6 points were reached by 6 out of 28 students (21%) and 5 points were achieved by 7 out of 28 EFL students (25%). Consequently, the overall results clearly suggest that CLIL students surpassed their EFL counterparts in terms of lexical competence. In the following, the results will be further broken down to provide a more precise picture.

One aspect to be analyzed in this category was whether the students' texts exhibited a wide range of vocabulary and included more complex words. To illustrate the difference between a text exhibiting a good range of words, which

were used accurately (Example 42), and a text written by a student who limited himself or herself to using only basic vocabulary (Example 41), two examples are provided below:

(41) Hi Mary! My name is XY and I am thirteen years old. I have three siblings. I live in a big house in a small village with my parents and my siblings, who are all younger than me. My grandparents live in the same village just a few meters away from us. We also have a dog. My hobbies are singing, dancing and music in general. I think I am in an awesome school Our timetable is fantastic with all the different subjects. We have gym, maths, English, german, chemistry, geography, biology, religion, history, arts and informatics. We don't have music this year and I really miss it. My classmates are brilliant. You can have fun with them but you can also talk about problems. In our school we have many extracurricular activities, which I really love (...). (CLIL/8)

(42) Hi Alex! My name is XY and I am coming from Oberwart in Austria. I am 10 years old and was born in 2006. I have two sisters. They are sometimes really bad. My hobbies are playing football, riding my bike and playing basketball. I am going to school in Oberschützen. At schooldays, I get up at 6.00 pm. Our school starts at 7: 25 am and ends at 1 pm. Our teachers are really nice, but sometimes they can be really strict. In my class I have really good friends. The most boys and girls are really nice. How is your life and your school in England? (EFL/5)

As far as the comparison regarding lexical range and word choice between both participating groups is concerned, the differences between CLIL and EFL students are highly significant. Almost half of the CLIL students (46%) applied a good range of lexicon, including complex words, accurately. 25% of the CLIL students had some minor issues in terms of lexical range and complexity. That is, in their texts repetitions or basic words are prevailing. 29% of CLIL students used a limited range of vocabulary, frequently repeated words, chose words inappropriately, and exclusively applied simple words in their written

productions. In the EFL classroom, 21% of the students' texts exhibited a good range of vocabulary whereas the majority of the students (46%) encountered some issues with the use of vocabulary as they included repetitions or frequently limited themselves to basic expressions. The remaining 32% of EFL students, exclusively used simple vocabulary and struggled with appropriate word choice.

Besides lexical range, accuracy was also an important factor addressed within this category. In all, a total of 122 deficiencies related to lexical competence were detected in 52 students' texts. As for the distribution of errors, 60 were found in the CLIL students' texts, whereas the EFL students' written productions exhibited a total of 62 lexical inaccuracies. Furthermore, in both classroom settings, some students did not commit any lexical errors within their text. More precisely, 5 texts of the 24 texts of the CLIL group and 3 out of the 28 texts of the EFL group, respectively, were error-free lexical-wise.

As for the classification of lexical errors, the most frequent deficiencies in both investigated groups were concerned with spelling and capitalization. In the EFL group, 22 errors regarding capitalization were made, and 20 in the CLIL group. That is, students frequently capitalized words which should be written in lower case, and vice versa (Examples 43-44). With regard to orthography, 19 spelling errors were found in CLIL students' texts and 15 errors in Non-CLIL students' texts. These errors range from problems concerning simple words such as 'pretty' or 'hours' (Examples 45-46) to deficiencies regarding more complex expressions (Example 47). Especially the distinction between 'live' and 'life' was problematic for a great number of students (Examples 48-49). Another frequent type of error concerns the accurate use of prepositions. In this regard, 9 deficiencies were found in CLIL students' written productions and 7 errors in EFL students' texts (Examples 50-51). Moreover, some students borrowed words from their L1 (examples 52-53) and others struggled with word choice or the appropriate use of collocations (examples 54-57).

(43) *My favourite teachers are the maths teacher and the **english** teacher.* (CLIL/18)

(44) *I don't like **History** and **Geography** because our teachers are so boring.* (EFL/24)

- (45) *The school in Austria is preaty cool.* (CLIL/2)
- (46) *The worst day in the week is thursday, because we've to go to school for eight **ours**.* (EFL/11)
- (47) *I also like my teachers **exept** for my teacher in physiks.* (CLIL/6)
- (48) *How is your **live**?* (CLIL/14)
- (49) *I **life** with my family in a house.* (CLIL/16)
- (50) *The teacher **on** our school are ok.* (EFL/22)
- (51) *I am afraid **from** the test.* (EFL/22)
- (52) *My hobbys are dancing, singing, listen to **musik** and walk with dogs.* (CLIL/14)
- (53) *Our subjects are English, German, Maths, **Geographie, Biologie, Chemie**, French, **Physik** and other things.* (CLIL/24)
- (54) *Our class is not really silent but we are **silence** when any teacher enters ours classroom.* (CLIL/6)
- (55) *I **visit** the school BG Oberschützen.* (CLIL/21)
- (56) *My brother is like a little boy and don't **let** me in peace.* (EFL/22)
- (57) *Now I am really looking forward to **hear** from you.* (EFL/24)
- (58) *She is eleven years old and visits the **gym** in Oberschützen.*
(EFL/7)

Although the overall number of errors is slightly higher in the CLIL classroom in relation to the total number of students, the relation between lexical range and accuracy needs to be taken into account. Whereas CLIL students overall tended to commit more errors than EFL students, they mostly made an effort to apply more complex words and phrases in their texts. Consequently, due to the fact that range outweighed accuracy (see section 4.3.1.4.) it can be argued that CLIL students are more proficient than EFL students when it comes to vocabulary knowledge.

