CLIL : Practice

Perspectives from the Field

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CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the Field.

(2009) David Marsh and Peeter Mehisto; Dieter Wolff, Rosa Aliaga, Tuula Asikainen, María Jesús Frigols-Martin, Sue Hughes, & Gisella Langé (eds.)

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Foreword

CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the Field is another useful publication prepared by the CLIL Cascade Network (CCN). It is useful for the practitioner because it gives an interesting overview of CLIL developments from many parts of Europe and of the methodological approaches teachers are experimenting with. It is useful for the theoretician because it provides valuable insights into the functioning of different CLIL initiatives and their implications for both language and content teaching. The book thus is a testimony to the diversity of CLIL in Europe.

But the book is also – and I think this is even more important – a testimony to the integrative nature of the CLIL concept. By slightly stretching Gajo's definition of integration (he writes of the integrative nature of CLIL) one could say that "integration must be seen as a complex interactional and discursive process" which is necessary in order to advance the CLIL idea and to convince others of its pedagogic value. *CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the field* is part of this interactional and discursive process and continues the dialogue started years ago. Such a continued dialogue is necessary in order to build up and to enrich the complex concept called CLIL and to safeguard its quality.

Dieter Wolff
Essen, May 25th 2009

Introduction

This publication has grown out of cooperation among members of the CLIL Cascade Network (CCN). CCN aims to bring together people and organisations working in the field of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in order to share ideas, experiences and resources. CCN is funded by its member organisations and by the European Commission's Life Long Learning Programme.

CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the Field does not aim to be a state-of-the-art description of CLIL. It seeks to open a window on current practitioner understandings and practices in the field of CLIL in Europe. Simultaneously, these multiple perspectives provide points of reference for discussion by CLIL practitioners about CLIL practice. In particular, this book hopes to engage CCN members in a critical dialogue about what is required to develop quality CLIL programming in a variety of different contexts.

CLIL profiles from various regions help to build insight into the complexity of managing the inevitable change process involved in establishing CLIL programmes. Classroom practice and reflections on teacher training detail how members of the CCN community are working to institute CLIL. Authors point out challenges they have faced and detail some of their solutions.

We gratefully acknowledge the authors and our fellow editors, who made this publication a reality and who are concomitantly working to build an active and vibrant CCN community.

David Marsh and Peeter Mehisto
Also on behalf of Dieter Wolff, Rosa Aliaga, Tuula Asikainen, María Jesús Frigols Martín, Sue Hughes, and Gisella Langé.

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Galicia, CLIL Success in a Bilingual Community

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning is indisputably changing educational parameters in Europe, as well as in Spain's north-western region, Galicia, originally bilingual (Spanish/Galician), which is situated in a Spanish-Portuguese intercultural enclave.

In this chapter we deal with the linguistic status of present-day Galician, as well as all actions fostering additional language learning related to our successful CLIL implementation experience. The following factors have contributed to making CLIL the primary means for revitalising the learning of additional languages: the promotion of immersion programmes for students in primary and secondary education; the creation of a gradually increasing network of primary and secondary schools, as well as teacher-training programmes that include in-service training; and materials design.

Keywords: CLIL, plurilingualism, immersion, language learning, interculturality

Introduction

Galicia is a Spanish region located in the northwest of the Iberian Peninsula, bordering Portugal to the south and the Atlantic Ocean to the north and west. It is a bilingual community, since two official languages are spoken: Galician, the local language, closely related to Portuguese; and Spanish, the only official language for more than four centuries (16th to 19th centuries). The Galician language acquired an official status by the end of the 20th century and, together with Spanish, is now taught in schools within the official curriculum framework by means of an immersion educational policy aimed at language preservation.

Although Galicia shares bilingualism with Catalonia and the Basque Country, the linguistic situation is clearly different, due to its socio-cultural situation and its ties to Portuguese.

The Galician and Portuguese languages are derived from the early Galician-Portuguese language spoken in Galicia and north-of-Douro regions in Portugal and are still considered by some Galician people to be dialects of the same language. The Galician and Portuguese languages began to diverge in the Middle Ages, a development brought about by political separation. However, there remain many similarities between both languages. In fact, there is a public debate in Galicia about the local language and its relationship with Portuguese, although the general belief is that Galician is an autonomous and separated language.

In linguistic terms, the status of Galician with respect to Portuguese is controversial. Some authors (Lindley Cintra, 1984) consider that they are dialects of a common language, in spite of superficial differences in phonology and vocabulary. Others (Pilar Vázquez Cuesta, 1989) argue that they have become separate languages due to major differences in phonetics and vocabulary usage and, to a lesser extent, morphology and syntax. The official position of the Galician Language Institute is that Galician and Portuguese should be considered independent languages.

The relationship involving Galician and Portuguese can be compared with that existing between Macedonian and Bulgarian**,** or Occitan and Catalan.

Galicia has, as a result**,** experience in immersion bilingual programmes involving local languages. At present, as in most European educational systems, the Galician Educational Administrative Department is giving increasing importance to the learning of additional languages on the grounds that there is an evident need to develop citizens' plurilingual and intercultural competences within the globalisation process taking place in our present-day world.

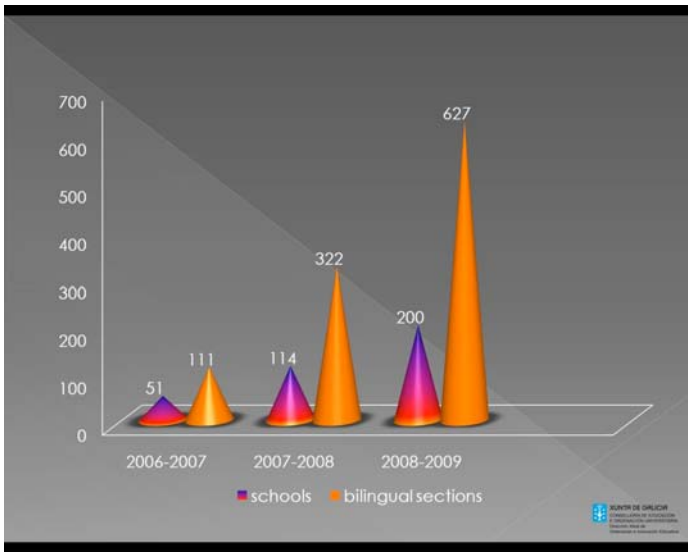
With this context in mind, this chapter addresses the analysis of all actions carried out by the Galician Administration aiming at improving additional language skills of teachers and students, focusing on CLIL implementation and all courses of action related to it.

The Special Eurobarometer on Europeans and their languages authorised by the European Commission in 2005 showed the low linguistic competence in additional languages of Spanish citizens. This is probably one of the main reasons ~~for~~ educational administrative departments promoting CLIL, and exposing students to formal teaching through the medium of an additional language.

The 2007 report of the High Level Group on Multilingualism, apart from praising the immersion policy related to Galician (and other bilingual communities' languages) curricular implementation, dealt with the general trend in several EU countries to foster educational formulae related to the teaching and learning of additional languages: on the one hand, the CLIL model and early additional language learning as general courses of action; on the other hand, motivation strategies aiming at language learning.

The Galician Educational Department**,** as with other Spanish and European departments of education**,** is putting into practice those educational initiatives regarding additional languages. Regarding early additional language learning, 90% of Galician schools are teaching English in infant education. As for language across the curriculum, CLIL is changing educational parameters insofar as it is involving the whole educational community.

Galicia CLIL pioneering experiences started in 1999 as pilot projects in some secondary schools. These pilot projects resulted in the formal regulation of the CLIL provision through several directives (San Isidro, 2008). The CLIL Galician model consists in teaching non-linguistic subjects by means of integrating additional languages in a progressive way. The name attributed to these classes is bilingual sections. So what the Galician educational system has is subjects taught on a bilingual basis (Additional Language-Galician or Additional Language-Spanish), not bilingual schools with an integrated curriculum. The educational regulation of CLIL teaching in Galicia has run parallel to the gradually increasing number of schools taking part in CLIL programmes - from the initial 12 secondary schools to the present-day 200 primary and secondary schools with 600 bilingual sections.



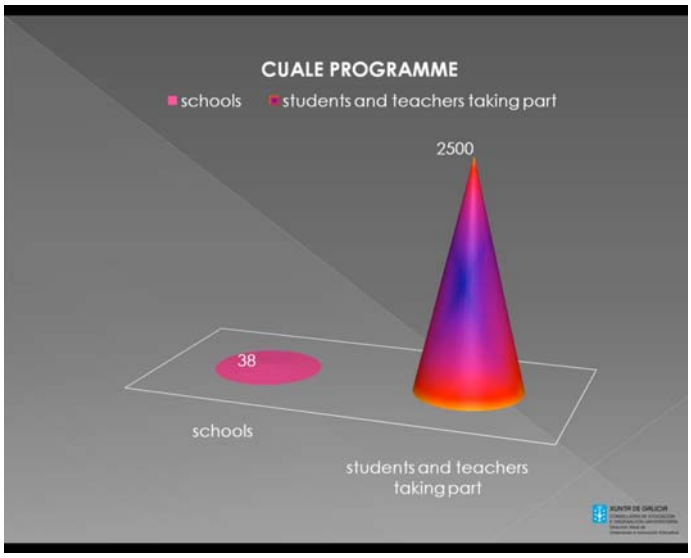
This increase has been brought about by the “Plan de Linguas” (Plan of action aiming at fostering the learning of environmental and additional languages, with a real substantial investment on the part of the government), which has obviously boosted CLIL implementation. What is clear is that all the following actions have contributed to improving the linguistic competence of both teachers and students and, above all, motivating them to understand additional languages as something instrumental in their life-long learning:

I. Cuale Programme

This is a programme aimed at complementing formal additional language teaching and making students and teachers aware of the need to improve their linguistic competence in additional languages. Classes are given by AL (Additional Language) teachers in public secondary schools outside of regular school hours. Three main groups are targeted at**:**

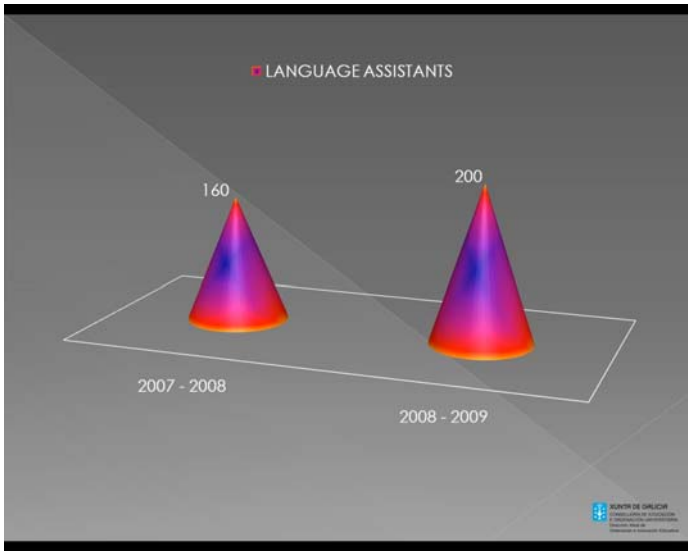
a) students in secondary education (CUALE-ESO), aiming at complementing curricular AL teaching;
b) vocational training students (CUALE-FP), aiming at future mobilisation of workers;
c) teachers (CUALE-PROF), aiming at motivating all kinds of teachers to learn additional languages.

By 2008 there were 38 schools offering the programme and 2,500 students and teachers participating.



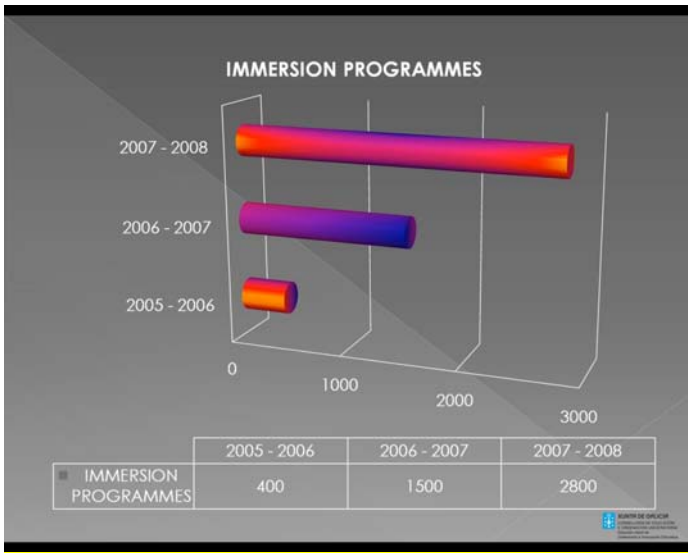
II. Language Assistants

Apart from the Comenius language assistants and the assistants provided by the Spanish Ministry of Education, the Galician Educational Department has signed agreements with the three Galician universities to provide schools with a total of 160 Erasmus students from various countries to work as language assistants thus bringing multilingualism into the classroom. Schools with bilingual sections are given priority in the distribution of language assistants.



III. Summer Immersion Programmes

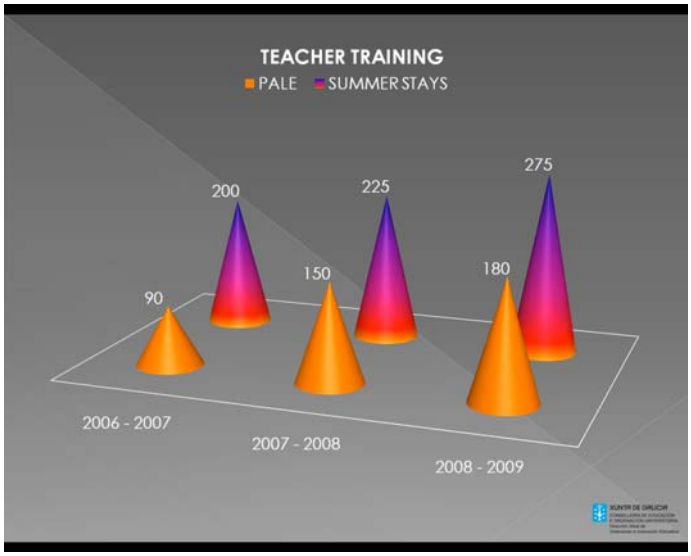
Aiming primarily at motivating students towards foreign language learning, the Galician summer immersion programmes are addressed at students in primary, secondary and post-compulsory secondary education. They consist of stays in bilingual camps in Spain or residential stays abroad. So far, the target countries have been Canada, United Kingdom, Ireland and France. The increase in the number of scholarships has been as follows: 300 in 2006; 1,500 in 2007; and 2,800 in 2008.



IV. Teacher Training

In-service teacher training was considered to be a key aspect, not only regarding linguistic competence but also in terms of methodology update. New training programmes were needed so as to motivate and prepare teachers to face the new challenges of building the plurilingual and intercultural identity of present-day Europe. Apart from regional conferences aiming at making CLIL a widespread concept, other training possibilities have been designed.

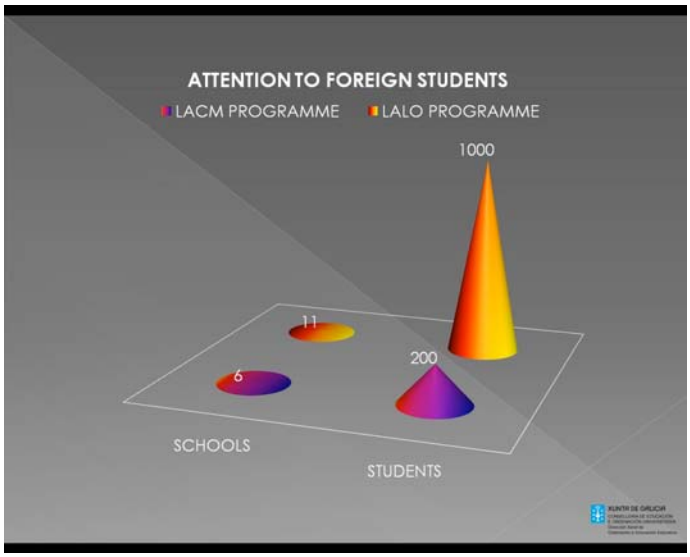
In line with the European guidelines, the PALE (programme supporting the teaching and learning of additional languages) was created in 2006. It consists of three stages: one-month of training focusing on linguistic competence; 3-weeks of training in the United Kingdom and France focusing on language, methodology and job shadowing; and a two-week stage in which teachers are provided with ICT tools in order to adapt and develop materials to use in their classes. The programme targets three main groups of in-service teachers: teachers of English in early language teaching, teachers of English and French in primary education and CLIL teachers. The programme has a double benefit: on the one hand, it focuses on teacher training and, on the other hand, it has a real impact on the classroom. Besides the PALE programme, through which more than 400 in-service teachers will have been trained by 2009, there exists another training programme: immersion summer stays, consisting of one-month immersion training in Ireland, Germany, France and Portugal.



V. Attention to Foreign Students

In the unifying globalisation process, regional and minority languages have to play an important role in the construction of a united Europe that allows for diversity by differences. The Galician Administration favours the incorporation of pupils from foreign countries in the educational system, especially those of compulsory school age, designing a number of interventions of a general nature to provide supplementary attention to immigrant pupils to aid their integration in the system. The Galician Educational Department has committed itself to foster plurilingualism:

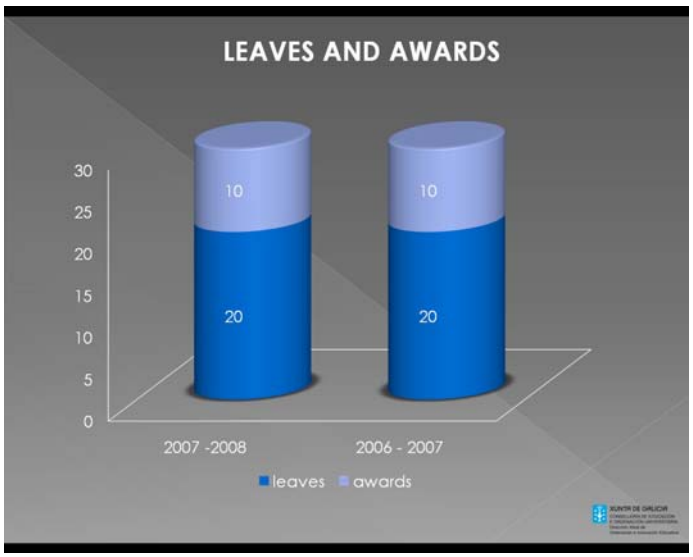
- through the promotion of European Programmes;
- through the intercultural LALO Programme, aiming to maintain the linguistic and cultural reference points of the children of Portuguese workers and immigrants, as well as promoting interest and respect among Galician pupils for other cultures. In kindergarten and primary school, the teaching of Portuguese is a part of the normal curriculum, via "integrated classes" in which Portuguese and Galician teachers teach the whole class together, or in "simultaneous classes" (in which the Portuguese teacher teaches the members of the group who have chosen to participate in the programme). Furthermore, these schools organise other complementary activities such as exchanges and study visits, cultural weeks and Portuguese Clubs.
- through the LACM Programme, which has the following objectives: to teach Moroccan culture and the Arabic language to Moroccan pupils who are being taught in Galician schools; to integrate these pupils into the Galician educational system and to promote intercultural education. There are two systems: in schools with few Moroccan pupils, teaching is provided outside school time; there is one Moroccan teacher for several schools; when schools have a large number of Moroccan students, teaching is provided during school time and there is usually one teacher for each school.



VI. Leaves and Awards

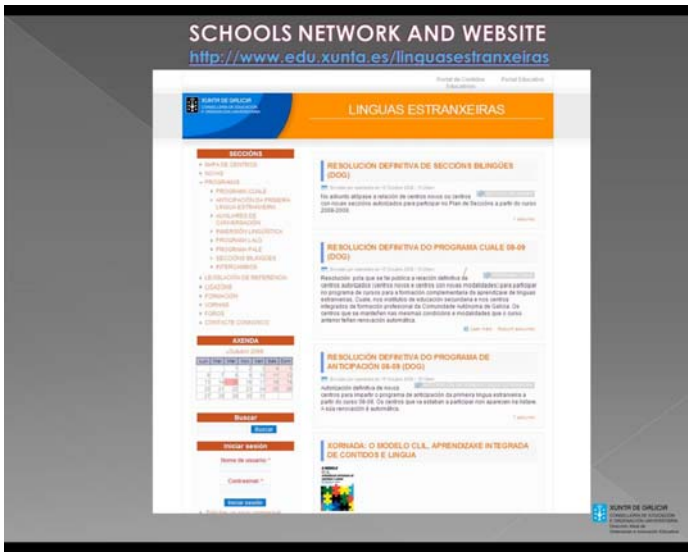
Besides all the aforementioned actions, two more motivating strategies have been designed:

1) 2-month paid leaves for AL and CLIL teachers to design their own training abroad (20 per year)
2) CLIL materials design awards to boost creation and sharing of CLIL curricular materials (10 per year)



VII. Schools Network and Web Site

We are in a period of educational change that is running parallel to continuous technological development. Intimately connected to the AL educational policy is the Galician Additional Languages Website (www.edu.xunta.es/linguasestranxeiras), which is a web platform for all actions related to AL carried out in Galicia, aimed at creating a real schools network: interactive maps, materials designed by teachers, resources, links, message boards, teacher's moodles, and so on.



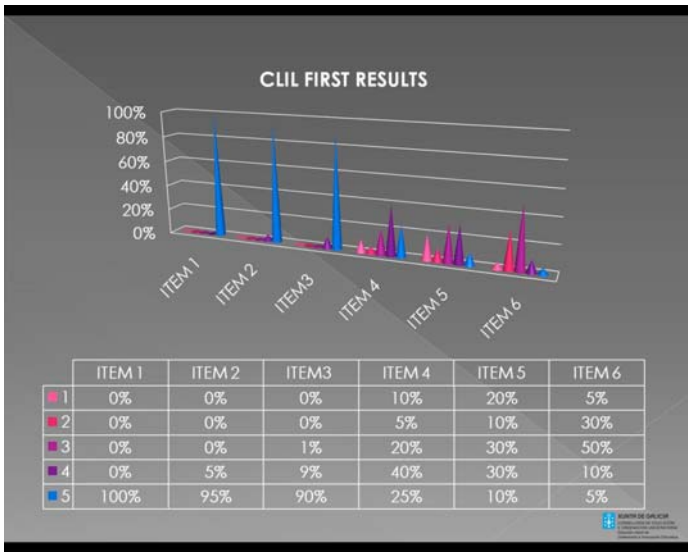
CLIL Success in the Galician Context?

In terms of motivation and the increasing number of schools and teachers involved, we can talk about success in CLIL implementation. But there remains much to do. General objective testing analysing linguistic results is still necessary to check the 'purported benefits of CLIL' (Lasagabaster, 2008).

In June 2008 a pilot 30-item questionnaire was sent to CLIL teachers in 114 schools with the following CLIL-related items focusing on student's results. The teachers marked items from 1 to 5. The tool and the subsequent teachers' analyses, although limited in scope has served as a good starting point. The CLIL-related items were:

1) Students' motivation towards additional languages has increased.
2) Broadly speaking, students have improved their oral comprehension and expression in the AL.
3) Broadly speaking, students have improved their written comprehension and expression in the AL.
4) Students have improved their performance in CLIL subjects.
5) Broadly speaking, students have improved their linguistic competence in the two local languages.
6) Students' interest in other cultures has increased.

Results



	ITEM 1	ITEM 2	ITEM3	ITEM 4	ITEM 5	ITEM 6
1	0%	0%	0%	10%	20%	5%
2	0%	0%	0%	5%	10%	30%
3	0%	0%	1%	20%	30%	50%
4	0%	5%	9%	40%	30%	10%
5	100%	95%	90%	25%	10%	5%

Results seem to be quite positive, above all in items related to motivation and AL improvement (items 1 to 3). Evidence in items 4 to 6 related to CLIL subjects, environmental languages and foreign culture show more varied results, although positive as well.

This questionnaire is a first step towards a general testing that will take place in 2009 to check the results of CLIL students in comparison to non-CLIL groups.

Effort, involvement and investment on the part of the Galician Educational Department, the 'Plan de Linguas' has made it possible to see the first successful results regarding CLIL implementation and the revitalisation of additional language learning.

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The CLIL Approach in Irish Primary Schools; A Multilingual Perspective

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Abstract

The Primary School Curriculum (1999) in the Republic of Ireland has integrated learning as one of its key principles. It also takes into consideration the transfer of learning and the centrality of language in the learning process, among other key concepts. It is recommended that the Irish language be integrated into other areas of the curriculum. Modern Languages (either French, German, Spanish or Italian) are now provided in approximately 17% of primary schools. The links between Modern Languages (ML) and the rest of the curriculum have been made explicit to ML teachers during CLIL in-service training. Among the principles of that curriculum, it is stated that the approach should be an integrated one where effective links can be made between language awareness, communicative competence and cultural awareness, as well as other areas of the curriculum. This paper seeks to examine the possibilities for the multilingual relationship between Irish, English, the ML and the rest of the curriculum to continue its development in an Irish context.

Keywords: English as an Additional Language EAL; modern language pedagogy; multilingualism; curriculum; integrated learning

Introduction

Ireland has long been a linguistically diverse society. It has two official languages, Irish (Gaeilge) and English, and is also the home of a number of other native languages, including Ulster Scots, Irish Sign language, and Gammon or Cant (a language historically known to and used by Irish Travellers). Both English and Gaeilge play an important role in Irish identity and society. The Primary School Curriculum (1999) notes that an experience in both languages is the right of every child. Indeed, these two languages reflect Irish historic experience. It is a particular feature of Irish primary education that children have experience of learning two languages from the very beginning of their primary schooling at the age of four or five (NCCA, 2005b).

This paper seeks to examine the CLIL approach which is already inherent to the Primary School Curriculum (PSC), and where there may be scope for further development. To that end, the following aspects of the PSC will be examined in turn:

- CLIL as an approach to teaching Gaeilge;
- CLIL as an approach to teaching Modern Languages;
- CLIL as an integrative approach to providing English as an Additional Language (taking the first language - L1 - into consideration).

These approaches will be situated within the framework of the overarching principles and background of the PSC.

Schools and the PSC in the Republic of Ireland

There are 3 301 primary school education providers in Ireland (DES, 2008). This includes schools under the patronage of the Roman Catholic Church, multi-denominational schools, schools of other diverse religions, schools for children with special educational needs and so on. The majority of schools in Ireland are English-medium schools, where pupils have English as L1 and learn Gaeilge as L2 for three and a half hours per week. A third language (L3) is provided for ten to twelve year olds for one and a half hours per week in the form of the Modern Languages in Primary Schools Initiative (MLPSI). This will be discussed further in the following section.

However, there has been a rise in the number of schools providing immersion education through Gaeilge. In Ireland, a Gaelscoil is a school where the primary language of instruction is Gaeilge and takes the form of early total immersion. Approximately five percent (139) of schools in Ireland are Gaelscoileanna (plural of Gaelscoil). Most pupils attending a Gaelscoil have English as L1 and Gaeilge as L2.

The PSC was introduced in 1999 as a replacement of the previous curriculum documents of 1971. While launched in 1999, it has been implemented on an incremental basis since then, through the provision of in-service training to practising teachers. It is still often referred to anecdotally as the 'new' or 'revised' curriculum. The body responsible for the implementation, the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA), has engaged in a reviewing process of the curriculum since 2003.

The PSC incorporates seven general areas, each subdivided further into specific subject areas as follows:

1. Language (Gaeilge and English)
2. Mathematics
3. Social, Environmental and Scientific Education (History, Geography and Science)
4. Arts Education (Drama, Music and Visual Arts)
5. Physical Education
6. Social, Personal and Health Education
7. Religious Education.

Each child has a right to education in all of these areas, and Gaeilge is compulsory for all children, except in special circumstances where an exemption may be sought. It is also essential that all teachers have a high level of competence in Gaeilge, even for initial matriculation in the Bachelor of Education degree course.

Furthermore, as mentioned previously, Modern Languages (French/ German/ Spanish/ Italian) was added to the Language section of the curriculum as a pilot project in 1998, with curricular guidelines following in 1999. This is now an Initiative (MLPSI), with approximately 500 schools participating in the current year (Dillon and O'Rourke, 2008).

The PSC (1999) recognises the use of CLIL, although that particular terminology is not used. It is rather referred to as 'integration' or 'linkage', and is part of the general ethos of the curriculum. It is most apparent within the key principles which state as follows:

- language is central in the learning process;
- learning is most effective when it is integrated;
- skills that facilitate the transfer of learning should be fostered.
  (NCCA, 1999a)

All of these principles are central to the meaning of CLIL. Many of the key issues outlined are also relevant to CLIL as an approach:

- developing a sense of Irish identity;
- the place of the Irish language in primary education;
- pluralism, a respect for diversity and the importance of tolerance;
- the function of the curriculum in contributing to equality and fairness.
  (NCCA, 1999a)

As the primary school curriculum is spiral, CLIL can be used for revisiting and consolidating knowledge, concepts and skills, as well as transferring knowledge, concepts and skills learned in another subject area over to a new context.

When it comes to the Irish language, it is also recognised that the language is used naturally in the school environment, and should be accessible to all, as the following quotation shows:

> Learning another language can also contribute to the recognition and value of diversity. In schools where English is the medium of instruction it is valuable for all children to see Irish as a natural means of communication in the daily life of the class and the school. This is accomplished through the informal use of Irish throughout the day. All children, irrespective of their ethnicity or first language, can be supported in understanding commonly used phrases in the class and school through the use of these phrases in structured routines, and through the use of pictures, demonstration or other gesture. (NCCA, 2005b: 163)

This point is reinforced by David Little, when he mentions that language is larger than other school subjects, for it is through language that all other subject matter is communicated. He is also of the opinion that "Irish should be the starting point for the plurilingual development of the majority of Ireland's citizens" (Little, 2006: 7).

CLIL as an approach to teaching Gaeilge

There are two aspects in an examination of CLIL within the teaching of Gaeilge; the use of CLIL in English-medium schools, and in Gaelscoileanna. Each will be dealt with in turn.

Within English-medium schools, the emphasis of the Gaeilge curriculum is on communication and use of the language as a natural, living language. The emphasis is on fluency in speech and expanding the communicative competence of the child in general. 'The learning of Gaeilge will enable the child to communicate in two languages' [i](NCCA, 1999c). As well as discrete time for Gaeilge, schools are encouraged to include Gaeilge in the general ethos of the school and as part of an integrated approach. The integrated approach involves some of the following [ii]:

- Using Irish terminology
- Praising the children
- Giving instructions during lessons
- As a language of instruction in strands of other subjects
  (NCCA, 1999c)

The final point, use as a language of instruction, is also a recommendation made by Harris (2006). At the end of each strand of the curriculum, a number of suggestions are provided so that teachers can integrate Gaeilge with other curricular areas. Examples include: Physical Education in the areas of native games and traditional dancing; Social, Environmental and Scientific Education, where links can be made by referring to geographical place names, Irish history and native habitats; Arts Education, linkage could be made with Music, particularly in the area of traditional instruments, or with Visual Arts in terms of the language used to describe produced works; in Mathematics, Gaeilge may be used for problem-solving or in the area of number and so on. These are just some examples from a wide variety of suggestions offered for linkage opportunities throughout the curriculum. Topic webs for integration are also provided, for example the integrated theme of Pastimes – Keeping a pet (e.g. (NCCA, 1999c).

In Gaelscoileanna, all subjects are taught through Gaeilge, except for English. The language of communication within the school is Gaeilge. The variety of practice in relation to the introduction of language and literacy in Gaelscoileanna was highlighted in a recent report:

> ... many Gaelscoileanna adopt *tumoideachas* or early total immersion as an approach to language learning, for all or part of junior infants, whilst some delay the introduction of English until sometime in senior infants. Other Gaelscoileanna adopt a partial immersion approach where English is taught for 2½ hours per week.
> (NCCA, 2007: 10)

This type of bilingual education is a strong version of CLIL in practice, whereby all content is taught through the medium of the target language. In the CLIL classroom the teaching of core concepts and skills as well as knowledge and attitudes contained in the general curriculum are addressed simultaneously with the teaching of language skills. In immersion teaching the teacher does not focus on the teaching of language skills. The chosen language is taught as if it was the first language of the students. In the immersion experience, pupils absorb the language through the teaching of content.

CLIL as an approach to teaching Modern Languages

With regard to the teaching of ML in the primary school, CLIL can be viewed as a natural extension and merging of two methodological approaches recommended in the Draft Curriculum Guidelines and Teacher Guidelines of the Modern Languages in Primary Schools Initiative. These are as follows:

- Teaching through the target language;
- Using a cross-curricular approach.

Any school that chooses to participate in the Initiative may offer one ML for up to ninety minutes per week to fifth and sixth classes (10-12 year olds). The ML curriculum is divided into three strands – Communicative Competence, Language Awareness and Cultural Awareness (NCCA, 1999d). The recommended ninety minutes is to be taken from the two hours of discretionary time allocated within the PSC. However, it is proving more and more difficult for class teachers to find the required time to teach the ML. Both visiting teachers and mainstream / class teachers participate in the MLPSI, although it is becoming more common for class teachers to facilitate this.

One study has shown that visiting teachers are far more likely to teach for the required time. Overall, 69.4% of all ML teachers, whether mainstream or visiting, were found to teach for ninety minutes per week (Dillon, 2005). For this reason, the CLIL approach should be a more feasible option for class teachers. The ML teacher who is a staff teacher is already familiar with the primary curriculum and will instinctively see opportunities and possibilities for cross-curricular integration. This is an obvious advantage in planning for a CLIL approach. However, it is important to remember that a CLIL approach is possible also for the visiting teacher, given appropriate time for collaboration and planning with the class teacher. CLIL is an approach being recommended by the Project Leaders within the MLPSI during CPD.

Ireland is one of the few countries in EU where ML is not compulsory at Primary school. A report on the feasibility of providing ML within the curriculum (NCCA, 2005a) was recently published. However, recommendations made included not making a decision until the 'revised' curriculum was fully implemented (by 2007). A number of pilot projects have now been put in place that will examine the feasibility of various models of ML teaching, as follows (NCCA, 2005a):

- an intensive professional development programme for teachers;
- content language integrated learning (CLIL);
- networking of schools at local level;
- language awareness;
- an earlier start.

Clearly, the formalised CLIL approach is one of the projects being piloted at the moment. It should be noted that there has been some nationally recognised success regarding CLIL in the primary school. For example, a project entitled "The use of CLIL in teaching Physical education through French to primary school children" won the European Award for Languages in 2007[iii].

CLIL as an Integrative Approach within English as an Additional Language

Ireland's society is becoming increasingly diverse – for example, there are currently more native speakers of Polish than of Gaeilge (Debaene, 2007). There is of course a need for English language instruction, which is being provided both informally and formally in primary schools. Ethnolinguistic minority children who meet certain criteria receive Language Support for up to two years. For the most part, this means that the pupils are withdrawn from the mainstream classroom in small groups to focus specifically on the English language for up to two hours per week. As CLIL includes immersion education, the high density CLIL approach is being used to immerse the learners in English within the mainstream classroom. The CLIL approach is recognized in national policy documents, although again that particular terminology is not used. The following quotation speaks for itself in offering teachers an understanding of what should be provided by teachers.

> Learners of a second language may be able to function very well in some areas of the curriculum if teachers are aware of their needs, and provide an appropriate learning environment in which they can learn new content and skills while developing their knowledge of the language of instruction at the same time. Consequently, it is important that teachers would present material that is not only cognitively demanding but also context embedded. This includes ensuring that stories and instructions are accompanied by actions and visual aids that provide a context for understanding what is taught.
> (NCCA, 2005b: 165)

One thing that is missing from all this is the fact that there should be a place for the recognition and maintenance of the children's heritage language (HL) within the school, and possibly a need for mother tongue support. Cummins tells us that "in minority language situations a prerequisite for attaining a higher threshold level of bilingual competence is maintenance of L1 skills" (1979). This has been addressed by many other researchers since then, among them Yagmur et al. (1999), Janik (1996) and Clyne and Kipp (1997). Language support, however, does not explicitly account for the value the home language may hold. HL support is not being provided for formally in Irish schools, although the issue is addressed briefly in some documents. The NCCA (2006) acknowledges the fact that children who are literate in their home language should be given opportunities for sustaining and developing this literacy. In terms of language awareness, it is accepted that whatever the child's home language, the skills learnt already will be transferable to learning English. The following recommendation is also made:

> Children's first languages continue to be important in their linguistic, social, and cognitive development. Therefore it is important that the school would use every opportunity to respect the children's native languages and encourage continued development of these languages, where possible.
> (NCCA, 2005b: 165).

Conclusion

The NCCA has stated that it will consider various approaches to developing language and literacy in general in primary schools, such as the adoption of CLIL or the inclusion of the ML "… in the primary school in the advice that the NCCA will provide on the place of modern languages in primary schools following the implementation of the *Primary School Curriculum* (1999)" (NCCA, 2007: 19).

Various approaches to CLIL have been considered within the Irish context, and it can be seen that it is an inherent approach in the PSC, albeit that the terminology used does not make explicit reference to CLIL. While recommendations have been made by policy makers that point to the promotion of CLIL as an approach in general, there is certainly much more research required within the Irish primary school context[iv]. Language is "one of the most important cultural core values" (Smolicz, cited in Phillipson et al., 1995: 7). To this end, the CLIL approach can be seen as useful within a Language Awareness programme: in order to increase the multilingualism of our diverse society and preserve the vitality of native Irish languages as well as the heritage languages of ethnolinguistic minority children. According to

Hornberger (2003), multiple languages and cultures are inherently valuable for society. One place in which to start increasing awareness of these languages and harness multilingualism in any society is within the primary school. It is hoped that with further research, the CLIL approach will assist practitioners in facilitating multilingual classrooms.

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[i] The original text is as follows: *"Is ar chumarsáid agus ar úsáid na teanga mar ghnáth-theanga bheo a leagtar béim sa churaclam Gaeilge. Tá béim ann ar líofacht cainte agus ar leathnú chumas cumarsáide an pháiste i gcoitinne. Cuirfidh foghlaim na Gaeilge ar chumas an pháiste cumarsáid a dhéanamh in dhá theanga"*

[ii] The original text is as follows: *"Chomh maith leis sin déanfar comhtháthú le hábhair eile anois is arís trí na téarmaí Gaeilge a úsáid, trí na páistí a mholadh, agus trí threoracha a thabhairt le linn na gceachtanna. Moltar an Ghaeilge a úsáid mar theanga theagaisc i snáitheanna de na hábhair eile.*

[iii] For more information, please see www.leargas.ie.

[iv] A research project is currently being carried out entitled "CLIL in Irish Primary Schools: A New Approach to the Development of Language and Intercultural Awareness". This is funded by Mary Immaculate College Seed Funding 2008/ 2009. Project co-ordinators are Dr. Sabine Egger, Anna Dillon and Máire Ní Neachtain,

Implementation of CLIL in Castilla-La Mancha (Spain) and teacher training

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Abstract

This article is the result of the first stage of ongoing research in schools in the region of Castilla La-Mancha, a non bilingual region located in the centre of Spain, in order to ascertain the extent to which CLIL has been established as part of the general curriculum. We analysed schools of primary and secondary education in Cuenca, one of the region's provinces, and contacted the teachers responsible for the "Secciones Europeas" programme in a number of state primary schools and secondary education centres of the other four provinces which make up the region (Albacete, Ciudad Real, Guadalajara and Toledo). Through contact with the regional Department of Education responsible for the programme we have drawn general conclusions as to how it is currently being carried out, and, having identified the weaknesses, propose some recommendations for organization, teacher training and future implementation, all of which will be followed up in a second phase of research.

Key words: CLIL, Castilla-La Mancha (Spain), "Secciones Europeas", primary and secondary schools, teacher training

Introduction

The foreign language teaching situation in Spain is currently subject to different laws of education for each stage: the *LOE* in the first cycle of Primary Education (6-8), and the *LOGSE* in the second and third cycle (8-12) of Primary Education and Compulsory Secondary Education (12-16). The cycle of non compulsory education, (Infant Education) for pupils from 3 to 6 years, comes under the *Royal Decree* of 23rd April, 2004.

Although the laws are made by the Spanish State Government, modifications in the contents and curriculum for each cycle of children's education are performed by each Autonomous Community Region. It is understood that the modifications tend to adopt European Union recommendations, such as those contained in the Sigma Project of 1995 and in the Action Plan for 2004-2006.

Two bilingual communities, Catalonia and the Basque Country, have been implementing CLIL through English, their respective regional languages and Castilian since the mid 1990s.