Moreover, similar to the category dealing with grammar, the communicative aspect was also considered within the category of vocabulary. That is, it was analyzed whether lexical inaccuracies had an effect on the comprehensibility of the text. In this regard, the results were quite balanced as 17 out of 24 texts (71%) of CLIL students and 22 out of 28 (78%) of the EFL students' texts were fully comprehensible. Example 58 illustrates a lexical error which made the meaning of the sentence unintelligible as the English word 'gym' does not correspond to the German word 'Gymnasium'. Consequently, an English speaker would understand something completely different.

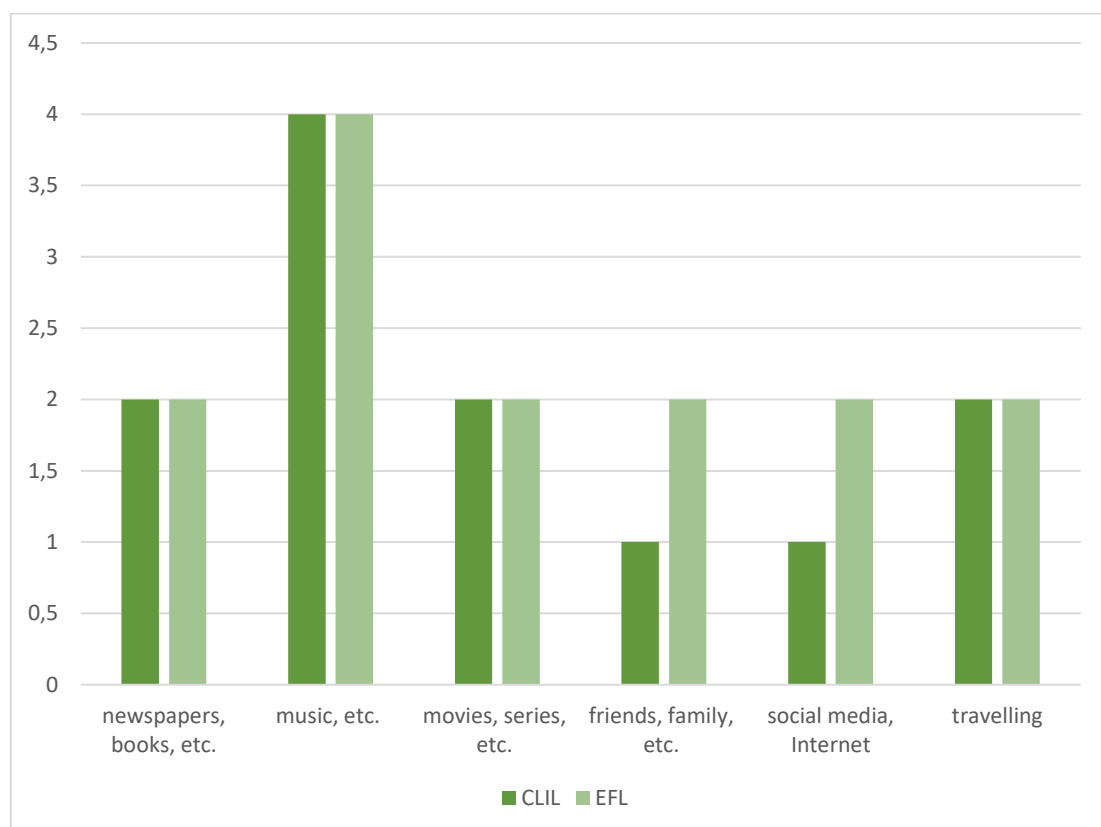
Summing up, similar to the field of grammar, the differences between both classroom settings were quite obvious in the category of vocabulary. Despite this, it still needs to be pointed out that the results cannot be regarded statistically significant. As for the distribution and total number of errors related to lexical knowledge, the highest amount of errors in proportion to the total number of students was observed in CLIL students' texts. However, the written productions of CLIL students indicated a higher lexical range. That is, CLIL students were willing to apply a great variety of words, including more complex words, whereas EFL students tended to use more basic words or repeated several words in their texts. Consequently, if one considers the relation between range and accuracy, the performance of CLIL students was comparatively far better.

5.2. Findings of questionnaires

Having commented on the results of the students' texts, the findings of the questionnaires will be discussed at this point. The questionnaires supplemented the writing task with the aim of revealing essential background information regarding the participating students' mother tongue, use of English outside of school, self-assessment of their English writing skills and reasons for choosing the particular program on which they are enrolled. Whereas some of the information obtained (Questions 1-3) has already been presented in

section 4.1.3., the findings of the remaining questions will be reported in this section.