Castilla-La Mancha first introduced bilingual programmes in 1996 when the Spanish Ministry of Education signed agreements with the British Council and the French Government regarding the establishment of "bilingual" education programmes in state schools**.** This resulted in two separate programmes: Spanish-English and Spanish-French, which were implemented in a limited number of schools in the region.

In 2005, the central government of Spain transferred responsibility for education to the autonomous government, *Junta de Comunidades de Castilla-La Mancha (JCCM)*, and thus the bilingual agreement also became their responsibility. The *JCCM* government extended the MEC-British Council Agreement to 2010, and in 2006 they introduced a new project, *Secciones Europeas* (DOCM, 7-02-2005), which allowed other schools to join in the bilingual programmes.

During the period 1996-2005, only 7 primary schools of the region joined the MEC-British Council Agreement. This number has risen to 73 schools in the academic year 2008-2009, of which 28 are Primary Education Schools, and 28 are Secondary Education Schools (DOCM 93, 04/05/07, www.educa.jccm.es/educa-jccm/cm/educa_jccm).

As can be inferred, the use of *bilingual* refers to the teaching of the curriculum through a foreign language, and not instruction through a second language of the region (Van Essen, A. 1998; Marsh, D. 1998), as Castilla-La Mancha has only Castilian as its official language.

In this study we focus on the schools of primary and secondary education of Castilla-La Mancha where the foreign language of choice is English, and therefore the contents are taught in English. However, schools teaching through French as a foreign language have also been analysed in terms of the implementation of programmes and teacher training.

Current teacher training

Until 2005, training for teachers was provided by the British Council in its centre for languages at the Alcalá de Henares University. It also supplied advisors for the English programme in the Spanish state schools. The British Council also offered non compulsory INSET training and visits to schools of primary or secondary education in the UK.

Given that these services offered by the British Council entailed considerable expense for the *JCCM,* the autonomous government introduced the new programme *Secciones Europeas* into the region. This allowed the training for teachers to be provided through collaboration between the Ministry of Education of the central government of Spain and the regional Education Authority: *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* of the *JCCM*. The program is known by the acronym *PALE*, which stands for *Programa de Apoyo al Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras*. (www.educa.jccm.es). It consists of:

> 1: a one month intensive language course in the Official Spanish School of Languages, *Escuela Oficial de idiomas*;
> 2: about three days of INSET training in methodologies for teaching contents through a foreign language;
> 3: a stay of at least two weeks in a primary or secondary school in a country where the target language is spoken**.**

The first part of the training program is intended to provide teachers with enough knowledge of the target language to teach in this language. The second part is carried out in centres that provide teachers with INSET training called *C.E.P. (Centro de Profesores).* It permits them to be in contact with teachers belonging to centres where the programme has been implemented enables them to share in-class experiences and useful information. Finally, they spend a job-shadowing period abroad, learning about teaching methodologies and resources in use there.

The three phases of the training take place in the first year of participation in the programme. The level of English required does not allow teachers with a low level of knowledge of the target language to enter the programme.

Teachers' Qualifications

Primary school teachers

In order to achieve Qualified Teacher Status and enter the teaching profession in Spain, university graduates of Educational Sciences and those with a Teaching Diploma have to sit a competitive state exam called *Concurso oposición al cuerpo de maestros de educación infantil y primaria.* The exam is organised, usually once every two years, by the Department of Education of the autonomous government, and information relating to requirements and contents of the exam is included in the official bulletin **(***Diario Oficial de Castilla-La Mancha*, *DOCM* for abbreviation**)**. The most recent bulletin containing these details was published 26th March, 2007 (http://docm.jccm.es).

There are no prerequisites regarding foreign language skills except for those intending to be specialist foreign language teachers. There is no special category for bilingual school teachers as it is considered to be an integral part of primary school education**.** Candidates must first enter the general body of *maestros*, or at least pass the first exam. If they are specialists of a foreign language, this is indicated with a code number which shows that they are available to be called as replacement or supply teachers in bilingual schools.

Secondary school teachers

Entering the teaching profession at secondary school is also by competitive state exam, the requirements for which are to have a degree in any subject, Biology, History, English, Chemistry, etc; and to have obtained a Post-Graduate Certificate in Education**.**

There is no specific exam category for access to bilingual schools because bilingual programmes are considered a general part of secondary education. The newly-qualified teachers must first enter the body of *profesores de educación secundaria*, or at least pass the first exam. The secondary teachers indicate the highest course of the *Escuela oficial de idiomas* they have passed in order to testify their skills in foreign languages, and certificates of international language exams are also considered a bonus.

Current Implementation of CLIL in Schools of Castilla-La Mancha

a. Primary Schools

a.1. Compulsory education

Each primary school wanting to take part in the bilingual programme since 2005 has had to go through a two-step approval system: firstly by the teaching staff of the school, called *claustro*; and secondly by the school board, *consejo escolar* in Spanish*,* composed of the management team, a member of the administration services, and a proportionate number of teachers and parents.

The application appoints a team of teachers**,** usually English teachers, to be responsible for the leadership of the programme. Competence in a second language is not yet required for all primary teachers in Spain, which is not in line with the recommendation of the European Action Plan for Languages 2004-2006.

When the school team of teachers needs help with the implementation of the programme, the *JCCM Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* provides assessment and arranges collaboration from other teachers who have been involved in the implementation of bilingual programmes at other schools, and can therefore offer advice.

Generalist primary teachers can teach any subject ranging from Mathematics, Spanish, Social and Environmental Sciences. In addition to foreign languages, Music, Art and Physical Education are taught by specialist teachers.

The schools we have contacted based the selection of the subjects to be taught in English on the individual skills of the teachers interested in the bilingual programme. Most of them have chosen English, and as non linguistic disciplines (NLD), Environmental Science and either Art or Music.

English is always one of the subjects taught in English, which may seem a rather odd notion. Not so if one takes into account that in most primary schools in Spain (Navés, T. 1998), the English subject class is not conducted in English but in Spanish and only the specific exercises performed by pupils are corrected in the target language. This methodology entails 4 sessions of 45 minutes per week, of which only 40% is taught in English. In real terms, this means that the contact time with English for a pupil is reduced to just 40% of the class time at best.

The time distribution of English-Spanish that most of the schools involved in the bilingual programme apply is the following: 100% in English for English as a second language, and a distribution between 60% and 40%, or 50% and 50% English-Spanish, for the other two subjects which are non linguistic disciplines. The contact time with English is dramatically higher when compared with schools outside the programme, and this contributes positively to the final outcome.

a.2. Non compulsory education

Pupils of ages from 3 to 6 years are enrolled in primary schools in *Educación Infantil*. This cycle does not have a subject distribution like primary schools. In this cycle, the schools involved in the bilingual programme develop the initial sessions, called Assemblies, in English. This is the time when teachers receive pupils and talk about the organization of the day, sing English songs, and use simple questions and expressions with pupils. They have English classes as well, that amount to two or three sessions of about 45 minutes with 100% English exposure. The contact time with English for this age range is also crucially higher when compared with the two-three sessions of 45 minutes per week that other schools have, with much less than 50% of this time dedicated to using English as a vehicular language. It is widely known that in the early years (Muñoz, C. 1999) it is very important to be exposed to other languages and cultures in order to favour the assimilation of this information in later stages of the child's life.

b. Secondary Schools

The steps to follow for a secondary school to enter the programme are the same as for primary as regards approvals and choice of teachers in charge of the bilingual programme. The age of pupils enrolled in these schools ranges from 12 to 16 years, covering 4 years of *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria* up to the school leaving age.

At secondary level, the teachers are not generalist teachers but subject specialists. All of them have a major in a specific subject such as Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, History, French, English, etc., but additional foreign languages skills are not required. The choice of subjects taught in English therefore depends very much on the foreign language competence of the individual teachers working at the school, and, as a result, a higher variation of subjects taught in English was found among the secondary schools contacted. All include English, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences, but a few schools have chosen Review Sessions, Music and Art, or Technology.

The English contact time amounts to about 5 sessions of 50 minutes per week with 100% exposure in English as English subject classes. In the NLD, the contact with English amounts to about 6 sessions of 50 minutes per week for Natural and Social Sciences, tending to be in the ratio of 70%-30% English-Spanish usage, except for one school where teachers use 100% English in these subjects. There are also 3 more sessions lasting the same time for each of the other three NLD considered.

The team of secondary teachers in charge of the programme is always composed of the English teachers, and those of other subjects who consider themselves able to teach his/her subject in English. Official certifications of language skills are not required to proceed with the programme.

As in primary schools, if there is a group of teachers in secondary schools interested in going ahead with the bilingual programme and who need some assessment, the *JCCM* government provides support with the personal resources required.

Conclusions on the current implementation

a. Primary schools

The implementation currently being carried out in primary schools is following the scheme well and involving foreign language teachers that are also general teachers and who teach content through the foreign language.

However, it is evident that not all teachers entering state schools of Castilla-La Mancha fulfil the requirements of the Action Plan 2004-2006 regarding competence of a second language for university students. The Action Plan also makes a recommendation that students "should study abroad, preferably in a foreign language, for at least one term, and should gain accepted language qualifications as part of their degree course". This recommendation is not met either by older teachers or by more than 80% of students of the Schools of *Magisterio* (Teacher Training). For instance, in a typical Primary School of Castilla-La Mancha, out of a set of about 30 teachers in the school, only those specialized in foreign languages can speak a foreign language fluently, which amounts to 5 or 6 members of staff. This means that 15-20% of teachers speak English fluently; the rest cannot speak a foreign language.

The greatest problem seems to arise when the teachers initially concerned with the bilingual programme in the school need to be replaced for some reason. There is a lack of qualified teachers that fit this profile. It could be due to the fact that the diploma of *maestro* in the *Escuela Magisterio* of the University of Castilla-La Mancha, and of any other Spanish University, does not as yet include any course related to bilingual education as part of the regular curriculum.

Therefore, the main drawback we observe is the lack of or low number of teachers qualified to take part in bilingual programmes in state schools. About 25% of the teachers in the schools contacted have indicated this problem of substitution of teachers, and one school reported that it is really impossible for them to implement the programme successfully because they don't have enough teachers in their school and those sent by the *Delegación de Educación y Ciencia de Guadalajara* do not fulfil the minimum requirements for the process of teaching in a foreign language: they could speak but not teach in English, even though they have the teaching diploma in English.

We can conclude that the way in which teacher training is carried out up to now therefore needs considerable improvement, both at university level and in INSET training.

b. Secondary Schools

It is more difficult for secondary schools to decide to enter a bilingual programme because of the currently low number of teachers with foreign language skills. Due to the fact that teachers in these schools are subject teachers, the lack of qualified people is even more marked than in primary schools. When any of the teachers involved in the bilingual program need to be replaced, the *Delegación de Educación y Ciencia* of the corresponding province of the region sends an English teacher; 99% of these are lacking in adequate knowledge for teaching the specific subject content.

Again it is evident that the main drawback relates to teacher *training* and to the organizational weaknesses, such as the lack of lists of suitable teachers available for bilingual schools.

Future recommendations

a. Regarding teachers' qualifications and initial teacher training

a.1. Primary school teachers

The weakest point in teachers' qualifications is the lack of or low competence level in foreign languages. This problem could be solved by reinforcing this field in the new curriculum of the *Escuelas de Magisterio* that is currently being developed for the adaptation to the European Higher Education Area.

Students in the *Magisterio* School need to be provided with the means to improve their learning of foreign languages. To this end, the following recommendations are made:

- To raise the level of English courses for students specializing in subjects other than foreign languages, in order to fulfil the European Action Plan of 2004-2006;
- To include specific courses on teaching contents through a foreign language (CLIL) as part of the general curriculum of the *Escuelas de Magisterio,* as is to be found in Austria (http://www.factworld.info/materials.htm#EUP), and other European countries.
- To focus on the development of departments of continuing education at universities.

a.2. Secondary school teachers

Due to the fact that the weakest point detected is the lack of fluency in foreign languages of subject teachers, (Suárez, M.L., 2006), the fulfilment of the 2004-2006 Action Plan of European Union is recommended in terms of foreign language abilities for teachers.

Regarding methodologies for teaching subjects through a foreign language, the inclusion of a CLIL course as part of the training of subject teachers at postgraduate level could also be considered. One example of where this has been taken into account is in the Masters' course designed at the School of Education Sciences of the *Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona,* due to begin in the next academic year (Márquez, C, 2008).

b. Regarding INSET courses

An appropriate INSET training course is offered to teachers who enter the Secciones Europeas programme, but for only a short period of time. They take part in the PALE program during the first year but no further CLIL capacity building opportunities are offered later on. This is considered insufficient by teachers involved.

To make the INSET training more complete, it could be included as part of the continuing education programme that the *JCCM* offers through the *Centros de Profesores*, or in collaboration with the schools of *Magisterio* of the *Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha.*

At the moment, only one Master level course is available, offered by the Alcalá de Henares University, (http:/www2.uah.es/master_tefl_alcala) an institution which also collaborates with the University of Castilla-La Mancha. The course is run by the Modern Languages Department, and not by the Schools of Education. Teachers participate on a purely voluntary basis and finance the training themselves*.*

c. Regarding the Autonomous Government

As happens in Andalucía, another well known non-bilingual autonomous region of Spain, the autonomous government should promote the implementation of plurilingualism through a clear policy followed by all the schools in the region, not only by some of them.

In order to achieve the proposals of bilingual education, a tremendous effort must be made in our region. Firstly, regarding the use of a foreign language among citizens in general, the idea that it is only needed for academic purposes should be discarded; secondly, greater financial support must be directed towards training bilingual teachers, with financial incentives rewarding their efforts to be included in the bilingual programmes. These steps are crucial if we wish to develop bilingual minds in our children and achieve the aims of the bilingual education process.

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http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lang/languages/download/david_marsh-report.pdf).

English in Mainstream European Secondary Schools: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

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Abstract

Internationalisation has been a field of particular interest in secondary education for several years; the power of English as a global language prevails. More and more mainstream secondary schools have adopted CLIL as an innovative approach to the teaching of English. Our research aims to contribute to the academic knowledge about this educational approach and is a longitudinal project in progress. It is being carried out in ten grammar schools spread over five European countries: the Netherlands, Germany, Finland, Hungary and Italy. Pilot schools are mainstream grammar schools with a bilingual stream in which English is used as the language of instruction for a number of subjects.

The experimental groups are formed by one group per school of the bilingual section in their first year at grammar school. A similar group of pupils from the non-bilingual department forms the control group. There are two measurements: the first one took place at the start of the 2007 / 2008 school year, the second will be at the end of the 2008 / 2009 year. Our aim is to internationally compare pupil English language performance and pupil motivation to learn English, as well as CLIL teacher didactic practice and the implementation of CLIL in the school curriculum. We also seek to evaluate which approaches work the best.

Key words: The Netherlands, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Finland

Introduction

English is a popular language, in the Netherlands as well as in Europe and the rest of the world. Examples of its influence are easy to find. Particularly in areas related to commerce and popular culture, English is often the preferred language: in pop songs, cinema film titles and television programmes, names of shops in shopping centres, job titles in business and so on. In European education, too, English is predominant: it is the most popular foreign language at secondary schools throughout the EU member states (Eurydice, 2005).

At the same time, European integration, a major political development of the last few decades, has affected many areas of our economic and social life. With English as the lingua franca in the international world of business, economics and science, many European nations have given special attention to the teaching of this language, which is increasingly seen as the pupils' second language. Its international importance has led to the introduction of CLIL, bilingual education with English as the language of instruction for a number of non-language subjects such as History, Geography, but also Mathematics and Science.

In order to gain an insight into the background of CLIL and the factors that make this type of learning so successful, we have undertaken a comparative study on the implementation of CLIL in five European countries. The aim of our research is to collect data on cross-cultural CLIL practice and pupil achievement, with a view to making a contribution to the future development of this type of bilingual learning.

Learning English in CLIL programmes

Eurostat (2008) reports an increase in the percentage of pupils learning English in upper secondary education. The latest figures indicate 100% for the Netherlands, 99.7% for Finland, 93.8% for Germany, 85.1% for Italy and 73% for Hungary, if we restrict ourselves to the countries participating in the present research. Knowledge of the English language is no longer the privilege of the elite, but a necessity for everyone in modern society. The growing mobility of the world population has had its impact on foreign language teaching. Whereas the post war grammar-translation method laid a solid basis for those engaged in international business correspondence, it turned out to be insufficient to satisfy the need for adequate spoken skills, which is why the focus on teaching formal language rules and practising translation exercises shifted to a focus on communicative skills. The functional-notional approach, introduced in the 1970s, provides a basis for practising real-life communication. However, as the classroom is a confined space, language practice is limited and relies largely on role playing.

The CLIL approach carries communication a step further: the CLIL classroom actually provides a real-life situation, a meaningful context for those involved. Pupils need the language in order to master the subject matter; the teacher needs it to convey the contents of the lesson. The interaction resulting from this negotiation of meaning is seen by many as an important prerequisite for language learning, and takes on a wider scope than is the case in the language classroom. Added to this is the longer period of exposure to meaningful foreign language, a condition that can hardly be equalled in mainstream non-CLIL curricula.

The approach has already proved its merits**.** Almost every country in Europe is to a greater or lesser extent moving towards CLIL. The great majority of CLIL initiatives have English as the target language. As yet, not enough is known as to exactly which factors account for its success. The combination of linguistic talent with an above average pupil motivation, in many schools some of the criteria for admittance to a CLIL programme, are frequently mentioned as a key factor. Research into second language learning has shown that positive attitudes and motivation are related to success (Gardner, 1985). Building on this, the present study will concentrate on aspects of pupil motivation and language aptitude, and evaluate cross-cultural differences.

Research issues

The central aim of this study is to investigate the various CLIL approaches in the participant countries and their effects. The general hypothesis is that pupils that have taken part in a CLIL programme will have better scores in the English language tests than their peers in non-CLIL education. However, this may not be the case with all linguistic skills measured in the research and some CLIL programmes may produce better results than others.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the effects of CLIL in the five participating countries?
2. How can individual differences in performance among pupils be explained?

In this paper we have given special emphasis to the description of the educational practice in the participating countries; the research design will not be discussed here.

The participants

The pilot schools are grammar schools, in The Netherlands comprehensive schools with a grammar school department. Finland can, however, be considered as an exception as the country has an integrated school type for all pupils aged 7 to 16. The CLIL provision in English begins when pupils are 13 and continues for several consecutive years. As the schools have all worked with the CLIL approach for several and in some cases many years they have developed know-how and expertise. The participant countries are located in various quarters of Europe and all have a different native language. In view of the fact that English is offered at primary school in each of the countries, some knowledge of the language among pupils at the start of grammar school is assumed.

However, as for the level of knowledge of and exposure to English, the pupils in any given country cannot be considered a homogenous group. Hours of English language instruction at the primary level varies significantly across countries. More importantly, grammar schools with bilingual programmes in English attract a diverse target group: children from families that have lived or travelled abroad for some time, and pupils with one or two Anglophone parents. Additionally, some countries have sizable international communities. In some countries, English bilingual programmes are a common phenomenon in mainstream education. Its pupils generally continue their education at secondary schools of the same type, alongside pupils from monolingual backgrounds. It is inevitable that these differences account for the uneven scores in this study on student English language achievement tests during this first round of measurement.

1. The Netherlands

In the Netherlands school attendance is compulsory for all children between the ages of five and sixteen. Children generally go to primary school at the age of four and continue in the type of secondary school that matches their abilities when they are about twelve. Even though primary schools have English as a compulsory subject on the curriculum, lesson contents and frequency vary greatly.

Content and language integrated learning is found mainly at the grammar school section of comprehensive schools, in which the approach is known as TTO, *tweetalig onderwijs*, bilingual education. It origins lie in international education. In 1989, one of the international secondary schools opened a bilingual department for Dutch students, who could follow the regular Dutch curriculum partly in Dutch and partly in English. This initiative led to successful introduction of TTO by means of the immersion approach: twelve-year-old pupils with very limited knowledge of English are taught 50 to 60% of their curriculum through English from the start of grammar school.

In the Netherlands, bilingual education is coordinated by the European Platform, established in 1990 by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. The Platform is mandated to introduce and integrate the European dimension into Dutch schools. It is also responsible for supporting development of the international dimension in bilingual schools. In 1999 the European Platform and a number of CLIL schools founded a network for bilingual education, for which they developed a standard. At present there are about a hundred CLIL schools, 49 of which are accredited by the European Platform. The CLIL language of instruction is almost exclusively English.

The schools in the present research are both accredited grammar schools in the southern part of the country. CLIL was introduced in the early 2000s for about 50 to 60 % of the subjects: Music, Drawing, History, Geography, Biology, Mathematics and Physical Education. In addition to this, the schools have enhanced teaching in English, which takes the form of extra lessons, sometimes with the assistance of a native speaker teacher. Pupils in all years may, should they so choose, take either the Anglia Examination Syndicate exams or the Cambridge exams for the First Certificate and Advanced English. In both schools CLIL is offered for six years, from Year 1 to Year 6.

2. Germany

The federal republic of Germany consists of sixteen states, Bundesländer, each of which has not only its own educational policy, but also its own specific model for language teaching and for CLIL. The German term for CLIL is Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht. The beginnings of bilingual education can be traced back to the 1963 German - French Cooperation Treaty, which emphasised the importance of the two countries concerned each promoting the partner language. Nowadays the target language in the majority of branches is English and CLIL can be found in all sixteen states. In the German

educational system secondary school teachers generally have a dual qualification; they study two subjects at university and often have a degree in both a language and a content subject, thus having a solid basis for teaching in CLIL programmes.

School attendance is compulsory for pupils between the ages of six and eighteen; they enter secondary education at the age of ten in Year 5. In most CLIL schools bilingual teaching starts in Year 7; Years 5 and 6 prepare the pupils for the programme with two extra English lessons per week. In the pilot school, a grammar school in Lower Saxony that has worked with CLIL for more than fifteen years, pupils have two CLIL lessons in History, one in Geography and two in Physical Education per week, which amounts to 15% of the curriculum. To support the learning process there is one extra non-bilingual lesson per week for Geography. Moreover, in the first term of Year 7, History is taught in German, the pupils' native language. The CLIL provision continues until the final exam, when pupils are 18 years of age.

The second pilot school is in Berlin, a city as well as a Bundesland, a state. Berlin harbours a vast international community and consequently a multitude of heterogeneous groups of pupils in primary and secondary schools. In order to cope with this the Staatliche Europaschulen Berlin were founded; a merger of state schools with bilingual departments, focusing on CLIL learning in nine languages from pre-school to Abitur level. The language combinations are different for each school, with English, French, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Turkish, Greek, Portuguese and Polish as target languages. The pilot school joined the Staatliche Europaschulen project in 1999. Pupils in the bilingual stream are predominantly of an international background, but also German born and bred. Approximately half of the pupils and teachers are native speakers of either German or English; the other half has a variety of language backgrounds. The subjects Geography, History, Civics, Political Science, Information Technology, Biology, and Music are taught in English, which amounts to almost 50% of the curriculum. Academic skills are developed in both languages.

3. Hungary

Between the end of World War II and 1989, Russian was the compulsory foreign language at schools in Hungary. As of 1989, in accordance with the change in political regimes, students massively opted for other modern European languages, which inevitably led to a shortage of teachers that is still felt to this day. Children start learning their first foreign language at the latest in Year 5 at the age of ten. This is not necessarily English, even though at present more than 60 % choose English, which will become a compulsory subject as of 2010. The Education Act of 1985 made it possible to carry out education in a language other than Hungarian, predominantly English, German or Russian. As a rule, the education system in Hungary produces dually qualified secondary school teachers; often in a combination of a foreign language and a content or science subject, which prepares them for teaching in CLIL schools.

Compulsory education in Hungary encompasses the six to seventeen age groups. The admittance age of pupils to the majority of Hungarian secondary schools is generally in Year 9 when they are fourteen. In Year 9 CLIL classes the language curriculum is specified. In most schools it is a preparatory year, popularly known as 'zero year', to learn the CLIL target language. For this purpose, the usual class of 36 pupils is divided into three groups of twelve for intensive and frequent language training. The bilingual teaching of CLIL subjects starts in Year 10 and is carried out over at least four years. Upon successful completion of the final secondary school exams pupils receive a bilingual certificate of secondary education plus a C1 stage language certificate.

The pilot schools started with CLIL in the late 1980s. The first school is a Gimnázium with two bilingual sections, one with English and one with German as the language of instruction. In general there are four classes in a year, two bilingual English, one bilingual German and one non-bilingual regular Hungarian class. The English language is studied in Year 9 in sixteen lessons per week plus one lesson for the specific terminology of each particular content subject of the following years: Mathematics, Physics, History, Geography and Biology. By the end of Year 9, students usually reach the level required by the Cambridge First Certificate Exam.

The second pilot school, a Magyar-Angol Tannyelvü Gimnázium, a Hungarian-English Bilingual Grammar School, has bilingual classes only, and for all classes English is the target language. The school has a student hostel, housing 338 youngsters from all over Hungary. Five subjects are taught in English, including World History, Mathematics, Biology, British Culture and Civilization and American Culture and Civilization.

4. Italy

The term most frequently used in Italy to explain the English acronym CLIL, which is now also commonplace is insegnamento veicolare - vehicular teaching. This educational approach was first seen in the licei internazionale, international secondary schools that introduced the teaching of history and geography through a foreign language in the 1980s. The experiment gradually opened the way for other CLIL projects; however, the approach is still fairly new and limited. The most commonly used form is the modular approach: projects generally do not imply that a subject on the curriculum is taught completely in English, but only that some CLIL modules involving a series of lessons in a particular subject are implemented in the course of one or more school years, not necessarily in all years. The most common CLIL languages today are English, and to a lesser extent French or German.

The Italian educational system has compulsory education from six to eighteen years old. English is a core subject in the primary school syllabus. Pupils are fourteen when they enter the type of upper secondary school of their choice, after completion of the Scuola Media or lower secondary school. The Ginnasio and Liceo are upper secondary grammar schools; the Liceo Classico has a curriculum with predominance for languages and in the Liceo Scientifico special emphasis is put on science.

The participant schools are both Licei Scientifici, five-year academic mainstream upper secondary schools, which started CLIL in 2003 and now have CLIL modules in all school years. Both schools belong to the regional CLIL network for Friuli Venezia Giulia, which provides coordination and support in designing standardised modules. The first school has a coordinating role in the province of Trieste. CLIL subjects make up 20% of the curriculum and include Mathematics, Physics, Biology, Philosophy, History, Geography and occasionally Latin. The school also offers possibilities to study subjects in German and Spanish. The second school is one of the four Licei in the region experimenting with advanced CLIL, having all subjects except Italian and English involved in CLIL lessons to some degree. Pupils in the pilot first year have 10 to 20% of their curriculum taught in English; CLIL subjects are Mathematics, Physics, History, Geography, Latin, Physical Education, Art and Drawing and Religious Education. In their second year the percentage will gradually rise. If the results are sufficient the future final exam class is expected to have 60% in English and 40% in Italian. The development of teachers' training is a key question; systematic training and qualification is provided in both regions by the Ca'Foscari University of Venice.

5. Finland

The Finnish school system provides compulsory education in comprehensive schools, comprising Years 1 to 9 and intended for the whole age group from seven to sixteen years old. In Year 7 pupils move from the classroom teacher system to a subject teacher system; Years 7 to 9 are seen as lower secondary level. Students normally have English lesson as of Year 1. The skills of Finnish students are reported to be among the best in all domains assessed in PISA surveys in 2000, 2003 and 2006; experts have pointed to Finland's philosophy of education as the driving factor behind such high levels of scholastic performance. The Finnish way aims at helping all pupils, including those in special-needs classes, and develops their abilities in small-group instruction. In addition to this, teachers are highly qualified: they are required to have a Master's degree including when teaching at the primary level and teacher education includes teaching practice. Finland has turned itself into a major educational power and at the same time developed into an economy focussing on technology and internationalisation, in which the teaching of foreign languages plays an important role. European developments triggered the expansion of CLIL, in which English has increasingly become the target language.

In Finnish education CLIL is often the result of an individual teacher's initiative. In the pilot school, the principal launched the idea in 1991, and it was then introduced in a very rudimentary form. At present, the school has three CLIL classes, kaksikielisillä luokilla, consisting of a total of 95 pupils in Year 7, and ten in the rest of the years. About 30% of the lessons are in English. The pupils are about thirteen when they start the CLIL class in Year 7, and they continue in the bilingual stream for three years. Their bilingual subjects are History, Geography, Biology, Physics, Mathematics, Chemistry, Music and Art. The basic subject matter and concepts are always taught in both English and Finnish and in some cases, oral teaching and the written material may be in two languages. Apart from CLIL in English, the school has a limited bilingual programme in French. At the upper secondary level pupils prepare for the Finnish matriculation exam, the International Cambridge A-level exam or a combination of both.

Societal and Scientific Relevance

The present study is relevant for several reasons. To begin with, the introduction of CLIL into mainstream schools is a relatively new development. Research into its effects will bring to light possible shortcomings and provide guidelines for improvement. Some years ago a major study into the didactics and effects of bilingual education in English was carried out in Dutch grammar schools (Huibregtse, 2001). The research findings indicated that pupils in CLIL programmes achieved a better level of performance in English than did their peers in non-bilingual classes. However, only Dutch schools took part, so that basically only one CLIL approach was evaluated. The present study will present an international survey, in which various approaches and their measures of success are compared. Participant schools will have the opportunity to learn from each other and share know-how and experience.

Secondly, the present study reflects recent trends in the Netherlands and abroad. The number of CLIL schools has increased greatly since 2001, and new lesson materials have been developed. Teacher training colleges have anticipated the demand for CLIL teaching skills and developed modules geared towards teaching in a foreign language. Finally, the multifactor analyses will bring in data as to the influence of aptitude and motivation on the learning of English in both CLIL and monolingual classes. At the CLIL Conference held in Helsinki in 2006 a set of recommendations was proposed for future action (Marsh/Wolff, 2007). The undertaking of cross-European comparative CLIL action research on student achievement and educator professional development was one of the development goals. The research outcomes of the present study aim at contributing to this goal.

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Immersion Programmes in the Basque Country, Catalonia and Valencia

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Abstract

On 29th of December 1978 the Spanish Constitution came into force and recognized and guaranteed the right of autonomy of the different nationalities and regions in Spain, thus paving the way for the setting up of the Autonomous Parliaments that were to design and approve the Statutes of Autonomy.

The Autonomous Parliaments of areas with two official languages (Castilian and own language) had to face the issue of the lack of regional language literacy of the vast majority of the population (own languages had been banned from public spheres), the autochthonous population who was fluent in speaking the own language was illiterate in reading and above all in writing it. There was a need for linguistic normalization of the regional language if it had to gain its presence in the educational, professional and public domains.

The process took different approaches in different areas according to the sociolinguistic conditions on the one hand and to the characteristics of the regional language on the other.

The article deals with the approach taken by the Basque, Catalan and Valencian authorities.

Keywords: Immersion, Regional variation, Inclusion, Tri-lingual education

Setting the frame

- The re-establishment of democracy and the approval of the new Spanish Constitution in December 1978, after a long period of dictatorship, led the bilingual autonomous communities, in accordance with their respective Autonomy Statutes, to legislate on linguistic policies conducive to full recovery of the regional languages, and the right to know and use them by the citizens.

- In this new context, the Spanish bilingual autonomous regions followed different approaches to fulfil the same goal. The Basque Country and Catalonia both have used "immersion programmes" as means to reach the set goal, using methodologies common to CLIL which guide the learning process through a school language different from the language of the home.

- The long and extensive experience in applying immersion methodology has paved the way for the reinforcement of immersion, or should we say CLIL methodology, in line with the new multilingual and multicultural reality facing schools. This will hopefully highlight and stress common issues with provision of CLIL education of non-linguistic subjects through a foreign language.

Franco's regime in Spain lasted from 1939 (the end of Spanish civil war) through to 1975. During this period the public use of languages other than Castilian was suppressed and its use remained basically within the boundaries of private life amongst families and friends.

There were literary and scientific works published in the regional languages outside Spanish borders, and by academics and artists that had to leave Spain for political reasons, but circulation of such works was very restricted.

On 29 December 1978 the Spanish Constitution came into force. This recognized and guaranteed the right of autonomy of the different nationalities and regions in Spain, thus paving the way for the setting up of the Autonomous Parliaments that were to design and approve the Statutes of Autonomy.

The Autonomous Parliaments of areas with two official languages (Castilian and own language) had to face the issue of the lack of regional language literacy by the vast majority of the population (mainly because use of own languages had been banned from public spheres). The autochthonous population which was fluent in speaking the own language was illiterate in reading and above all in writing it. There was a need for linguistic normalization of the regional language if it was to gain its presence in the educational, professional and public domains.

The process took different approaches in the different areas according to sociolinguistic conditions on the one hand, and to the characteristics of the regional language on the other; for example, because of the number of speakers of the regional language and the percentage of population coming from immigration in each area, or the closeness of the two languages that were official in the area.

After the Linguistic Normalization Acts, both in the Basque Country and in Catalonia, it was time for the Linguistic Policy Act that ensured the presence of the regional/own language in all domains establishing a relevant system of guarantees for fulfilment.

The long standing tradition of school immersion programmes has become a wealth of experience for the provision of CLIL programmes in schools following schemes similar to those applied for immersion programmes. This is especially in relation to designing adequate material, training trainers, and training the teachers that are to implement the programme.

The Basque Country Case Study

In recent years Basque society, and especially the educational community, has been carrying on widespread discussions about the needs of our educational system and the type of curriculum that will meet our own specific needs, equipping our students with a constantly updated ability to cope successfully with the challenges of adult life. The different proposals that have been put forward have been jointly adopted in the Decree (DECRETO 175/2007, de 16 de octubre) which governs the foundations of the basic curriculum for the compulsory schooling period.

The new framework proposes components which include regular teaching practice: key competences to be mastered by all pupils; the autonomy – in teaching and organizational terms – to devise educational and management projects; participation in education by different sectors of the educational community; inclusive education as a cornerstone of the Basque educational system; treatment of languages which combines the needs of our multilingual context with its socio-linguistic and socio-cultural reality.

Our basic curriculum for the compulsory schooling period, when talking about the languages, declares:

El objetivo de la enseñanza de estas áreas en la Educación Básica es el desarrollo de la competencia comunicativa en las dos lenguas oficiales y al menos una lengua extranjera, es decir, el desarrollo de los conocimientos y de los procedimientos de uso necesarios para interactuar satisfactoriamente en diferentes ámbitos sociales. (The teaching aim of subjects in Basic Education is the development of communicative competence in the two official languages and in at least one foreign language, that is to say, the development of the necessary knowledge and the procedures of language use to interact satisfactory in different social fields).

Sociolinguistic background

The population of Basque speakers is divided across two nations (Spain and France) and three communities (Basque Autonomous Community and the Autonomous Community of Navarra in Spain, and the northern Basque Country or Iparraldea in France)

According to 2006 data, the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) has 1,850,500 inhabitants aged sixteen or more, 30,1% of whom (557,600 people) are fully bilingual.

Legal framework and bilingual education

Since 1882 several laws have been approved by the autonomous government in order to guarantee the knowledge and use of Basque among its inhabitants:

In 1982, the Law for the Normalisation of the Use of Basque, the Government guarantees the competence of Basque at the end of compulsory education.

In 1983 the Law on Bilingualism was formed. The Department of Education, Universities and Research of the Basque Government were to guarantee the use of Basque in the school context; both in the classrooms and out of school.

In 1984 the NOLEGA program was created to implement suitable complementary measures.

Finally, in 1993, the need to promote the use of Basque within the school community led to the implementation of the three different linguistic models, inside the Law for the Basque State School.

This last law makes a distinction between schools according to the time offered for each language (Basque or Spanish). Three different models are offered: Model A, Model B and Model D. In Model A, Spanish is used as a medium of instruction, and Basque and English as

school subjects; in Model B ± 50% is used for Basque or Spanish as medium of instruction, and English as a subject; and in Model D Basque is the language used as medium of instruction, and Spanish and English as subjects:

MODEL A	MODEL B	MODEL D
Spanish: all subjects except Basque	Spanish: ± 50% of subjects taught	Spanish: Spanish language only
Basque as a subject	Basque: ± 50% of subjects taught	Basque: all subjects except Spanish
English as a subject	English as a subject	English as a subject

In kindergarten and primary education the A model has decreased by 70% in the last 25 years. However, the D model has increased by 50% and the B model by 18%. In secondary education the A model has decreased by 22% in the last 11 years, the D model has increased by 18%, and the B model by 3%.

This school year (2008-2009) 9, 4% of the students in kindergarten and primary are registered in the A model, 29, 7% in the B model and 64, 8% in the D model. In secondary education, 19, 1% are registered in the A model, 27, 5% in the B model and 52, 6% in the D model.

Currently, 57.5% of the population between 16 and 24 years, and 37, 3% of the population between 25 and 34 years, are considered fully bilingual.

The School Language Plan

The "School Language Plan" involves the planning of all aspects related to the teaching and use of languages which each school undertakes in order to implement the plan within its own sphere. The Language Plan develops the criteria for the teaching and use of languages in the learning process, as set out in the Educational Plan, and determines the treatment of languages in the Curricular Plan.

To define the School Language Plan each school has to analyse the students' sociolinguistic background; their mother tongue; the time and space that is going to be given to each language in and outside the classrooms; and the methodological approach the teachers are to use.

The Ullibarri program

The Ullibarri program works for the promotion of the use of Basque in the community. It was established in 1996 and seeks to promote the Basque language as the natural language of use in the school for both learning and communication.

This program is adapted according to different sociolinguistic realities. A school takes part voluntarily in this program when the whole school community is willing to participate. The Department of Education, Universities and Research provides tools, teacher training and consultancy. Nowadays there are 410 out of 1000 schools taking part, involving some 17,000 teachers.

The schools carry out diagnostic tests in order to identify needs. Then they specify areas and elaborate a document called "The Normalisation Project". This is a planning and coordination framework where general and specific aims are set for 4 years. Finally, they settle the annual plan which must be evaluated at the end of each school year.

The Catalonian Case Study

The main aim of Catalan schools is to promote an educational model that approaches teaching and learning processes which support holistic student development.

Policy

The term immersion was firstly introduced in Catalan education thanks to the act that ruled linguistic normalization in the early 1980s. This law was more than welcome by the education community since many schools had already started with isolated initiatives and strategies to use Catalan in school life.

The 1998 Act was much more specific than the previous one in terms of stating the role of Catalan language as the vehicle of learning and teaching.

Catalan, as Catalonia's own language, is also that of education, at all levels of non-university education and types of schooling. This implies the following:

- Students are not be separated into different groups, on the grounds of language
- All the school population can normally and effectively use both official languages by the end of their compulsory education irrespective of their family language or languages
- The teaching staff in the educational establishments of Catalonia, at any level of non-university education, shall know both official languages and shall be in a position to be able to use them in their teaching tasks.
- Educational establishments at all levels shall make Catalan the vehicle of normal expression in their educational and administrative activities, both internally and externally.

Following social change in the last 25 years, there have been two language immersion programmes that have shared aims.

- In the 1960s, Catalonia experienced an important industrial development that led to a high flow of labour from other areas of Spain. Of course, at the time, and under Franco's rule, we were not allowed to teach Catalan at school, which meant that almost twenty years later there was a big community of Spanish-speaking Catalans who did not speak the language. This led to the 1980s Language Immersion Programme being established.

- Immigration demography over the last decade has changed and now we have to provide for pupils who come mainly from North Africa (Morocco, Algeria, Senegal, Nigeria, Ghana, Gambia); South America (Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia); Asia (China, India, Pakistan), and more recently from European countries such as Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia, and Serbia.

At present we have students from 160 different countries resulting involving some 250 different languages.

Languages at School

The Catalan education system guarantees the right to know both official languages by all the school population irrespective of family language and languages. Knowing both official languages helps guarantee equal rights for the citizens in our country. Teaching in Catalan is not only a linguistic issue, but also an issue of equity and social cohesion.

Bearing in mind that when entering our education system many pupils are not acquainted with the Catalan language, we have to use second language methodologies so as to facilitate a quick access to the school language, namely Catalan.

Differences between the two Catalan Immersion Programmes

Linguistic differences

- Teachers knew students' L1 because it has mainly been Spanish. This is not the case now. We have a great variety of languages in our schools.
- Language transfer between languages was easy because the L1 and L2 were very similar. The L2 and family languages are not now similar and frequently involve different alphabets.
- Students started to learn a foreign language when they were quite competent in the L2. Students start a foreign language from the age of 6 years that is to say in the first year of primary.

Differences related to process

- In the 1980s, teachers had no experience in implementing immersion programmes, while now teachers have more than 20 year of experience to build on.
- In the 1980s, students followed the immersion programmes through schooling and there are different phases now in the process depending on when newcomers join schools.