Question 4 dealt with the students' use of English outside of school. They were asked how frequently they read English books or newspapers, listen to English music, watch English music or communicate with English people, for instance. Figure 9 illustrates the information gained from this question:



key: 1...never / 2...sometimes / 3...often / 4...always

Figure 9: CLIL and EFL students' use of English outside of school

As can be observed in Figure 9, no considerable differences were found regarding the students' use of English during their free time. Practically all students in both classroom settings indicated that they always listen to English music, which is quite obvious considering that the majority of popular songs are written in English. As for the remaining categories, students of both groups stated that they only sometimes use English to read books, newspapers, communicate with friends and family or during travelling, for instance.

Moreover, in contrast to what was expected, CLIL students did not indicate that they use English more often outside of school than their EFL peers.

The next two questions asked students to self-assess their English writing skills by means of school grades ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 being the best grade and 5 the worst. Moreover, the students had to indicate how often certain dimensions of English writing caused problems for them. These dimensions were vocabulary, comprehension of the task, grammar, word count and content. Figure 10 presents the information obtained from item 5:

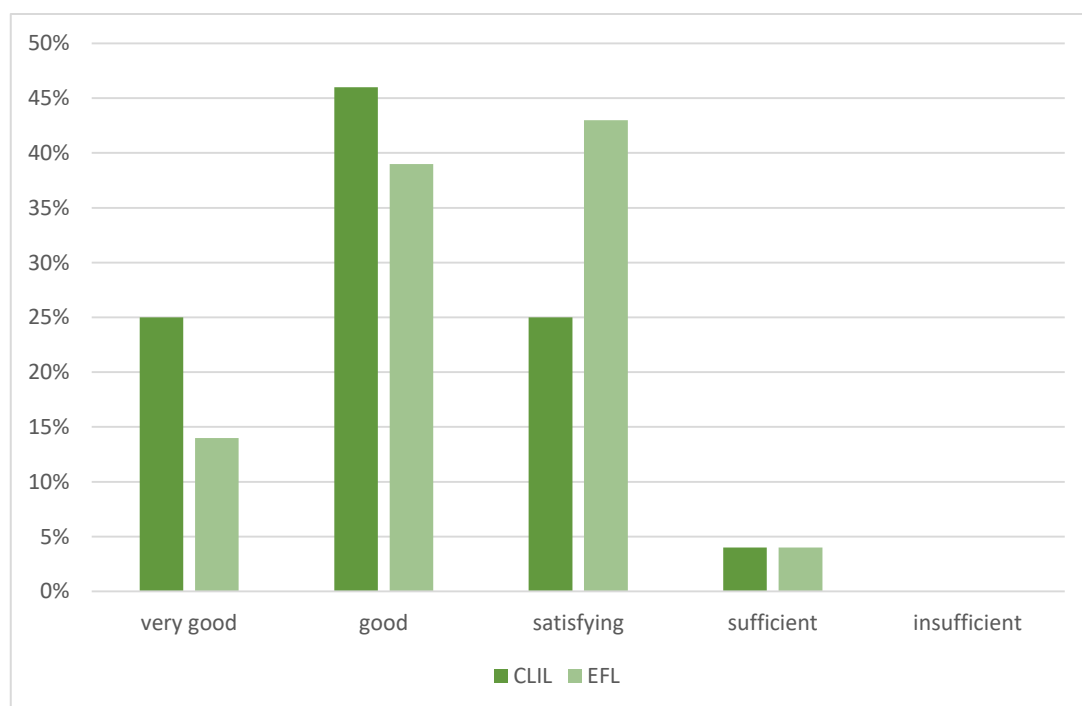
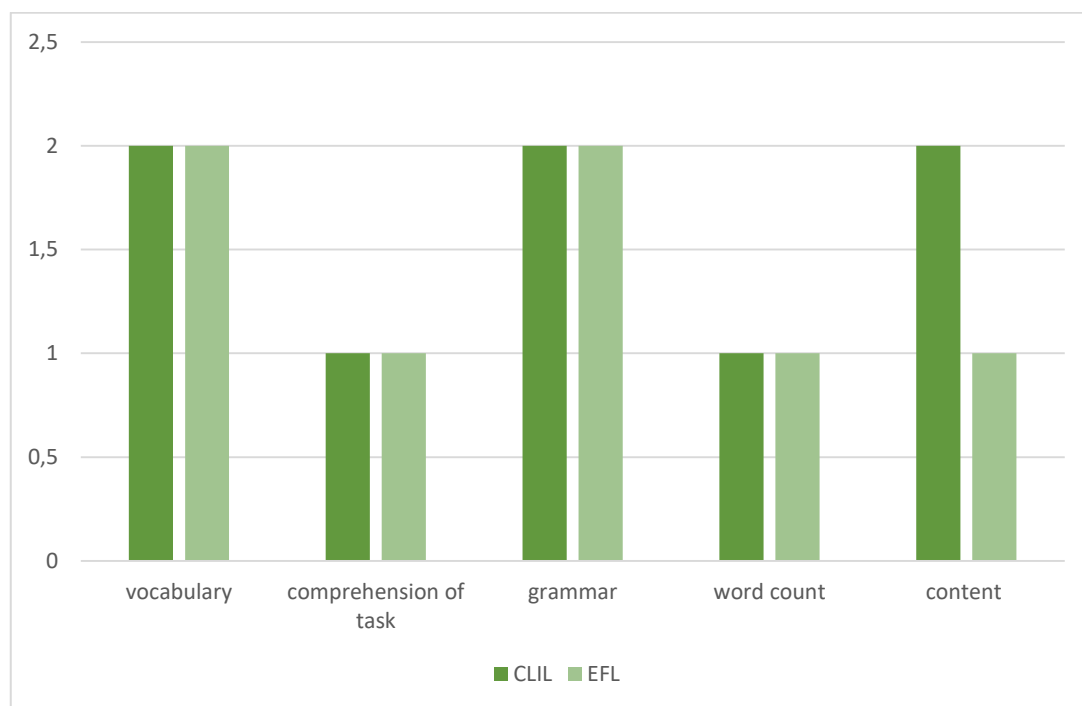