Differences related to main aims

- The main aims had been linguistic and related to integration. Now these main aims are related to knowledge building and social cohesion.

Immersion Programmes. Context

To set the context for the immersion programmes different issues have been taken into account:

- Catalan is taught following a holistic approach.
- The school is the context and the clear reference framework by which to learn the new language
- Catalan is present in all school activities, in the classroom, in all activities at school, and other supplementary activities outside the school.
- Life at school is conducted in Catalan, as a language is only learnt when used.
- Value is given to all languages and cultures of the families, because roots are important and play a major role in enriching society and enhancing social cohesion.

Immersion Programmes: Approach to Language Learning

Our immersion programme shares some principles with methodologies as those used when teaching through the medium of a foreign language to Catalan- speaking or Castilian-speaking pupils.

What allows acquisition of a second language is the fact that within the class group, such language becomes a vehicle, a tool for communication, and for building knowledge.

To acquire a new language by means of using it to communicate in real contexts, to experience rewarding situations and to learn new things, implies placing the target language in a real context of use from the very beginning, and overcome its status as a school subject.

This is where both immersion programmes and CLIL provision meet. Students learn the language by using it and as such:

- Using a new language implies the negotiation of meaning, in the reception and in the production phase, using resources such as: non-verbal language: miming, gesture and use of visuals, and objects. Images, body language and routines are used for basic language support in the early stages of language acquisition. The pupils start to use the new language with the confidence provided by the spatial and temporal shared context.

- Using the language in daily interactions of school life, especially during interesting moments because these bond the group while dealing with the language of situations. Such moments facilitate living together; knowledge of social and cultural patterns of behaviour; learning by imitating; and also creating situations of functional communication where interaction is fundamental. Any situation in any of the premises of the school is a good starting point to use the new language, and above all it is important to take advantage of any situation that generates peer interaction.

- The teacher has an important role by creating a classroom atmosphere where pupils feel empowered to use the language; provides a model for the language being used and learnt; and also generates student motivation.

Immersion Programmes: Parents

Parents have a very important role and that's why they are informed about why and how curricular languages are learnt. Parent's worries about how they can help their children to learn languages, find answers and advice especially in school meetings:

Parents' participation in activities that involve L2 learning is fundamental through

- talking to children,
- telling or reading stories,
- discussing school activities,
- talking about relevant events...

and

- praising children's effort to learn languages,
- taking part, together with their children, in the cultural activities,
- and maintaining contact with teachers.

Students' competence in Catalan and Castilian

The competence in Castilian of our pupils equals that of the pupils in other parts of Spain.

Between 1998 and 2003 the competence in Castilian of the pupils of Spain was assessed through common and agreed tools by the Quality and Evaluation Institute (INECSE) of the Ministry of Education, and the Catalan Assessment Board of the Education System of the Department of Education.

Statistical results concerning pupils' performance in Castilian are similar and without statistic significance in the percentages, showing that the pupils of Catalonia and those of the rest of Spain reach the same level.

The Valencian Case Study

When the first Autonomy Act was passed in 1982, the bilingual programmes were introduced into the educational system. Nowadays, that system is based on those programmes, and the implementation of plurilingual programmes is in progress. With the aim of responding to the Valencian sociolinguistic situation, the educational system establishes that students have to be able to use both languages, Valencian and Spanish, by the time they finish the compulsory education (article 19, Act 4/1983 of Use and Teaching of Valencian).

Policy

The legal foundations of this system are:

- The Spanish Constitution because it recognises the co-officiality of the other languages within their respective territories.
- The Autonomy Act of Valencia (2006), because in its 6th article, it recognises Valencian as the Autonomy's own language. It also establishes both languages as co-official, the right to know and use them, and for the students to be taught in Valencian.
- The Act 4/1983 of Use and Teaching of Valencian, because in its 19th article it states that all students, when they finish their compulsory education, have to be able to use both languages orally and in written form irrespective of their family language.
- The Organic Act of Education (LOE/2006), which aims at Spanish linguistic and cultural variety and at Interculturality as an enriching element in society. The Valencian Education board has developed these aims in its Decrees and in its Curricula.

Taking this into account, we can conclude that the Valencian System enables that students can receive their education in both languages, and in foreign languages.

The foundations of the Valencian Linguistic programmes involve

- Respecting parent views.
- Reflection on practice and information for parents and schools.
- Teacher training and coherence in follow-up steps.
- Political will to recover and dignify the Valencian Language as one of the main signs of identity of the Valencian people.
- The design of linguistic training that suits teaching staff needs.
- A plurilingual approach to the linguistic-educational programmes, in which the three languages are used jointly in Primary School (Valencian, Spanish and English), or the four languages in Secondary Education (Valencian, Spanish, English and French/German/Italian).
- The elaboration and dissemination of didactic materials for languages learning.
- Considering plurilingualism as an enriching and integrating element for our society.
- The Valencian educational policy contributing to the natural and authentic treatment of Valencian.

Bilingual Education Programmes

- **Valencian Teaching Programme** *(PEV: Programa d'Ensenyament en Valencià).* Valencian is used as the main means of instruction. The students' own language is given prestige; linguistic competence is increased and a good command of Spanish is acquired.
- In this programme, most of the subjects are taught in Valencian. Spanish is incorporated from the very beginning with a communicative approach that facilitates learning. After that, English is introduced with the same methodological and didactic approach. In Secondary Schools, this programme is aimed at both Valencian and Spanish speakers.
- **Linguistic Immersion Programme** (*PIL: Programa d'Immersió Lingüística*). It is mainly designed for non-Valencian speakers whose families voluntarily opt for this method, with the objective of linguistic integration from the beginning of the schooling period. Students keep and maintain the family language and they acquire Valencian in the case of Spanish speakers, and with newcomers, the two co-official languages are acquired through a specific work based on a language communicative approach.
- The starting point is respect towards the own student's language. In the classroom, a methodology is applied in which the new language is learnt simultaneously with its use. The student's spontaneous expression is always respected. In this programme, Spanish as a means of instruction is incorporated in the first or second cycle of Primary, depending on the school sociolinguistic context. For the very best programme implementation, families support is very important; they have to know the strategies and devices of the teaching-learning process.
- This programme has its follow-up in Secondary Education in the Valencian Teaching Programme (PEV). Each school elaborates its own Specific Programme Design, in which they specify the areas that will be dealt with each language.
- The number of students and groups involved in 2008-2009 can be seen as follows:

	Students	**Schools**
Pre-Primary and Primary Education	138.223	748
Secondary Education	58.626	301

Schools with a Linguistic Programme in Valencian:

- **Progressive Incorporation Programme** (*PIP: Programa d'Incorporació Progressiva*). In those schools, placed in Valencian-speaking areas that do not teach in any of the above-mentioned programmes, the PIP programme is adopted. In this programme, Spanish is the learning language. However, natural and social sciences has to be taught in Valencian in Primary (Decree 21/07/97). This programme has its continuity in the Secondary Education because two non-linguistic areas have to be taught in Valencian. Those schools placed in Spanish-speaking areas that desire to implement a bilingual programme, must have the wish expressed by parents and take into account the school organization possibilities.

Plurilingual Education Programmes

- **Enriched Bilingual Education Programme**: The Resolution of June 30th, 1998, establishes the basic criteria, requisites and procedures to implement at schools an enriched bilingual education programme. This programme introduces a foreign language as a means of instruction from the first cycle of Primary Education onwards. We are convinced that the integrated treatment of both official languages in Valencia, and the introduction of a foreign language increase the linguistic competence.

- Thus, we added the vehicular use of English to the existing programmes in the Valencian educational system to start the configuration of a specific Valencian plurilingual educational system. We were the first Autonomous Community in Spain to regulate the plurilingual educational programmes.

- 310 schools implemented this plurilingual programme in 2008-2009 at Pre-Primary and Primary.

- **Plurilingual Education Experimentation in the 2nd cycle of Pre-Primary Education.**
  The experimentation with the Plurilingual Programme in this cycle started in 2001 with 15 schools. In 2008-2009, 240 schools have incorporated English in the teaching of pupils aged 4 and 5 years. Students focus more on meaning than in form, and a methodology based on the communicative approach, and the integration of language and content is used.

- **Plurilingual Education Experimentation in Secondary Education.**
  In 2008-2009, 20 Secondary Schools are involved in this experimentation in which subjects are taught in both official languages and in foreign languages. To implement this programme, Schools have to elaborate the timetable distribution for each curricular language. Teacher training is also very important for the programme implementation.

  The Department of Education is currently working to generalize the Plurilingual Programmes so as to use the different languages (Valencian, Spanish and Foreign Languages) as a means of instruction in all educational levels.

Three Models of Integrating School Subjects in Poland

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Abstract

This article presents a series of sample solutions for integrating the teaching of language with school subjects in Polish secondary school in the times of educational reform, how to teach English as a foreign language through history and literature. Three school subjects: Literature, History and English have been chosen for the experiment in high school no 43 in Lodz. The following historical subjects will be considered: the appearance of the oldest piece of literature "Beowulf" – the 7th or the 10th century; the battle of Hastings – the 11th century; plagues in the Middle Ages and the children crusade – the 13th century, "The Legend of Pied Piper of Hamelin".

Why integrate the teaching school subjects with language teaching?
As the aim of the present school curriculum in Poland is to arouse curiosity and tolerance to foreign cultures, and to encourage pupils to know them better, teachers are obliged to highlight and name the paths that link different school subjects in their syllabuses i.e. to show during which lesson they are going to teach other subject content. Respecting this principle is becoming extremely important in the writer's home town Lodz, the Town of Four Cultures: Polish, Russian, German and Jewish. Polish teachers are aware that a foreign language is not just another discipline but a kind of link between them all. Preparing an interdisciplinary project, pupils and teachers have a chance to test whether L2 may be very helpful in exchanging information and sharing knowledge of the environment.

Since the beginning of the current educational reform, in 1999, there have been three models of integrating subject contents to teach across the curriculum in Polish schools. They are: a monodisciplinary model, a multidisciplinary model and an interdisciplinary model. However, the writer's long experience in work at school and as a counsellor for teachers of foreign languages shows that not all of them are equally popular because of various reasons.

Keywords: cross-curriculum, foreign language teaching

Introduction

Polish education reform which began in1999, has imposed on schools the duty of integrating school subjects. This policy arises from pupils' and students' new education needs and the fact that the world, especially Europe, is changing so rapidly. To achieve these goals in a given school, we need cooperation among teachers, who will need to work in interdisciplinary teams, and with local authorities responsible for the school.

Teachers who want to adopt an interdisciplinary approach to teaching are working towards three main goals:

1. To show students the holistic vision of the world.
2. To give up an encyclopedic approach to teaching.
3. To prepare students for modern and better lives, by placing emphasis on achieving new competencies and not only knowledge, as was the situation until 1999.

Content bases of the school obligatory curricula form the range of the main education provision, and are, by nature, multidisciplinary. Some examples of these are: ecological education, civic education or education and media. One of the programmes connecting many educations (historic, geographic, civic, philosophic, and languages is "The Programme of European Education ".

The new form of teaching, introduced in the content bases, is the “cross-curricula education paths”. The path refers to a discipline which cannot be adjusted only to one school subject and is not a separate lesson but a programme in which the elements are connected to the others at a proper education level. Tasks, subject content and competences included in the cross-curricula paths have to be respected by all Polish teachers who are obliged to mark them in their own school subject programmes. Most often, all the above mentioned issues are worked out by the authors of school programmes or by the authors of the course books so the intellectual effort required of the average teacher is none or very little. A language teacher, who tries to enrich his/her subject contents through teaching across the curriculum, seems to be in an advantageous position in such multidisciplinary approach. The methods of integrating school subjects give way to modern and up-to-date teaching which is called “cross-curriculum teaching and learning” or “teaching and learning across the curriculum” or just “content and language integrated learning”. Here much more effort is demanded from the teacher. First of all, he/she has to be able to cooperate with the others, to be open-minded, creative and willing to share his/her competence.

So, what are the possible approaches to the integration of subject content? A few years ago, a Polish educator, Miroslav Sielatycki[1] described three models in this book. Judging from methodological observations, not all of them are equally popular among language teachers, for various reasons. However, the models may be worth applying in all school curricula and can appear extremely beneficial in language teaching and learning. As Sielatycki suggests, teaching across-curriculum can be applied according to the following models:

1. A monodisciplinary model.
2. A multidisciplinary model.
3. An interdisciplinary model.

A Monodisciplinary Model (One-School-Subject Integration)

A Monodisciplinary model is the one most commonly applied.. In the first phase of work, cooperation between all the teachers from the cross-curriculum team is necessary. Later on, work can be done only by one, the so called “investigating teacher” who enriches his subject content by asking colleagues about topics which may be connected with the lesson he wants to carry out. He checks other school programmes and course books, appropriate for this level of education, choosing these elements, headings and parts of the material which he decides to associate with the language lesson. The greatest effort is made by this “investigating teacher”, working on his own, who quite often has to study the chosen problem himself to ensure the validity of the content and make the lesson interesting. The input of other subjects helps to construct the rich and fascinating language lesson aimed at showing the students relationships between the ranges of knowledge which they have to acquire during other school lessons. For example the topic of “Landing on the Moon” is introduced during astronomy lessons, physics, literature (science-fiction literature) or arts (lunar landscape in painting) so the “investigating teacher” will only consult those specialists who have already dealt with the relevant issues. The students will easily notice the connections between the new language content and the areas of knowledge they have already acquired. Their motivation to learn similar, well known topics in a foreign or second language will definitely increase and the authority of such a teacher who becomes a model to follow is undoubtedly greater. Appendix no1 shows the diagram of the monodisciplinary model.

[1] Sielatycki, M.: 1998 *Program – Nowa Szkoła. Materiały dla Trenerów. Pakiet: Integracja międzyprzedmiotowa.* CODN, Warszawa.

A Multidisciplinary Model (Many School Subjects Integration)

A Multidisciplinary Model takes place when a given problem, issue or event is considered from the point of view of many subjects. The way out for the problem is found in the school curriculum containing the list of the universal topics worked out by cross-curricula groups of teachers. Here all teachers have to cooperate to deliver an integrated programme. The team will consist of one representative from a group of art teachers, one from the humanistic school subjects, one sciences teacher and one foreign language teacher. Such a group will choose one coordinator who will take main responsibility for the implementation. They will decide what is crucial in order to achieve the central aims of the multidisciplinary project, and will coordinate the teaching of various aspects of the chosen topic, e.g. *"Disasters – floods"*. This topic will then be taught in such lessons as geography, history, and knowledge of the society, arts, civil defence, literature, mathematics, biology, and foreign languages. According to each school subject programme, various aspects of the universal topic will be taught. The model is difficult to work with if there is no programme at school containing such global issues. It is beneficial to create it both for the students and the teachers. The multidisciplinary model does not require, from the cooperating teachers, time coordination while dealing with the chosen topics during their lessons. It can be introduced at any time if only the teacher notices correlation with the current lesson.
The relationship between different aspects of learning across subject boundaries is not addressed and the subject knowledge can remain only the elements of a given lesson. If, for example, we decide, during an English lesson, to touch the topic of *"Flood in New Orleans in 2005"*, then the synthesis of this problem can be the outcome only within that lesson. The integration of the subject content will consist of introducing by a German teacher another similar topic, i.e. *"Flood in the border towns at the Odra River banks"*; the geography teacher will choose the topic *"Geographical regions under the threat of flood"*; the civil defence teacher may have the topic *"People's behaviour at the time of flood"*, etc.

The aims of such cross-curricula teaching and learning are close to those in the previous model but there are different methods of implementation and work organization. Appendix no 2 shows the diagram of the multidisciplinary model, taken from the book by Sielatycki[2] but the author of this article added English and the above mentioned topic.

Now, let us consider another global topic which may be included in the school curriculum: *"The Marathon".* Within this topic we can find some diverse paths for study: health education (healthy lifestyle), civic education (charity), historic and geographic education (first and famous marathons). The main topic may be implemented through previously described models.

If we think about the first model (monodisciplinary), the foreign language teacher has to consult his colleagues and get a rich thematic input into his lesson. When we consider the second model, the cross-curriculum school team has to decide what topics have to be introduced by various teachers during their lessons at different times. From the social point of view, this model is more complicated as it demands good team cooperation something which is not easy to achieve in busy schools.

[2] Op. cit.

An Interdisciplinary Model (Through–Subjects Integration; Cross-School Subject Integration)

An Interdisciplinary Model appears to offer many advantages. This model demands time correlation and the choice of the ways in which the different aspects of various disciplines will be woven together in order for students to understand the relationship between these diverse elements. It is important to choose one school subject which will introduce the issue first, only then the others gradually develop the subject content and improve students' skills and abilities which are built on those ones gained during the previous lessons. As it can be easily noticed there cannot be any changes in the chronological order of the lessons. Reaching the end of such a path, a student should have a holistic vision of the topic; his knowledge of the problem will be comprehensive and coherent.

Sielatycki gives the example of integrating subject content around the topic *"National minorities".* It is a very good subject especially if the school is situated in the area inhabited by minorities. In the cross-curriculum team the teachers choose the school subject which will get students acquainted with the issue, e.g. History – the history of the minority. Each subsequent lesson will develop the topic, making use of the students' knowledge acquired during the previous lessons. Thus, Geography will treat about the locations of the minority; Knowledge of the Society will deal with the political parties of the minority; Arts or Music – will deal with its culture and finally, the students may learn the language of the minority or just work out the project in any foreign language they learn at school. Appendix 3 shows the diagram of the Sielatycki's[3] interdisciplinary model.

In the first and the second model there is integration around the content i.e. subject content integration, including a foreign language. But to respect current European policy in foreign languages, characterized so precisely in Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, teachers have to consider competence integration as well which is a demanding enterprise. The majority of foreign language course books are written according to the problem integration or subject integration which is clearly visible in the contents of the manuals. On the contrary, final exams are constructed according to the mentioned competence integration. Thus, education aims put in this way cause certain difficulties in a proper selection of topics and ways of integrating problems, content and competencies.

Both, the maturity exam (Polish New Matura) and the exam after a lower secondary school are built around competence integration which makes the teacher work harder during the final year of the school education. Quite often it is necessary to reject the main course book dealing with general language and find a companion which contains exam tasks dealing with: asking for and getting information in a foreign language, reporting past events, negotiations and defending one's point of view, showing arguments for and against, communicating (in general) or describing a photo, etc. A great variety of student's competences has to be presented at the time of the exam.

Referring to the three described models, they proved very profitable in assigning tasks for students to achieve full competence integration. Consequently, Sielatycki in his book presents ways of integrating school subjects around one of the key competences: effective communication which is divided into minor competences, such as the ones above and some more e.g. effective communication being only one of the seven competences included in the content bases for comprehensive school subjects in Polish school. The others are: learning, thinking, investigating, self-development, cooperation and activity.

All the mentioned aims and objectives, phenomena and changes prove that the Polish education system and methodology of teaching foreign languages are changing and proceeding into the European direction. Appendix 4 shows a table[4] of the relations between content and competence.

[3] Ibid. p.30.

[4] Ibid. p.32.

The table has been changed a little by the author of this article. There is one more column "A foreign language" and only four minor competences have been chosen.

Description of the Research

The author of this article wants to share her teaching experience of integrating school subjects and show how she integrated some topics around the problem (problem integration) and around the subject content (content and language integration) and how she used the first model (monodisciplinary model).

Firstly, in the case of *Teaching English through History and Literature* the author chose some education paths – historic education, European education and artistic education.

All the activities dealt with the period of the Middle Ages and had been prepared for the first-year students of a secondary school. The tasks were arranged in a chronological order according to the school curriculum. The following historical events had been taken into consideration: the appearance of the oldest piece of literature "Beowulf" (the 7th or the 10th century); the battle of Hastings (the 11th century); plagues in the Middle Ages and the children crusade (the 13th century, "The Legend of Pied Piper of Hamelin").

The selection of topics and tasks for creative activities demanded greater effort, energy, interest and time than for usual activities. Careful choice made students secure and not frightened or bored by the activity. To make the topics more familiar to the students the teacher consulted her colleagues who work in the same complex of schools both in 'a lower secondary school' and in 'a high school'. All first-year students learn about the Middle Ages during their history lessons and discuss literature of this period. The teacher drew on her colleagues' experience to collect interesting problems and typical of the epoch. It helped a lot while making the proper selection of the tasks.