Figure 10: CLIL and EFL students' assessment of their English writing skills

As Figure 10 illustrates, EFL students tended to evaluate their writing competences better than their EFL counterparts, with 25% of CLIL students stating that they possess 'very good' writing skills and 46% indicating that they have 'good' writing skills. On the contrary, the majority of CLIL students (43%) describe their writing competence as only 'satisfying'.

With regard to the dimensions of being able to write in a foreign language, no considerable differences between EFL and CLIL students could be observed. What seems interesting is that according to the data, the categories vocabulary

and grammar tend to cause the most problems among students when it comes to writing in a foreign language. Figure 11 depicts how often students encounter problems with regard to the individual categories investigated:



key: 1...never / 2...sometimes / 3...often / 4...always

Figure 11: CLIL and EFL students' frequency of encountering problems with certain dimensions of writing ability

Finally, the last question (item 8) was concerned with reasons why the students had chosen the particular program in which they are enrolled. In the CLIL classroom, the majority of the students indicated that they registered for the CLIL program because they have always been interested in learning foreign languages and started learning English at primary school. Moreover, many students stated that they had good grades in German during primary school or that they have an exceptional talent for learning foreign languages. As for the EFL classroom, the students mostly chose the mainstream program because they did not learn English before lower secondary and were therefore scared of not being able to follow the lessons in the foreign language. Another common reason for EFL students to enroll in the program was that they wanted to be in the same class as their friends.

To sum up, the results gained from the questionnaires suggest that the participating CLIL students do not have any advantages over EFL students with regard to linguistic background or extracurricular use of English. On the contrary, it was found that the EFL students use English more often than the CLIL students outside of school.

5.3. Summary of the core findings and discussion

Having presented the results obtained by means of this empirical study, the core findings will be summarized at this point. Overall, the results of the writing tests revealed that the participating CLIL students outperformed the EFL students in all the categories investigated, with an average score of 72% of the CLIL group in comparison with 65% of their EFL counterparts. Nevertheless, no results worth mentioning were found in terms of task achievement, as well as coherence and cohesion. The categories concerned with students' grammar and vocabulary competence, however, indicated substantial differences between the groups. Especially the field of grammar reported statistically significant results in favor of CLIL students, with a difference of 0.84 points between students' average scores. Moreover, with regard to the distribution of the overall scores, it seems noteworthy that a great number of EFL students (39%) obtained less than 60% of the total score, whereas in the CLIL classroom, only 21% of the students achieved less than 60%. On the contrary, 33% of the CLIL students obtained more than 80% of the total score, as opposed to 21% of the EFL students. In the following, the results will be considered in detail to point out in which dimensions differences were found.

As for the category of task achievement, the difference between CLIL and EFL students' scores cannot be regarded as statistically significant according to the Mann-Whitney test. However, some noteworthy differences in terms of register and content elaboration were observed in this category. That is, CLIL students demonstrated higher capability in applying the appropriate register, whereas the scripts of the EFL students exhibited some minor issues regarding the use of an appropriate style and register. Consequently, it could cautiously be

argued that CLIL students possess better pragmatic skills as they showed greater awareness of the situational context and communicative purpose of the writing task. This is consistent with the findings of Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010: 182), whose empirical study also highlighted that CLIL students demonstrated greater pragmatic awareness. On the contrary, when it comes to content elaboration, EFL students showed to be the more proficient ones. Almost half of the EFL students elaborated their ideas in a meaningful and interesting way, whereas only a small amount of CLIL students successfully elaborated their ideas. Moreover, it seems worth noting that in general EFL students' texts exhibited a higher number of words, when compared to CLIL students. However, it could be argued that a reason for EFL students elaborating more successfully on their ideas and writing longer texts might be the fact that both classrooms have had different teachers in English, who requested differing requirements.

Similar to the previously mentioned category, the results of the field of coherence and cohesion did not yield any meaningful differences between the test groups, with a difference of the average scores of 0.17 points. Nevertheless, with regard to the use of linking devices in their writing, some critical differences were found. More precisely, the results revealed that especially CLIL students made clear attempts to link their ideas in a meaningful way using a great number of different linking devices in their texts. EFL students, on the contrary, mostly restricted themselves to the use of simple linking techniques or did not link their sentences appropriately. Furthermore, CLIL students arranged their ideas logically by the appropriate use of paragraphs, whereas this structuring device was only rarely found in EFL students' texts. Thus, one could argue that the advantages mentioned above point to CLIL students having greater awareness of discourse competence, however, it needs to be pointed out that the differences between both groups in this category were too small to draw such conclusions.

On the contrary, as for the category of grammar, the differences between CLIL and EFL students were found to be highly significant. These differences were reflected in all the aspects considered within this category, which were accuracy, range of grammatical structures and comprehensibility of meaning.

First, it seems worth noting is that whereas 13% of the CLIL students reached the top score of 7 points, in the EFL classroom none of the participating students achieved more than 6 points. Moreover, especially the relation between range and accuracy in terms of grammar needs to be considered. That is, even though CLIL students used a wider range of grammatical structures, including complex structures, in their written products, they also showed higher control in using these structures, when compared to their EFL counterparts. More precisely, 71% of the CLIL students' texts as opposed to 61% of the EFL students' scripts exhibited a great range of grammatical structures. As for grammatical errors, 36 deficiencies were found in 24 CLIL students' texts and 55 grammatical mistakes were found in 28 EFL students' texts.

The final category which was concerned with students' lexical knowledge also yielded substantial differences between both groups. Similar to the category of grammar, in the field of vocabulary 8% of the CLIL students achieved the highest score, as opposed to the EFL classroom where none of the students obtained 7 points. With regard to lexical range and complexity, the results were also quite obvious. That is, 46% of the CLIL students applied a wide range of vocabulary, including complex words, whereas only 21% of the EFL students' scripts exhibited a good range of vocabulary. On the other hand, when it comes to accuracy, the number of lexical errors in the CLIL classroom is slightly higher than the number of errors made by EFL students in relation to the total number of students. That is, 60 errors were found in 24 texts of CLIL students, as opposed to 62 deficiencies in 28 EFL students' texts. However, if the relation between range and accuracy is considered, CLIL students performed considerably better as their texts exhibited a wider range of vocabulary and also included many complex words. Nevertheless, the Mann-Whitney test did not yield any statistically significant differences with regard to this category.

To sum up, the findings reported overall better results in favor of CLIL students, with considerable differences in the field of grammar and vocabulary. These results can be compared to the findings of previous researchers. As discussed in section 2.3., Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) also found that CLIL

students outstripped their EFL peers, especially in the categories concerned with purely linguistic skills. Similarly, Ruiz de Zarobe's (2010) study revealed advantages in terms of writing ability favoring CLIL students. However, she (2010: 202) also points out that her findings were not statistically significant in all the dimensions examined. On the contrary, some studies point to more significant differences between CLIL and EFL students. Lasagabaster's findings (2008), for instance, indicated that the participating CLIL students outperformed their EFL peers in all the categories analyzed, which were content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics. Hence, it can be argued that the current study only supports these findings to a certain extent.

Notwithstanding the fact that the differences cannot be regarded as significant in all the dimensions investigated, it can still be argued that CLIL instruction has a positive effect on students' linguistic competences, which is a key dimension of writing ability. One reason for this could be that, in comparison with their EFL counterparts, CLIL students are more frequently exposed to English. Put differently, CLIL students are offered more opportunities to receive language input as they do not only encounter the foreign language in the EFL classroom but also in various content subjects. Moreover, due to the fact that in CLIL classrooms the focus is frequently put on meaning rather than on linguistic form, it could be assumed that CLIL students are less inhibited and more likely to use the foreign language in the classroom, as opposed to EFL classrooms where the focus is often put on accuracy. Therefore, CLIL students are certainly offered more opportunities to practice using the foreign language, which might be a reason for the better results. However, it also seems noteworthy that it has frequently been found that in Austrian CLIL lessons writing "plays only a minute role" (Dalton-Puffer 2009: 206). More precisely, apart from taking notes or copying something from the board, students do not usually have to write anything in Austrian content lessons. In the EFL classroom, on the other hand, students frequently have to do writing tasks as it is one of the four foreign language skills and forms part of many exams. For this reason, it seems quite obvious that the results especially indicated differences between CLIL and EFL students with regard to linguistic

skills (i.e. grammar, vocabulary), as opposed to discourse or textual competences. The fact that the CLIL students especially demonstrated advantages in terms of linguistic competence could also serve as an indication that these advantages could actually be ascribed to their additional instruction in English. In other words, whereas the participating students seemed to be on the same level in terms of textual or discourse skills, which they probably developed in the EFL classroom, the CLIL students have shown to be more proficient in terms of language competence, probably due to their higher exposure to English.

As for the questionnaires, the data obtained indicated that the participating CLIL students do not have significant advantages as opposed to the EFL students with regard to their linguistic background and extracurricular use of English. That is, the CLIL students did not receive any noteworthy previous instruction in English before entering the program. Interestingly, the EFL students even stated that they used English more frequently outside of school than the CLIL students.

6. Conclusion

This diploma thesis aimed to investigate to what extent Content and Language Integrated Learning might have an influence on students' L2 writing competence. For this purpose, the writing products of 8th grade CLIL and EFL students were compared by means of an analytical scoring method including four categories that reflected crucial dimensions of L2 writing ability. 56 students of two classrooms participated in the study, out of which one group has received CLIL instruction in addition to traditional foreign language lessons.

As a starting point, a theoretical background on Content and Language Integrated Learning was established to provide a basis for the empirical study. It has been shown that CLIL is a teaching concept that has been implemented in numerous educational institutions throughout Europe and consequently has gained importance and received considerable attention by researchers in the past years. Moreover, the advantages of CLIL have been pointed out and related to relevant learning theories, before its development in Europe in general and Austria in particular, was discussed. Lastly, as the objective of this thesis was concerned with the effects of CLIL instruction on students' L2 writing ability, a number of previously conducted studies on this issue have also been discussed in the first part of this thesis.