Here is the list of the topics, which helped pupils understand the characteristics of the epoch and the problems in the series of English lessons.

Some chosen issues taken from the history and literature books for the first grade of the secondary school.

History:

- *The period of the Middle Ages in Europe.*
- *Norman conquests.*
- *The beginning of Anglo-Norman country (the battle of Hastings).*
- *Crusades in the Middle Ages.*
- *Knights in the Middle Ages (ideals and style of life).*
- *Great feudal monarchies: England and France.*
- *Culture of the Middle Ages (cathedrals, universities).*

Literature:

- *The beginnings of Polish literature in the Middle Ages.*
- *The oldest Polish religious poem, "Bogurodzica".*
- *A miniature of the Middle Ages, "Miniatura średniowieczna" by Wisława Szymborska.*
- *Song about Roland.*
- *The stories of the Knights of the Round Table.*

What were the reasons for choosing such topics? All the described activities have strong links with subject content from the curriculum for the first-year students in a secondary school. The teacher wanted to start in a similar way as is traditional during literature lessons in Polish. In the first class children learn about the oldest masterpieces of literature, they are acquainted with the history and the changes of the language, they get to know the origins of famous pieces of literature and their influence on language and culture. The school curriculum includes the studies of the Bible and Bogurodzica (the oldest piece of literature in Polish). Why do the students not learn about *Beowulf* (the oldest piece of literature in English)? Thinking about the subject content of history, the author of the project decided to choose the topics that are also taught in the first class on History, e.g. *The Battle of Hastings* which is actually connected with many European countries. To show the pupils how English can function as a means of getting knowledge about other cultures, the writer chose a world famous story to work with: *The Legend of Pied Piper of Hamelin.* All the areas investigated with the learners were connected with the Middle Ages, the period that the first-year students learn about.

The aim of the tasks was to offer learners ways of allowing them to appreciate their own achievements in areas such as vocabulary learning, pronunciation and basic grammatical structures. Throughout those activities the teacher wanted to give pupils a positive, realistic assessment of their own abilities as L2 learners, even though they were elementary students and the topics were quite difficult as they dealt with history and literature.

To motivate pupils to work hard, and to encourage them to be creative and be successful in language learning, the teacher decided to use a wide range of techniques and activities, such as drawing, painting, story telling, listening, role play, drama, project work, school theatre, making a school display and a trip to a medieval castle.

The pupils were truly involved in the activities and participated with great enthusiasm. All of them wanted to take part in the practical activities connected with the history of the epoch (their favourite ones were the projects); some of them were very impatient while waiting for the successive tasks. However, at the beginning of the experiment they were rather reserved and disorientated as to the aims of such lessons. They were afraid that they might not learn English well through such methods. But step by step their attitude changed and finally the learners stated that it had been a good strategy. The teacher noticed the boys' excitement while dealing with the activities about the Vikings' adventures, especially while taking part in a play showing the battle near Hastings (written by one of the best students). The girls were fond of drawing, neat writing and inventing their own stories about Beowulf. The activity of writing Gothic letters turned out very difficult; the children associated the name Gothic with Greek which could be seen in some of the project works.

While completing the tasks, the learners (beginners to pre-intermediate students) used Polish but they mixed it with a foreign language. The reports, guided by the teacher were in English. All the time the teacher encouraged children in their activities and gave positive feedback for their achievements. Outstanding outcomes were pupils' booklets in English with their own stories from the Middle Ages. Although they contained some grammatical errors and spelling mistakes, the author did not want to correct them so as not to spoil the artistic value of the children's work. There was even a book made in a form of a dragon. While writing the books (it was assigned as homework), a lot of children used computers. To have more resource materials they surfed the Internet which was highly appreciated by the teacher who gave the learners some web addresses. All the booklets and illustrations entitled "Interpreting Beowulf" were displayed in the main hall of the school, at the time of parents' consultations with the teachers. Parents and the head teacher judged the value of the children's works to be of a high standard.

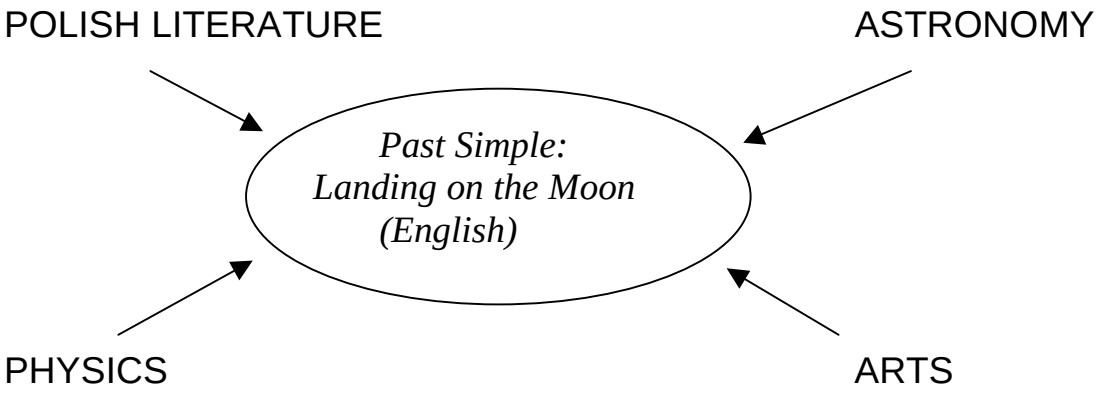
A small classroom theatre was the next type of activity appreciated by the writer's pupils who agreed that drama was an excellent addition to their language classes. The learners liked the idea of bilingual scenes (German and English) in the performance of the legend "Pied Piper of Hamelin". During the lessons the teacher tried to create an atmosphere in which students did not feel constrained but which enabled them to learn while playing and enjoying themselves.

In the whole series of lessons dealing with history and literature, the learners practised a lot of structures e.g. simple sentences: imperatives, questions, answers and requests in simple present and simple past tenses, and the expression 'to be going to do something' and learned a lot of vocabulary. The children experimented telling stories and role play which they appreciated the best. After a few months they presented their achievements during "The Regional School Days of English".

From this and other such projects the author gained a strong impression that the integrated approaches adopted in the teaching and learning of a foreign language were very enjoyable, encouraging and effective. The writer is convinced that the knowledge the students acquired during such classes will remain in the learners' memory for a very long time.

Appendix 1

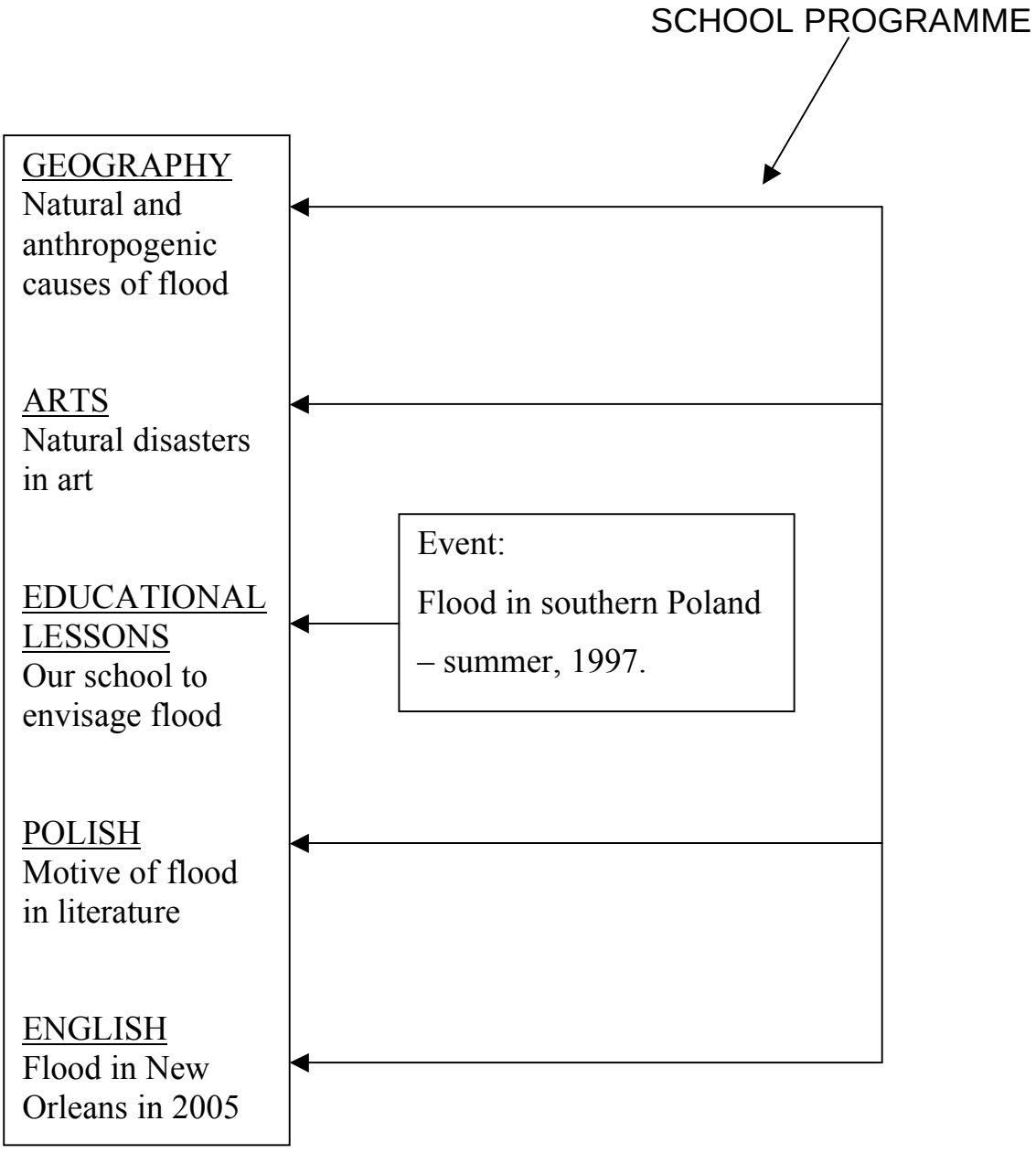
Monodisciplinary model



Problem integration

Appendix 2

Multidisciplinary model[5]



Problem integration

[5] Program *Nowa Szkoła*, CODN, Warszawa 1999.
The author's of the article translation. One item is added, ENGLISH.

Appendix 3

INTERDISCIPLINARY MODEL

Problem: ***Cultural diversity in Poland***

Topic: ***My home town – Lodz as the town of four cultures***

HISTORY

Industrial development in Poland (19th century); beginnings of foreign cultures in Lodz

↓

GEOGRAPHY

Directions of migrations, locations of four nations in central Poland, characteristics of the regions and areas.

↓

KNOWLEDGE OF THE SOCIETY

Political parties of the four nations.

↓

ARTS / MUSIC / RELIGION EDUCATION

Paintings and compositions by the representatives of Polish, Jewish, Russian and German art (19th century or at present); catholic and protestant churches, reading the Bible, prayers.

↓

POLISH

Analyses of famous masterpieces

↓

LANGUAGES

German, Russian, English – project work about four cultures.

Subject content integration

Appendix 4 **Competence integration**

CONTENT[2]

Subskills	Polish	History	Knowledge of the society	Geography	Mathematics	Arts	Foreign language
Effective communication						A poster for my birthday	Writing an invitation for my 18th birthday
Presentation of one's point of view				My attitude towards nuclear energy			Speaking: For and against nuclear energy
Ability to listen to others' point of view			Programme analysis of the political parties				Listening comprehension: Radio debate among the representatives of Green Peace *Protecting environment*
Ability to use ICT	Writing formal letters using word processor						Reading and writing letters: A formal letter to a foreign school or class

[2] The last column is added by the author of this article.

Appendix 5

Teaching English through History and Literature

Monodisciplinary model

POLISH LANGUAGE

Revising students' knowledge of:

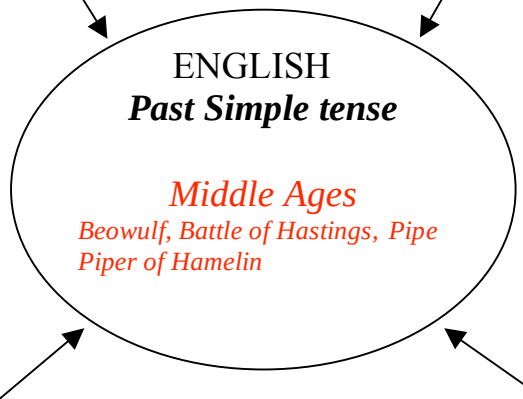
- *Medieval poetry*
- *Medieval protagonists*
- *Medieval authors*

HISTORY

Medieval invasions

Names of the countries in the Middle Ages

Names of the nations



GEOGRAPHY

- *Names of the countries and capitals*
- *Names of geographical regions in Great Britain*
- *Names of the seas*
- *Work with the map of Europe*

ARTS and ICT

Designing a project

Painting and drawing

Finding Internet resources

Using word processor

Problem integration

An Integrated Approach to Content and Language Study: Citizenship Development and Society Building

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Abstract

I have been developing a university study programme that uses English as foreign-additional-other (FAO) vehicular language. My aim has been to connect confidence and competence building with (1) sociological knowledge engagement, inquisitiveness, and re-construction and (2) the nurturing of civic awareness citizenship building of classroom society as citizenship and wider society building which relates to the everyday concerns of myself and students.

Given the many constraints blocking the implementation of an institutional CLIL, a more effective way and means of promoting integrated study at KGU and Sociology is to initially develop, in individual classes and classrooms, and on an experimental basis, language-content-citizenship study integration. This, when bringing positive results e.g. greater motivation for FAO language learning, and greater enthusiasm to study academic content in two languages, might in time lead to greater adoption of CLIL across the mainstream curriculum.

Student feedback and evaluations of my teaching and our study of the CLIL approach seems to confirm that students find structures such as groups formed with sociologists' names, weekly review of study using reflection notes, and democratic voting on the evolution of study and the curriculum very helpful in sensitizing them to how sociology relates to their personal everyday lives, and how both language development and sociology learning contribute to greater awareness of civic-mindedness.

The empowering possibilities of university CLIL can lead teachers and students to cooperatively develop a communication vocabulary that gives classroom activities a greater sense of immediacy. This vocabulary is set up and maintained so that the teacher and students recognize that their use of language/communication, integrated with engagement in knowing (more) about the social world inside class, is as useful outside class.

I. Introduction: Forces that can drive university CLIL in Japan

In the past three years, I have been developing an English-medium university study programme with English as a foreign-additional-other (FAO) language. The study programme connects language confidence and competence building with (1) sociological knowledge engagement, inquisitiveness, and re-construction and (2) the nurturing of a civic awareness citizenship building of classroom society as citizenship and society building that relates to the everyday concerns of myself and students in our study of Sociology at Kwansei Gakuin (KGU).

The primary aim of this CLIL approach is to create - in negotiation and dialogic discussion activity with students – social study structures that direct us towards a more socially accountable learning. What is most important is for us to affirm (1) how we value our personal and communal relationship to each other and to our study, and (2) how we value not only what we study, but more importantly, how we study. How do we, for example, together raise issues of concern, organize time and study, make study decisions, and plan ahead after reflecting on previous study?

From results of student survey feedback on my lectures in class, and outside class readings related directly to classroom study in a recently completed fall term of classes in Sociology, I found that this approach had been of benefit to students. In the most recently completed term in which this CLIL approach was employed, spring 2008 from April to July, I experimented with setting up a study management framework, with increased emphasis on developing democracy and more inclusive student participation. Student feedback again confirmed the benefits of this approach.

The FAO language part of the KGU-Sociology curriculum is one ideal area to implement politically, socially, and culturally sensitive citizenship development university CLIL. Bollinger, Nainby, and Warren (2003) perceive a conceptual bridge between contemporary communication theory and critical educational practice. At present there exist, they argue, conceptually two separate worlds.There is, they maintain, difference between the linguistic world of signifiers and the world of "things" such as mental experiences, sensations, ideas, concepts, or signifieds.

One world is the world people communicate with or the entire set of, for example, symbols, sounds, gestures, and pictures people use to communicate. The second world is the world people talk about, the many content areas that move people to communicate with one another. Bollinger et al. believe teachers must work with students to rethink and interrogate how and why we constitute the world as we do. The representational two - worlds model, which has communication learning distinct from knowledge and content acquisition and understanding, fails to account for what they see as the complexity of the lived experiences of people in class where the focus of study and learning remains on systemic meanings not minute communicative acts.

Banks (1991) argues that knowledge and skills are not neutral. He says that an important purpose of each is to help people improve society – for example, hold onto or restore worthwhile traditional socio-cultural values. A "transformative" curriculum depends less on content or the skills taught than the willingness and efforts of teachers with students to examine their personal political, social, and cultural values and how these values impact on their developing identities. Building and nurturing democratic citizenship in class begins with students and I together agreeing to discuss topics that affect our personal/academic lives on a daily basis in class and outside class.

The classroom micro-society raises four citizenship development issues:

1. What are our individual and collective social study communication responsibilities?
2. What rules, laws, regulations, and social study structures can we agree to make and abide by?
3. What about decision-making and representation and redress (of grievances)?
4. What cognitive and affective study dispositions are we to value and promote in our class society?

In section II I will describe the teaching and learning situation at KGU and Sociology, and review problems in planning and implementing a systemic institutional-wide CLIL at KGU and Sociology.

II. The language-content situation at Kwansei Gakuin University and Sociology: problems in conceiving and practicing CLIL

I first pose four questions about the KGU-Sociology situation:

1. Does Kwansei Gakuin (KG) have a policy or plan relating to the teaching and learning languages to all undergraduates?

2. Are there any structures in place at KG or within Sociology that allow for discussion, planning, and/or policy making with regard to the teaching and learning of languages?

3. Which (if any) structures exist at institutional level for the coordination of language teaching?

4. Are there any teaching/learning procedures at KG or in Sociology designed to support and encourage language learning (e.g. exchange programs, teaching a subject through an FAO non-L1 language, credits for language courses incorporated into degrees, self-access facilities)?

The simple answer to the first question above is that there is no clearly stated policy relating to teaching and learning of FAO languages. Regarding questions two and three, the visible structures in place that allow for discussion, planning, or language teaching/ learning policy-making are located in the centralized and autonomous Language Center (LC) where study and learning remains fixed and fixated on acquiring knowledge of languages and skills in using languages but for no obvious or specific purposes.

Structural connections between the LC and each of the nine specialty-area content departments – Sociology, Economics, Business Administration, Humanities, Human Welfare, Law, Theology, Policy Studies, Science and Information Technology - are FAO Language Education Committees (EEC) – each consisting of administrative and teaching members of the LC, and one representative FAO language faculty member. Two KGU departments have opted for not to send a representative to the FAO language EEC and neither assume complete responsibility for FAO language education within the department nor do they require students to take a second FAO language in addition to English.

I have served as a member of the LC English Education Committee a number of times. Discussion and planning for FAO English language teaching/learning that takes place in that Committee and related structural bodies chiefly concerns curriculum administered directly by the LC which prioritizes non-integrated language-content language study and has no formal connections with specialty-area study. Other FAO language discussion and planning committees (e.g. German, French, Chinese, and Korean) exist but they too focus primarily if not exclusively on LC-administered study.

Aside from a teaching training section that is administered in conjunction with the LC, and which trains undergraduates to be certified as language teachers, there are no support mechanisms for integrating FAO language and specialty-area content study. There are a great number of overseas exchange programs at KG, which stress language and culture learning not specialty-area content learning using an FAO language such as English. These overseas programs include a *Sophomore in English* program where a select number of students can take general education courses (in English) and receive limited general education only credit. To my knowledge there are no structures in place which support work placement overseas or in companies in Japan that specifically require clearly stated competence in using an FAO language.

The absence of FAO English language-content integration at KGU is due to a variety of reasons, as reported in Brady (2008) which I will reiterate. According to Hyde (2002), Japanese teachers and learners may perceive the FAO English language taught in school harmful for the proficiency in Japanese and/or the development of the Japanese identity. Many Japanese, Hyde feels, do not view English as a communication system, but see it as inert knowledge to pass university entrance exams and to be forgotten, or to be used for emblem, sorting, and certification as McVeigh (2002) argues.

McVeigh has observed that Japan-appropriated uses of English are veiled by public pronouncements for the need to teach genuine language and language use, though it is not made clear what the content base of that use should or could be. Ambivalence to actual communicative, as opposed to certification, appropriation, or emblematic, uses of English exists at KGU and the department of Sociology. KGU and Sociology also typify, according to Loveday's typology of language communities (1996), a non-bilingual setting where members of the (KGU) community are academically monolingual and/or socially bilingual or multilingual. This kind of community, Loveday argues, has no social or other requirement for the acquisition or use of the language.