The second part of this thesis drew attention to various aspects related to writing in a foreign language. First, the term was defined and the importance of writing in general was discussed. Subsequently, the differences between L1 and L2 writing were explored and the development of L2 writing theories was presented. Furthermore, different scoring methods for L2 writing were compared to find a suitable method for the empirical study at hand.

Finally, after having established a theoretical framework and presented various aspects of the empirical study, its results were reported. The findings demonstrated that students' L2 writing competence seems to be positively affected by CLIL instruction. More specifically, the participating CLIL students outperformed their EFL counterparts in all the categories investigated, with considerable differences in the fields concerned with linguistic competences,

namely grammatical and lexical skills. Therefore, it can be argued that the degree to which CLIL students perform better than their EFL peers relies on the dimensions of writing competence one concentrates on. However, regarding the results of the statistical analysis, only the differences in the category of grammar were significant, even though CLIL students also performed better than EFL students in the rest of the categories, these differences cannot be regarded statistically significant.

As the data obtained by means of the questionnaires excluded that the CLIL students were already more familiar with English before entering the program, it could cautiously be argued that the advantages in terms of linguistic competences favoring CLIL students could be ascribed to their higher exposure to English at school. Likewise, due to the fact that writing only plays a minor role in the CLIL classroom and the results suggested that the participating students' have similar textual competences, it could cautiously be argued that their extra instruction in English was the reason for CLIL students' better performances regarding language competence.

However, it should be noted once more that this empirical study clearly has its limitations and the results certainly need to be treated with caution. First and foremost, it needs to be pointed out that the study was a small-scale study including only one CLIL classroom and one EFL classroom of a single school. Put differently, the study merely presents tendencies and a little insight into the reality of CLIL classrooms in Austria. Therefore, the results certainly cannot be overgeneralized or considered representative of Austrian CLIL classrooms. Another issue that might have influenced the results is the fact that the classrooms had different English teachers. Therefore, the teachers may have imposed different requirements for the students which led them to developing different aspects of L2 writing competence. Moreover, one needs to be careful when comparing the findings of the research study at hand with other CLIL or EFL classrooms in Austria and certainly other countries. That is, when it comes to comparing the results with other findings, the specific context of the programs involved needs to be taken into account as CLIL programs might differ in various respects.

Despite these limitations, the results provide valuable insights and shed considerable light on the influence of CLIL instruction on students' L2 writing competence. It has been shown that students enrolled in CLIL programs achieved higher results in the writing tests when compared to their non-CLIL counterparts, with considerable differences regarding linguistic competences (i.e. grammar and vocabulary). Consequently, it could be argued that CLIL instruction is highly beneficial for students as it supports them to develop foreign language competences by offering them more foreign language input and opportunities to use the foreign language. In conclusion, I would like to strongly argue for further and more extensive empirical research on this matter to provide more valuable insights and a more quantifiable basis for conclusions.

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8. Appendix

8.1. Information sheets for parents

Sehr geehrte Eltern (der Klasse ____),

Ich heiße Nina Bürger und bin Studentin an der Universität Wien. Im kommenden Semester werde ich mein Studium mit einer Diplomarbeit abschließen. Im Rahmen dieser Arbeit würde ich gerne eine Studie mit der Klasse Ihres Sohnes/ Ihrer Tochter durchführen. Das Ziel meiner Untersuchung ist die englische Schreibkompetenz verschiedener Klassen zu vergleichen. Die Schülerinnen und Schüler werden einen Schreibauftrag bekommen (Thema: „Write about yourself“), welchen sie in circa 20 Minuten durchführen sollten. Die Texte werden anonym bewertet und nur zur Forschung für meine Arbeit verwendet. Die Zuordnung der Ergebnisse zu einzelnen Personen ist nicht möglich. Außerdem werde ich den Schüler und Schülerinnen Fragen bezüglich Erfahrungen mit Englisch und der Selbsteinschätzung ihrer Englischkompetenz stellen.

Ich wäre Ihnen sehr dankbar wenn Sie mich unterstützen und Ihr Kind an der Untersuchung teilnehmen dürfte. Daher bitte ich Sie, den unten ausgefügten Abschnitt auszufüllen und dem Klassenlehrer oder der Klassenlehrerin zukommen zu lassen.

Wenn Sie Fragen haben, können Sie sich jederzeit per E-Mail bei mir melden.

Vielen Dank für ihre Mithilfe!

Nina Bürger

Ich bestätige, dass mein Kind _____ (Schulstufe _____) an der Erhebung zum Thema „CLIL und dessen Einfluss auf die englische Schreibkompetenz von Schüler und Schülerinnen“ teilnehmen darf:

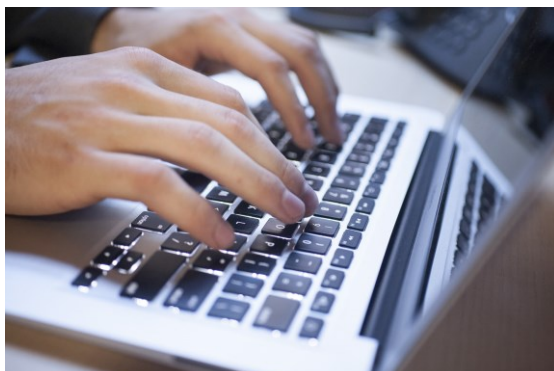
☐ ja

☐ nein

Datum, Unterschrift des/der Erziehungsberechtigten:

8.2. Writing task

Write about yourself!



Imagine your school has a partner school in England. Your teacher asked you to **write an email** to a student from your partner school telling him/her about your life:

- **Tell** the student about **yourself** (name, age, family, hobbies,...)
- **Describe** your **school** (subjects, timetable, teachers, classmates,...)
- **Ask** the student about his/her **life and school** in England

Write about **100-150 words**.

<hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>

8.3. Questionnaire

Fragebogen

Klasse: _____

Alter: _____

Geschlecht: weiblich: ____ männlich: ____

Was ist/sind deine Muttersprache/n? _____

In welchen Situationen und wie oft beschäftigst du dich außerhalb der Schule mit der englischen Sprache? Zutreffendes bitte ankreuzen.

	nie	manchmal	häufig	immer
Ich lese englische Bücher, Zeitschriften, Zeitungen, etc.				
Ich höre englische Musik				
Ich sehe englische Filme, Nachrichten, Videos, etc.				
Ich unterhalte mich auf Englisch (mit Familie, Freunden, Bekannten, etc.)				
Ich chatte in Englisch auf diversen Social-Media Plattformen (Facebook, Instagram, Snapchat, etc.)				
Ich verständige mich in Englisch auf Reisen				

Wie gut schreibst du auf Englisch? Beurteile dich anhand Schulnoten:

Sehr Gut

Gut

Befriedigend

Genügend

Nicht
Genügend

Wie oft bereiten dir die folgenden Bereiche beim Schreiben auf Englisch Schwierigkeiten? Zutreffendes bitte ankreuzen:

	nie	manchmal	häufig	immer
Wortschatz/ Vokabular				
Verstehen der Aufgabenstellung				
Grammatik				
Die vorgegebene Wortanzahl einhalten				
Ideenfindung				

Welche Note hattest du in Englisch? Trage bitte die Note deines letzten Zeugnisses ein: _____

Warum oder aus welchen Gründen hast du den bilingualen Zweig gewählt? Zutreffende Gründe bitte ankreuzen:

Ich war schon immer sehr sprachbegabt.	
Ich bin zweisprachig aufgewachsen.	
Ich lernte Englisch bereits in der Volksschule.	
Ich hatte in der Volksschule sehr gute Noten in Deutsch.	
Ich hatte bereits in der Volksschule Interesse an Fremdsprachen.	
Ich entschied mich für den bilingualen Zweig um mit meinen Freunden in der gleichen Klasse zu sein.	
Meine Eltern wollten, dass ich den bilingualen Zweig besuche.	
Ich weiß es nicht mehr.	
Andere Gründe: _____ _____	

Wenn ja, in welchen Sprachen?

Vielen Dank für deine Mitarbeit! 😊

8.4. Rating scale (based on Gassner *et al.* 2011)

Band	Task achievement	Coherence and Cohesion	Grammar	Vocabulary
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> complete task achievement all content points were mentioned and elaborated appropriate register and length 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> clear and comprehensible overall structure reasonable paragraphing good use of an appropriate number of linking devices appropriate punctuation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> good range of grammatical structures repeated use of complex grammatical structures high degree of grammatical control and few inaccuracies which do not interfere with comprehensibility meaning is clear 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> good range of vocabulary good choice of words accurate use of vocabulary and a few inaccuracies which do not interfere with comprehensibility meaning is clear
6				
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> good task achievement 85% of the content points were mentioned and two or three evaluated or all content points were mentioned and one or two elaborated register and length 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fairly clear and comprehensible overall structure some reasonable paragraphing fairly good use of an appropriate number of linking devices fairly appropriate punctuation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> mostly good range of grammatical structures sufficient number of complex grammatical structures fairly high degree of grammatical control and occasional inaccuracies which can interfere with comprehensibility meaning is mostly clear 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fairly good range of vocabulary mostly good choice of words mostly accurate use of vocabulary and a few inaccuracies which can interfere with comprehensibility meaning is mostly clear
4				
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sufficient task achievement 65% of the content points were mentioned and one or two elaborated or all content points were mentioned without elaboration register and length 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> often unclear and incomprehensible overall structure limited reasonable paragraphing frequently inaccurate use of a limited number of linking devices some punctuation errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> limited range of simple grammatical structures limited number of complex grammatical structures frequently inaccurate use of grammatical structures and frequent inaccuracies which 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> limited range of vocabulary limited choice of words frequently inaccurate use of vocabulary and frequent inaccuracies which interfere with comprehensibility meaning is sometimes unclear

			interfere with comprehensibility	
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> meaning is sometimes unclear 	
2				
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> some task achievement 50% of the content points were mentioned and not elaborated register and length 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> unclear and incomprehensible overall structure no reasonable paragraphing insufficient number of linking devices frequent punctuation errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> extremely limited range of simple grammatical structures insufficient number of complex grammatical structures limited control of grammatical structures causing frequent breakdown of communication meaning is often unclear 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extremely limited range of vocabulary poor choice of words extremely limited control of vocabulary causing frequent breakdown of communication meaning is often unclear
0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no task achievement or not enough the assess 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not enough to assess 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not enough to assess 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not enough to assess