A major obstacle to integrated FAO study at KGU and Sociology is that there is ambiguity and ambivalence regarding the reasons university students ought to study (in) an FAO language, and particularly English. Another major obstacle to integrated FAO English language education is a failure of KGU and Sociology faculty to value language study as an integral part of the total curriculum provision, as universities should according to Chastain (1980). Chastain argues that in many institutions language education is considered a hurdle to fulfilling graduation requirements, being locked into an isolated compartmental and marginalized area of less important general, as opposed to more important specialized, study. This is sadly the case at KG and Sociology.

Perhaps the most difficult hurdle to any integrated FAO language and content curriculum concerns academic socio-cultural issues (Brady, 2000). In English education a new paradigm built on integrated structures and practices can conflict with prevalent university academic professional culture, which according to Bernstein (1971) values collectionism, and faculty autonomy and freedom within very strict boundaries of professional academic thinking, practice, and behaviour. According to Bernstein 'Courses which promote integrated learning can weaken separated hierarchies of collection, and also alter the balance of power, where the entire structure and distribution of power has been determined according to a hierarchical and/or collection code of thinking and conduct'. (l971: 62),

Given the many constraints blocking the implementation of institutional CLIL, a more effective way and means of promoting integration at KGU and Sociology, in my estimation, is from the bottom up. That is to develop, in individual classes and classrooms on an experimental basis, language-content-citizenship integration where any positive results such as greater motivation for FAO language learning, and greater enthusiasm to study academic content in two languages might in time lead to greater adoption of CLIL across the mainstream curriculum. In section III I will describe the implementation of an experimental and experiential citizenship development CLIL at KGU and Sociology.

III. From conception to practice: a CLIL citizenship development

Useful and necessary life survival civic dispositions that can be developed in a citizenship development university CLIL are:

1. being observant/attentive, taking note(s), and being aware of one's surroundings and of others,
2. making important decisions and plans,
3. making judgments and discriminating among alternatives,
4. organizing, e.g. time and study,
5. inquiring when you don't know; asking questions for more information and for clarification,
6. guessing and hypothesizing,
7. arguing and persuading,
8. reflecting, re-evaluating,
9. making proposals,
10. seeing and solving problems.

Dialogic rule-making to develop civic responsibility study dispositions in class begins with a structural reorientation of learning away from a non-consultative authoritarian pedagogical approach that banks knowledge and/or certifies person to have properly learned an inert body of knowledge or technical skill(s). The key components of a more consultative and democratic dialogic rule-making are:

a. the valuing and promoting of inquisitiveness and hypothesis, and emotional as well as cognitive intelligence,

b. the valuing of language and communication being individually and socially responsible and accountable, where a person's language and communication is always a "work in progress,"

c. the valuing of and commitment to a full power-sharing relationship of teaching and learning which does not justify teacher or institutional control over students or their study,

d. the valuing of and commitment to using the lived experiences and life stories teacher and students bring to class as the basis for civic responsibility and sociology learning.

First class and on going study in classes I teach at KGU begins with and continually focuses on sharing understandings of the following features:

a. our responsibilities to, and expectations of, self and each other,

b. our shared enthusiasm and negotiated agreement of sociology content to study using students' L1 – principally when they talk with one another – and the FAO English language – principally in public whole-class communication,

c. respecting self and caring for others using, at first, three FAO English language songs and three social hero stories to show the importance of our knowing and feeling about social justice, marginality, individual and social concerns and interests,

d. meaningful dialogue in class – e.g. students with me, students with each other in chosen groups having sociological names – and our jointly making decisions on all important curriculum matters such as how study evolves, out-of-class assignments, and testing.

The CLIL framework that I have developed and am attempting to put into practice aims to involve students not only to participate in the planning and practice of their curriculum, but to *take control* of their study and learning.

McKinney (2007) argues that it is necessary for teachers and students to be more attentive not only to what they study (knowledge) or the skills they need to utilize to enhance knowledge learning. Teachers and students must McKinney (2007) argues, hone in on how they study and how they value what and how they study through shared dialogue.

From the initial list of topics given out to students in the first class we begin our study of society, culture, and sociology using English as the agreed-on public language of communication, and either English or Japanese as the language that students can use among themselves in groups. Groups are formed with the name of a prominent sociologist that gives each an identity. We enter the world of society-culture and sociology study by first looking at how we will create and nurture a negotiated study society in class.

The student feedback and student evaluations of my teaching and our study, the CLIL approach put forth in this paper, seem to confirm the following findings.

1. Students realize that language is not learned compartmentally nor is it separate from either a content base, such as sociology, or the development of "people in society" citizenship responsibilities,

2. Students find the integrated approach useful in developing their language competence and confidence to discuss sociology and practice citizenship responsibilities,

3. Students find that structures such as groups formed with sociologists' names, weekly review of study using reflection notes, and democratic voting on the evolution of study and the curriculum very helpful in sensitizing them to how sociology relates to their personal everyday lives, and how both language development and sociology learning contribute to greater awareness of civic-mindedness.

As Koliba (2000), Berman (1997), and Ehman (1980) all maintain, the content of teaching and study is not as critical as the way(s) in which teachers teach and interact with students that determines a closed or open classroom environment.

IV. Conclusion: the benefits of a *phronetic*, democratic, one-world ontological vision and practice of university CLIL

Flyvbjerg (2001) argues for a focus on a *phronetc,* as opposed to an *episteme* or t*echne*, approach to social research, an approach which places values over and above knowledge acquisition or skills' building. Flyvbjerg poses four value-rational questions that a social scientist must be concerned with when investigating social phenomena:

1. Where are we going?
2. Who gains and loses and by which mechanisms of power?
3. Is the direction in which we are going desirable?
4. What should be done (if the direction in which we are going is *not* desirable)?

Splitter (1995) argues that schools continue to be agents of manipulation and preservers/protectors of the status quo rather than facilitators for personal enrichment and liberation. Splitter believes teachers need to recognize that in the real world outside the classroom "thinking among ordinary citizens may be more of a threat than a priority" (1995: 1). Splitter advocates a *Philosophy for Children* to guide educators in their teaching of better thinking to include;

1. argumentation skills,
2. inquisitive skills, especially searching for reasons and not accepting what is given,
3. identification, modification, and application of criteria to form judgments, and make decisions,
4. the ability to identify relationships to help us make sense of things (e.g. (cause(s) and effects, means and ends, parts and wholes),
5. the exercise of moral imagination where we think of different ways of proceeding and also represent to ourselves and others alternative moral/ethical positions and world views.

Employing integrated FAO English language and widely conceived academic content study at university satisfies a number of important higher educational objectives. First, integrated study can help establish a new approach towards the purpose of (English) language study in Japan. This approach would recognize language study not as primarily study of the language *as an object*, but as study that also involves knowledge engagement or human development.

Secondly, integrated study can provide a more clear direction for a communication language study approach by specifying *the base* of that study and the one-world ontological connections between communication and worldly knowledge.

Thirdly, integrated FAO English language and knowledge-content study can give more coherence and cohesion to both general and specialized education, and can in time serve as an impetus for a more connected role and responsibility of general and special education across the entire curriculum first proposed by the Japanese Ministry of Education (*Monkasho)* in 1991.

A CLIL one-world ontology emphasizes the immediacy and the material force of communication. Communication is, the element binding language and content where any judgment about the immediate impact of, for example offensive or divisive talk or content assessment is not suspended until later when the material inequities such speech may perpetuate or ensure can be evaluated. (Bollinger et al. 2003: 201).

The framing of communication about the world to some future end has communication, and thus language itself, depending on material states or affairs, which is an instrumental or technical tool model of communication.

Communication itself forms the substance and sustenance of our lives unifying us and the world we inhabit. Communication in a one-world ontology is not simply a means to achieve human world-shaping. Communication about the world is as meaningful as, or perhaps more so than, the world we communicate about (the content) The goal of a citizenship development CLIL is to re-specify the character of communication where the centrality of day-to-day speech acts is itself an important subject matter of scholarly and pedagogical work and practice. A one-world ontology stresses the unity of social meaning and social reality.

The empowering possibilities of university CLIL in Japan are that teachers and students can together develop one-world communication-knowledge vocabulary, in the process of exploring sociological knowledge through language - that gives classroom activities a greater sense of immediacy. This vocabulary is established and maintained so that students recognize that their use of language/communication, integrated with engagement in knowing (more) about the social world inside class, is as useful outside class. Some necessary ingredients of this ontological vocabulary are inquiry and hypothesis, enduring curiosity about the world using Flyvbjerg's four value-laden questions to guide teaching, learning, and research, and Splitter's *Philosophy for Children* to guide discussion and interaction.

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CLIL Project Work at Early Ages: A Case Study

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Abstract

This article presents a classroom experience in a bilingual school in North Spain. At Years 1 and 2 (6-7 year-olds) we work through cooperative projects using the CLIL approach. Through these cross-curricular projects students acquire content issues to do with the world around them which have a practical application for their lives. The results we are obtaining are highly satisfactory, especially considering that we work with some children with major social and family problems, alongside a large group of students belonging to ethnic minorities, who have limited motivation to learn. Therefore, working content through is a challenge in this situation.

Keywords: project work, early ages, cross-curricular, cooperative, experience.

Introduction

I teach Year 1 and Year 2 *Literacy* at C.P. Bilingual Ventanielles in Oviedo (Asturias, Northern Spain). It is a state school that runs an integrated curriculum Spanish-English, part of the British Council-Ministry of Education agreement, where students receive a bilingual education. They have 40% of their subjects in English (Literacy, Science, History and Geography, Art) and receive a total of 9 hours per week in English at the stage of Infant Education (3 to 5 year-olds), which increases to 11 hours per week in Primary Education (6 to 12 year-olds). In their school schedule, there is a daily session of Literacy, which is the basis for the rest of the bilingual learning, as it is where they acquire literacy skills necessary for working in other subjects. Year 1, 3 and 6 have six Literacy sessions per week; four Science, History and Geography sessions per week; and one Art session per week The bilingual program is exactly the same at Years 2, 4 and 6, but with the exception of a session less of Literacy, due to the increment of time for Asturian Language sessions.

In our school 7% of students belong to ethnic minorities (Romany) and to social and economically deprived families. One of the requirements of the agreement mentioned above is that this project should be developed in bilingual schools located in deprived areas, in order for the students to have access to an education that would be unattainable otherwise. These students register a high degree of absenteeism and low levels of motivation.

Hence, taking into account that the level of English of these students was considerably behind the rest of the students, I began experimenting with project work through CLIL five years ago so my students could build up their own learning through their personal discoveries.

CLIL Project Work

Project work through CLIL started in the academic year 2003-2004. At the beginning of that year, I negotiated with my students to consider three projects, to be developed once per term. Taking into account that the main aim was to make children active participants of their own learning process and to provide them with a minimum of the second language that is used at our school (that is, English), any topic could be valid for the project work, but that they should justify their choice. Therefore, by negotiating topics with them I make sure that they get involved in the development of the projects from the very beginning.

From that time up to now, we have continued working this way, getting really satisfactory results with these children. And the rest of students who attend school normally, get really involved and enthusiastic about the project work, too. Therefore, our Literacy sessions transform, once a week, into cross-curricular sessions where we work a topic from different subjects, such as Literacy, Maths, Science, History, Geography, Music, Drama, ICT and Arts.

The steps we follow in our project work are the following:

- **Negotiation of topics with students**. It is important to involve them in the development of the projects from the very beginning, so they feel really motivated to work.
- **Contextualization of topics.** Although we negotiate possible topics, I always try to contextualize them according to some kind of school activity (a festival, a celebration, an excursion, a special day or time, etc.), in order to link the projects to the school yearly plan.
- **Prior knowledge.** We always start from children's prior knowledge, as all projects start with an assembly where we comment and discuss about ideas that children already have about the topic.
- **Introduction of the topic and key ideas** (fiction and non-fiction facts). To start with, I take to the very first session any artefact that has to do with the topic we are working with. I present it to the children to raise their interest on it and to encourage them to talk about what they know and what they would like to know about the topic. Then, we list all their suggestions on two pieces of paper of different colour and stick them both on the display wall. At the end of every session, we make a plenary and we review all the items on the "What I would like to know" side, checking if they are able to answer some of the questions written there. If so, we tick them and we leave the rest for following sessions.
- **Activities, tasks, worksheets and other materials.** Then, we start doing research, preparing resources, doing different kinds of activities (very varied ones, so as to cater for all learning styles in the group), etc.
- **Final product.** As the project develops, we take pictures of all that takes place during the sessions and, at the end of the term, we prepare a scrapbook with all the pictures and children's contributions to be taken home. This way we establish links between home and school and parents can see what they children have been working on in class.
- **"Project display".** For every project we set up a classroom display, with all children's contributions, with visual resources that help children understand concepts better and with an experience table where there are all kinds of artefacts, objects and books related to the topic of the project, and where children can go at any moment during the session to look up for information, to manipulate the objects, etc.
- **Round up activity.** The closure of the project consists on an excursion or visit (or in bringing some experts or parents to the sessions to tell us things about the project) to places where children can see in real life what they have previously worked at school. The main aim of this project work is that children can see that what they have learnt exists in the real world outside the classroom walls. This is a way of bringing the world into the school and taking the school out to the world.

The project duration is very flexible, because it will largely depend on input and on students' interest. On the other hand, the first projects developed tended to be short. However, as the years went by and students were more accustomed to this working method, projects became longer, more complex, with more and richer content and even the introduction of ICT, especially by using the Internet as a source of information. In terms of Internet usage, of course, at these ages the degree of autonomy is quite limited and children need guidance from the teacher. However, use of the internet has made them more autonomous in their studies.

This way of work has proved very motivating for everyone. It respects the differences in capabilities among my students, as each has his/her pace of work. What matters is not who provides more and better, but that each has their own way to contribute to the project. Through this involvement feel motivated to contribute to the development of a common project and thus become the real protagonists of their own learning. A key issue was respecting students' rhythm of learning, skills and abilities, and taking into account the familiar, social and economical environment these children have to live in.

Another important issue is that the kind of vocabulary and language structures that children acquire through CLIL project work is much more demanding than those they could learn in traditional ESL lessons, because we are working with content of very different and varied nature.

It might surprise some people to think about 6-7 year-olds, some of them with serious deficiencies in their mother tongue (due to de-motivation and absenteeism, as mentioned earlier) working on complex content using English as the vehicular language in the sessions. However, in this case most of the children have attended this school from the age of 3, so they have been involved in the bilingual program for three years, which allows them to have a some knowledge of the language.

Objectives

The main objectives of the project work for teaching content through English are:

- to work content from a cross-curricular and globalized point of view, using English as the communicative vehicle and covering different aspects of issues that are attractive and relevant to students
- to encourage students to be the builders of their own learning and feel part of a joint project
- to encourage meaningful learning and cooperative and team work.
- to respect the different skills and abilities of students
- to motivate ethnic minorities students, immigrants or children who belong to conflictive environments to work in a different way from the "traditional" one, to feel more integrated into classroom activities, and to show more interest in attending school
- to increase the level of students' self-esteem through activities that suit their tastes, needs and abilities
- to promote respect for individual and cultural differences that exist in the different classes
- to try to bring families to school to see their children's daily work by organizing exhibitions and open days in which children's products developed in the classroom are displayed for families to see how they work and for them to motivate their children to continue doing so
- to encourage the participation of families in the development of materials and project activities, by doing joint activities at home (parents-children), planned by the teacher for this purpose, as well as on the spot contributions to the murals, posters, etc. of the projects
- to integrate projects activities in the school yearly plan, thus pursuing an integrated and global learning
- to introduce students to the customs and cultures of other countries, especially the ones they come from

Projects Developed Up To Year 2008

Academic year 2003-2004 (Infant Stage. 5 year-olds)

a) First Term: *Our community*. Since the Infant building (where 3 and 4 year-olds are) is about 500 meters. away from the main building and the surroundings are quite different, we developed this project to become familiar with the public places, facilities, shops and community helpers near the school. We visited many different places around our school (shops, the police station, the fire station, the medical centre).

b) Second Term: *Post and Letters*. This project was developed before Christmas, as we were going to write the wish list so we needed to know how to write a letter and how to send it; what happens to letters once we post them; a visit to the local Post Office, etc.

c) Third Term: *Paintings*. This project was contextualized in a visit to the Fine Arts Museum in Oviedo. Therefore, we studied different painters and their works, painting techniques, themes, etc.

Academic Year 2004-2005 (Year 1. 6 year-olds)

a) First Term: *Books.* This project was carried out due for two main reasons: children in Year 1 start using course books and, the second reason was that is was Hans Christian Andersen's anniversary and, from the school library, there was a general proposal for the whole school to work on Andersen during this term. Therefore, we worked on different kinds of books (fiction and non-fiction), classification of books attending to size and thickness, different places we can find books, favourite books, parts of a book, visit to the local library, etc.

b) Second Term: *Dinosaurs.* The project started with a child bringing a plastic dinosaur to class. The rest of children liked it very much and I asked them if they would like to know more things about dinosaurs. Therefore, we worked on different dinosaurs, carnivores and herbivores; comparison of the ages; classification of dinosaurs attending to their size; characteristics of dinosaurs; a visit to the Jurassic Museum of Asturias, etc.

c) Third Term: *Chocolate*. During this third term, the whole school had to work on "Interculturality" as the main topic for the school Open Door Days. Then I suggested that my students work on "Chocolate" as an intercultural element, as chocolate is present in all cultures of the world. We learnt about the Mayas and the Aztecs; made Aztec golden vessels; learnt about the origin of chocolate and its manufacture; wrote chocolate poems; read an adaptation of "Charlie and the chocolate factory"; painted using liquid chocolate; visited a chocolate factory, etc.

Academic Year 2005-2006 (Year 2. 7 year-olds)

a) First Term: *Space.* This project was suggested by a student who found out in the newspaper that a new planet (Sedna) had been discovered. Therefore, we worked on the Solar System; the colours of the planets and the reasons why they have got those colours; heavenly bodies; made space rockets and models of the planets, sang planets songs, etc.

b) Second Term: *Milk.* This project was linked to a visit planned at school to a local dairy. We worked on different types of milk; made milk bottles models and cow masks; made butter in class as we sang a boogie; learnt about doorstep delivery in Britain; worked on the pasteurization process; identified dairy products, visited a dairy and learnt about different breeds of dairy cows, etc.

c) Third Term: *Ocean Life*. During this third term, the whole school had to work on "Ecosystems" as the main topic for the school Open Door Days. Then, my students chose "Ocean Life". We worked on the oceans; the Spanish seas; different animals and creatures living in the sea; differences among fish and sea mammals; sea zones; made an aquarium using recycled objects, danced the "Ocean Motion" song, etc.

Academic Year 2006-2007 (Year 1. 6 year-olds)

a) First and Second Terms: *Plants.* This project was suggested by the students and we did it during two whole terms, as children were so interested in the topic that we kept extending it on and on. We worked on living and non living things; different kinds of plants; parts of the plant; different uses we make of plants; planted seeds and registered their growth; learnt about the four main elements that plants need to grow healthy and visited a nursery.

b) Third Term: *Bread*. This project was contextualized on a school visit to a bakery. Therefore we worked on different breads of the world, held a bread tasty session; worked on "The Little Red Hen", etc.

Academic Year 2007-2008 (Year 2. 7 year-olds)

a) Second Term: *Potatoes.* In this project we worked on different varieties of potatoes and their suitability to be cooked on one way or another; made experiments with potatoes; planted potatoes and monitored their growth; and held a potato cooking contest.

b) Third Term: *The Smurfs*. During this third term, the whole school had to work on "comics" as the main topic for the school Open Door Days. Then, my students chose the Smurfs and we worked on the different names according to their personalities; different roles of the Smurfs in their village; dressed up as Smurfs, worked on values such as "we are all the same, we are different", etc.

Methodology

Project work always starts with the choice of the most appropriate topics according to children's age and views, as well as taking into account the contents we have to work in the sessions. Therefore, I try to suggest topics that are of interest to my students, or that are related to some event established in the school yearly plan (an excursion Book Day, Christmas, etc.).

One very important aspect in the development of projects is collaboration with families. This is usually done on very specific occasions, and they enable us to check the level of involvement and interest shown by parents in their children's learning process, as well as the motivation they can convey their children to take part in a project that is taking place in their class.