8.5. Abstract

Writing is generally considered to occupy an important role in our daily life and it is a crucial skill for students if they are to be successful at school, at university, or in their future work place. With regard to the foreign language classroom, writing forms part of the four main skills that students need to develop and it is frequently part of exams, such as the Austrian school-leaving exam, called 'Matura'. Hence, there is no doubt that students need to develop this particular skill in the English classroom. Nevertheless, it has often been argued that writing in a foreign language constitutes a major challenge for a great number of students due to the complexity of this skill. Being able to write involves many subskills such as grammatical and lexical knowledge, composing strategies, genre or textual knowledge, as well as discourse competences.

As the underlying aim of Content and Language Integrated Learning is to simultaneously foster students' foreign language competence and their content knowledge, it can be assumed that this approach offers the students higher exposure to English. More precisely, they are provided with more language input and are offered more opportunities to practice the use of the foreign language. Consequently, it has been assumed that CLIL instruction might have a positive influence on students' L2 writing competence.

To ascertain how far CLIL instruction has an impact on students' L2 writing performance, the writing products of one group of CLIL students and one group of EFL students were evaluated by means of an analytical scoring procedure. More specifically, a rating scale, involving four categories, which focused on individual aspects of L2 writing ability, was used to find differences between CLIL and EFL students' texts. The findings finally revealed that CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in all the categories investigated, with significant differences in the field of grammar and vocabulary. Therefore, it could cautiously be concluded that CLIL instruction seems to have a positive impact on students' development of linguistic skills in the foreign language. Nevertheless, the results certainly need to be considered within the limits of a

small-scale study. In order to be able to provide more conclusive insights and quantifiable results, more research would clearly be needed.

8.6. Zusammenfassung (deutsch)

Die Fähigkeit zu schreiben spielt eine bedeutende Rolle in unserem täglichen Leben und trägt zu einem wesentlichen Bestandteil zum Erfolg von Schüler/-innen nicht nur in der Schule, sondern auch auf der Universität und im späteren Berufsleben bei. Auch in Bezug auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht ist Schreiben eine von vier grundlegenden Fähigkeiten, die Schüler/-innen in einer Fremdsprache entwickeln müssen. Es ist Bestandteil vieler Prüfungen und spielt vor allem bei der Matura eine wichtige Rolle. Aus diesem Grund ist es auch unerlässlich, dass Schüler/-innen diese Fähigkeiten in der Fremdsprache entwickeln. Aufgrund der Komplexität dieser Kompetenz stellt das Schreiben in einer Fremdsprache eine große Herausforderung für zahlreiche Schüler/-innen dar. Es involviert eine Vielzahl von sogenannten „Subskills“, wie zum Beispiel grammatikalische und lexikalische Kompetenzen, verschiedene Schreibstrategien, oder Genre-, Diskurs- sowie Textwissen.

Das gleichzeitige Fördern der Fremdsprachenkompetenzen der Schüler/-innen als auch das Erwerben der Anforderungen des Sach- und Fachunterrichts sind die wesentlichen Ziele von „Content and Language Integrated Learning“. Es wird oft davon ausgegangen, dass diese Unterrichtsmethode die Schüler/-innen zum Sprachgebrauch der englischen Sprache drängt als auch ermutigt. Genauer genommen wird Schüler/-innen vermehrt ein Sprachinput und mehr Möglichkeiten die Sprache zu verwenden und dabei zu üben geboten. Deswegen wurde angenommen, dass „CLIL“ einen positiven Einfluss auf die Entwicklung von Fremdsprachenkompetenzen der Schüler/-innen hat.

Um herauszufinden inwieweit „CLIL“ eine Auswirkung auf die Schreibkompetenz der Schüler/-innen der Fremdsprache hat, wurden Schreibprodukte einer Gruppe von Schüler/-innen im CLIL-Unterricht und einer Gruppe von Schüler/-innen ohne CLIL-Unterricht anhand einer analytischen Bewertungsmethode verglichen. Genauer genommen wurde ein Bewertungsraster, welches vier verschiedene Kategorien beinhaltet, die sich auf individuelle Dimensionen der Schreibkompetenz beziehen, verwendet, um

Unterschiede zwischen den Texten der CLIL-Schüler/innen und jener ohne CLIL-Unterricht herauszufinden.

Schlussendlich zeigten die Ergebnisse, dass die Leistungen der CLIL-Schüler/-innen jener ohne CLIL-Unterricht in allen Kategorien übertrafen, wobei vor allem in den Kategorien, welche mit genereller Sprachfähigkeit zu tun hatten (Grammatik und Lexika), klare Unterschiede festzustellen waren. Aus den zuvor angesprochenen Resultaten lässt sich schließen, dass CLIL-Unterricht einen positiven Einfluss auf die Entwicklung der Fremdsprachenkompetenz von Schüler/-innen hat. Trotzdem müssen die Ergebnisse im Rahmen dieser kleinformatischen Studie betrachtet werden und gewiss sind weitere Studien nötig um aussagekräftige Erkenntnisse zu erlangen.