My job as a teacher has focused on acting as a guide in the children's learning process, facilitating it and suggesting the resources to use. When working with early ages (5-6 years), at the beginning my role has been much more directive, in the sense that I had to direct students to face the tasks to be performed; obtain information, and resources to use. However, after the first stage, my students have been able to carry out a task of semi self-directed learning, and make really interesting contributions to the projects.

In the first stage of the project, it was me the one who suggested questions to look for or who gave clues about information search, trying to do it in a way that was not very explicit, letting the children use their deductive thinking to achieve this task. We must not forget that working with 6 year-olds in a second language could hamper the understanding of some content in the case of some students (especially those with a high degree of absenteeism), so my work should be illustrative and clarifying at the beginning and, at the same time, it should encourage research.

My main purpose as regards CLIL project work is that my students were the real protagonists of their learning, although they have counted on my help and advice whenever they needed it, which of course had to be greater than if I had worked with older students. One of the most attractive aspects of this work is to encourage self-learning and collaborative work, making the children involved and active agents of their own learning and aware of the need for cooperative and team work to achieve a common goal: the development of a common project of the whole class. I sincerely believe that the children were surprised by their ability to search and assimilate the information required, especially considering that the vehicular language was English and that the complexity of some contents was quite important.

At all times I have started from my students' prior knowledge, making an initial survey, which enabled me to know where to start from and to settle up certain objectives.

Throughout the development of the entire CLIL projects I asked my students about their collaboration and involvement in all phases, making them see that it did not matter how much one knows, but what is really interesting is that each one would make personal or group contributions according to their abilities, skills, tastes, level of knowledge of English and so on. Therefore, the project work also respects the students' learning paces, because the most important thing is not that their contributions are very good or spectacular, but that they feel motivated to contribute in some way to the development of the project. Ultimately, the students were an active part in their learning process.

Evaluation

The projects have been evaluated consistently from the very beginning, since at the end of each working session we did a plenary (meeting sitting on the carpet) to recapitulate and reinforce contents learned that day.

In addition, students had to fill out self-evaluation questionnaires (adapted to their level) about their research, the work done and the things they have learnt. Once I have heard their comments and questionnaire results I must say that the degree of motivation and involvement of students in the projects has been very high, as they have directed their own learning, depending on their personal likes and skills, and have felt very proud with the final results since they have always considered the projects their own.

As for the learning of English through these CLIL projects, they handled the tasks with an extraordinary richness of language. This is especially interesting because we studied different subjects for which we needed a specific language different to that normally used in the Literacy sessions. Moreover, they have also made a major effort to employ all the English language that they went on discovering through the work we were doing, and to use a significant amount of that language not only at written level (in sheets and documents for the project), but also orally.

For the evaluation I have focused on direct observation in the classroom, taking notes of those details that seemed more relevant, not only for students' evaluation, but also those regarding the project work and my own involvement.

All written and artistic work done by the students has become part of their personal portfolio which at the end of the academic year they take home.

Finally, it is important to mention that a fundamental element of the evaluation of these projects has been the students' families' point of view, because all the work displayed in the Project Corner of the classroom has been visited and assessed by parents during the celebration the school Open Doors Days. Parents have expressed strong interest in the work done by their children, which is also an important evaluative aspect to consider.

Cross-Curricular CLIL Practice: Historical Simulation in Role Play

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Abstract

"Global simulation" allows students to encounter situations that may include love, life and death."

Historical global simulation (HGS) is one example of the successful transfer of global simulation, a well-known technique in second language teaching methodology, to CLIL. It calls for the active collaboration between the L2 teacher and the CLIL teacher when tackling a specific project.

This particular project has been carried out at the European School in Luxemburg. HGS shares the objectives of standard global simulation but adds a historical dimension as through history in this case. The task is to imagine the context of the proposed topic, to choose an identity, and to simulate all the spoken activities that this particular context might generate.

Finally, in an integrated approach combining two disciplines within one project, HGS helps to reinforce the European identity, culture and citizenship of the learners through the study of primary source materials. At the same time, pupils develop an intercultural capacity through being guided towards a better understanding of a foreign culture.

Key words: CLIL/EMILE, Global simulation, Cross curricular, History Project

I - Experimental Context

The European Schools are geared primarily to the children of European Union personnel. As of September 2005, these schools totaled 20,379 students from 12 schools throughout Europe. The European School of Luxemburg is unique in that it is the only one to offer L1 tuition in all of the Union's languages.

Four thousand and eighty-one students attend this school, 2,083 of them at the secondary level. These students are taught in their mother tongue beginning in the first year of nursery school. French, English and German are offered as L2s, meaning that these languages are taught from the beginning of the first year of primary school in addition to the child's L1. In the 3rd year of secondary school, the L2 becomes the teaching language for Human Sciences (History and Geography). Using an L2 as a working language involves the students changing their approach to the learning process. This transition for the students should be a natural one and this should require considerable foresight by the teachers and inspectors concerned.

The Historical Global Simulation (HGS) was carried out in 3rd year secondary school classes (13 years old) composed of 23 students from different nationalities, all of whom shared French as a common language. This level was chosen because it is the first year in which a subject (History and Geography) is taught in an L2 at the European School, an important transitional year. The students had four 45-minute periods of L2 and three 45-minute periods of Human Sciences in French. Faced with students who were concerned about having to learn a subject in their L2, we felt it was important to show the students that on one hand their French-speaking teachers were also working together, and also that the work that they had done for one course could be used in another context, thus doubling the work's value.

The project began in the 2005/2006 year, with one 3rd year secondary school class, and was then subsequently repeated in 2008, this time with an additional 3rd year secondary school class. Several evaluations were made: a qualitative survey conducted by interviewing the students and their parents in 2006 and 2008, and an evaluation carried out in 2008, which gathered information from several classes:

-the 2006 experimental class for a stock-taking exercise two years later and three control classes for the three mentioned languages.

-the 2008 experimental class and one control class in French, two control classes in German and two control classes in English

II - Cross Curricular and Project Teaching in CLIL

- **Cross Curricular**

Although interdisciplinarity has become very popular, integrating programs in a given area has received little attention so far**.** Yet this is an additional step that will make it possible once and for all to remove the boundaries between the various disciplines and to gain access to "complex thought", as defined by Edgar Morin.

From a CLIL point of view, the main challenge consists of coordinating the various non-linguistic academic subjects with the linguistic ones (Mäsch, 1994; Coyle, 2000). It is important therefore to redefine the role of the L2, taking into consideration the fact that it can also be used for gaining knowledge in other subjects. It would be necessary to undertake *"a reconceptualisation of the influence or agreement between the language program and the subject program"* (Do Coyle, 2000).

Convinced that it was necessary to have an integrated approach, we have set up the requisite mechanisms for working together.

- **Coordination**

The starting point was a discussion between teachers in order to identify potential compatibility between the programs. This initial work led to the idea of parallel progression. Each week the teachers got together for at least an hour to coordinate the implementation of their parallel progression in detail and discuss any problems they have encountered. A final adjustment between the teachers turned out to be necessary for the students to understand that the Human Sciences and L2 classes are following a joint approach, something which is even more apparent when both teachers are present in the classroom at the same time.

- **Team-teaching**

In addition to the fundamental work of coordination, team-teaching sessions were set up. This is where both teachers, one teaching a language and the other a subject, are both present in the classroom.

This approach makes it possible to validate or historically invalidate, through the presence of the Human Sciences teacher, the proposals made by the students, during the choice of characters, for example. The physical presence of both teachers in the classroom at the same time is also positive in the eyes of the students, who see how much interest is shown in what they have done and in what they are doing.

- **Teaching the Project**

Using this kind of teaching, as Puren recommends in the concretisation of the "Perspective actionnelle" of the CEFR (2007), is particularly well-adapted to the European Schools system. This is because the methodology also presents the advantage of not dividing knowledge into different and disconnected disciplines. It rather develops a joint project between the Human Sciences and the L2, and is capable of motivating students over a period of several months. It further stresses the importance of written and oral expression in L2.

Jean Duverger highlights the relevance of this kind of teaching in a bilingual situation: "The project's pedagogy has long demonstrated its efficiency in education, insofar as it motivates and involves the student in activities that lead to a production… this strategy is particularly well-adapted to bilingual teaching." (Duverger, 2005).

Interdisciplinary project pedagogy should thus be one of the keystones of CLIL insofar as the "material to be learned is not broken down and put into some kind of order, but rather bound together by the problem to be solved." (Bordallo Ginestet, 1993)

III - The Historical Simulation

- **What is Global Simulation?**

Global simulation was developed with a view towards language improvement in French as a foreign language in the framework of an approach that is both communicative and creative. "Pick a place, a clearly delineated one if possible—an island, a building, a village, a hotel, etc., and then have the students describe the place imagining that they live there… use this place/theme as a location where the written or oral expression activities take place (…) this will give you a global simulation." (Yaiche, 1998).

- **The HGS**

The HGS is an obvious choice if the material taught in L2 is history. We chose to develop a global simulation that uses the port of Piraeus in the 5th century BC as a scene. The students had to choose a character capable of evolving along with the scene. The HGS is thus more restrictive than the global simulation since it requires detailed historical knowledge, but this is also what makes it so interesting.

- **Advantages: the Historical and Cultural Approach**

Pedagogical advantages:

-Making the student an actor in his/her own teaching.
-Carrying out a long-term project
-Creating a group dynamic and developing a stimulating atmosphere
-Involving the students thanks to the use of role-playing games

Linguistic advantages:

The HGS is part of a project that seeks to improve students' writing ability as set forth in the CEFR (4.4.1.2 Written Expression). For our 3rd year secondary school students in L2, we wanted to improve their B1 capabilities and get them to a level in which they were competent in B2.

We also sought to do the following:

-Clearly show language as a tool for thinking and conceptualisation
-Develop *all* linguistic capabilities
-Continuously improve the control of different styles and acquire language relating to political, military, social and religious areas aiding the acquisition of vocabulary.

Subject-specific advantages:

-Heightening curiosity
-Instilling the fundamental values of the Historian: historical doubt and a critical mindset
-Choosing a *total history* approach, in which the student has to take the place of an ancient Greek and think, using the character's system of values and taking into account the actual complexity of the ancient world.
-Improving conceptualization
-Improving understanding of the fundamental texts of the ancient world

Civic advantages:

-Acquiring knowledge of a common European culture by working with these basic texts
-Developing common European and democratic citizenship
-Improving the students' ability to step outside the bounds of their own culture (intercultural links)
-Establishing an L2 as a cultural tool;
-Demonstrating the civic role of the theatre in the democratic functioning of Athens.

IV - How to Organize an HGS concretely

- **The Required Linguistic Level**

The HGS demands a fairly high oral and written linguistic level (a B1 oral and written CEFR level was necessary to conduct the simulation).

- **The Actual Process**

Before any teaching project takes place, the question, "What are the students supposed to learn?" must be asked. What are their needs? In an integrated approach, the response is multifold: historical knowledge, vocabulary, skills, all the while respecting the distinct identity of each subject.

Our HGS was conducted over a period of five and a half months, with one weekly 45-minute period.

The HGS is presented as an example at the end of the article, in tabular form, as an appendix.

Within the framework of the HGS, written expression is done in the following manner: after preparatory work concerning the context and the discursive qualities of the text, the students must write their own text working on a rough draft and outline. To help them in this process they would be asked to use specific terminology that they had previously learned. They are allowed to use a dictionary and also to consult with the Human Sciences teacher to ensure that their paper is historically correct. The teacher corrects the rough draft by suggesting changes to improve the initial text and the students then re-write it. Oral and written work is the subject of double grading, one grade in L2 and the other in Human sciences, with each course applying its own criteria.

All of the chosen productions are indexed in a binder at the end of the class, and the binder is seen as being the history of the city and its inhabitants.

The HGS also provides for a close relation between reading and writing. At the same time that they participated in the global simulation, the students also worked on two other books:

-an adaptation of *The Iliad and the Odyssey,* making it possible to improve knowledge of Greek mythology

-*Le Messager d'Athènes,* a literary novel for young readers that provides a great deal of information about the daily life of ancient Greeks that portrays young teenage heroes, making it possible for the students to identify more deeply with these characters.

The reading contributed to the work done by the students while at the same time serving as models for the students to write their own texts.

V - Outcome and Perspectives for CLIL

- **Outcome**

HGS is an example of the pedagogical success of the project. In this scenario, the learner is constantly faced with historical or linguistic difficulties which s/he must resolve in order to breathe life into his chosen character, thereby becoming active in his/her own learning. Furthermore, HGS generates keen enthusiasm and a group dynamic as each character must interact with the other learners. It opens the possibility for much greater involvement on the part of the pupils who, stimulated by the fun aspect that this type of project presents, find themselves capable of working over long periods of time without tiring.

In evaluating the system, our first observation was that all the students actively participated in the HGS project. More than 90% of them said that they would like to repeat the experience. Their involvement in the project was pleasantly surprising: their attention never lapsed and very few of them ever expressed boredom.

The attention they paid in class and their degree of involvement in the history class were remarkable. With regards to the history class, their questions demonstrated a keen desire to discover the historical truth, as was evidenced by one student who asked over several days what the price in drachmas or fish would be of 30 amphorae. It was clear that the HGS was not seen as an artificial exercise: the history class effectively provided answers to questions asked by the students, and this is one of the HGS's strong points.

At the linguistic level, we saw that the students tended to have a more consistent level, thanks to learning identical vocabulary in both classes, as well as much improved confidence among those students who previously felt uncomfortable when speaking.

The project pedagogy indicates perfect compatibility with teaching Human Sciences in L2, since it makes it possible to provide both classes with a goal, each of which is complementary to the other. It also makes it possible to immediately use the information gained in the other class.

Broadly speaking, the numerous writing projects were of a very high quality, and they indicated a great deal of research in terms of vocabulary and terminology. Through written expression during the HGS, this 3rd year secondary school class was able to visibly improve its ability to conceptualise and reflect in L2.

- **Perspectives**

This HGS was also part of an on-going research project, which seeks to prove several hypotheses, two of the most important of which are the following:

-by working on fiction, the students were better able to absorb historical knowledge, and were thus better able to conceptualise the notions learned.

-thanks to the HGS project, the students were able to develop their capacities in L2 in a more efficient manner, both at the speaking level and at the reading level.

Two experimental classes (the 3rd year of secondary school in 2008 and the 3rd year of secondary school in 2006, now in 5th year in secondary school) and two control classes in French L2, as well as two other control classes in English L2, respectively in the 3rd year of secondary school and 5th year of secondary school, were tested in order to carry out this research, the results of which will be published in the future.

Other areas could be explored and the HGS is perfectly adapted to other eras: an obvious example would be that of a medieval manor and the lord, his family, his serfs, monks, etc…

Lastly, a great deal of variety is possible in the final presentation: hanging posters, printing, burning a CD ROM, starting a blog, or setting up a web page. The interdisciplinarity and even the integration of the programs would be improved by the participation of art or computer science teachers in the final process.

Finally, without overstating the efficiency of the HGS and despite the strength of our convictions, we would like to conclude by relating two encouraging comments we recently received. First of all, we were satisfied to see that our project could work successfully in other classrooms with other teachers. Indeed, colleagues in the school who set up an HGS this year on ancient Rome shared their enthusiasm with us. And lastly, this remark from a student who participated in the project two years ago, which, while it shows the solid foundation of our approach, nevertheless reminds us at the same time that any teaching endeavor must never lose its humility:

"If we hadn't done it, I would have forgotten even more."
Milena Aïjälä

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Human Sciences Progression	L2 Progression	Global Simulation in the L2 Course	Actual Process	Results
Chapter 1: the Geography of the Mediterranean (6h) Chapter 2: the World of Ancient Greece (4h) Map of the ancient Mediterranean Natural surroundings and the professions of the ancient Greeks Homer	Class: *The Iliad and the Odyssey* (cursory reading) Terminology: vocabulary of the professions (economy, trade, administration, politics…)	Choice of time and place: the city of Athens in the port of Piraeus during the 5th century BC.	The History and Geography class provides the geographical and natural frame for the city.	
		Choice of character by the student Name Age Place of birth Nationality Status Profession Family relations	In L2: the student chooses the first and last names of the character, his age, the place of birth (which will determine the citizenship and status of the character: citizen, metic, slave, *xenos*), where the character lives, the profession (which must be different and historically plausible). In a society where women had a low-profile role to play, an appropriate number of male characters will be chosen. The historical accuracy must be demonstrated by the student. The professions were chosen by the teachers and distributed through a drawing in the presence of the history teacher who ensured that the drawing was valid (an Athenian cannot be a slave in his own city after Solon, for example).	Writing a report and posting it in the classroom Creating an individual identity file, which is presented in front of the class
	Grammar: personal and relative pronouns Terminology: the vocabulary of the character and the personality	**The character's psychology**	Second file written at home: two moral, psychological or intellectual characteristics + two important objects that the character is attached to, two events that impact on his life, a motto, a rumour, gossip	Psychological portrait
Chapter 3: the rise of Greek cities (3h) Definition of a city and Greek colonisation	Reading : *The Iliad and the Odyssey* (continued) Grammar: logical links (cause, consequence, goal) Terminology: landscape vocabulary	**Creating a city** Advantages and disadvantages in finding a location for a city	Discussion between Greek citizens seeking to establish a colony; discussion supported by the texts studied in History	Oral expression/discussion Final evaluation in Human sciences with double correction: recounting the foundation of a city
		Dialogue between three characters: meeting scene from Agora	Work in groups of three	Reading in class/role playing
Chapter 4: Greek religion (3h) pantheon, mythology, worshipping, Olympic Games	Reading: *The Iliad and the Odyssey* (continued) Grammar: descriptive speech Terminology: symbols linked to gods and heroes	Developing the character's mental aspect	Individual reading of various myths and re-telling them to classmates in Human Sciences Research, presentations and final questionnaire in L2 on different gods and heroes in mythology	Oral presentation Evaluation in Human sciences: written description of a day in the life of an athlete in the Olympic Games

Chapter 5: politics (5h) Democracy, tyranny, Greco-Persian wars, monarchy	Reading: *Le Messager d'Athènes* (literature for young people) Grammar: past tense, time expressions Terminology: war vocabulary and emotional reactions	Recounting a battle	Study of battles and the situation in History Written recounting in L2 with conditions: - Using the past tense with time and space markers - Stressing emotional vocabulary	Text: the recounting of the battle of Salamis Island or Marathon
Chapter 6: daily life during the classical period (5h)	Reading: *Le Messager d'Athènes* Grammar: The imperfect, expansions of a noun, time and space markers Terminology: habitat vocabulary, daily life, character and physical aspect	Physical and moral description of the character	Requires prior work in L2 for the vocabulary concerning character and physical appearance Must speak after the History class about clothing	Written expression and reading in class
		Habitat description	Reusing some elements from the History course for descriptions in the present; requires that each student imagine a place in keeping with the social status of the character	Written expression, creating a living plan and reading in class
		A day in the life of (or description of the content of the character's garbage can)	L2: Recounting daily activities by the hour	Written expression and reading in class
Chapter 7: Athens: the first democracy (6h) Principles, citizenship	Reading: *Le Messager d'Athènes* Reading of an extract from *The Clouds* by Aristophanes Grammar: Reported speech (direct and indirect speech), the past tense (continued), logical links (continued) Terminology: general theater and show vocabulary and emotions	Banquet scene	Class broken down into two work groups: writing a theatre scene in which their character attends a banquet; all characters must participate (citizens, slaves, members of the court…); women's and children's characters play another scene that takes place in the kitchen.	Group writing (groups of 10 students) Play production
		Résumé of The Clouds by Aristophanes	Using the study of an extract of The Clouds by Aristophanes in L2, the students imagine that their character is attending the play and must provide a summary of it. The characters that couldn't go to the play relate what they heard second-hand.	Written expression
		Recounting of the festival of the Panathenaic Games	The Human sciences class presents this major festival. The L2 class asks each character to take his place and describe his role and involvement in the city.	Written expression and reading in class
		Electoral speech	The Human sciences class makes it possible to study the state of democracy in Athens. In L2, the student's awareness is raised to arguments, argumentative connectors and persuasive vocabulary.	Written expression and oration in class
		Twenty years later	The learners must imagine what the character's life will be like 20 years later, or describe the circumstances of his death.	Written expression

CLIL Materials as Scaffolds to Learning

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Abstract

Four features common to CLIL materials used in Spain appear to act as instructional scaffolding to facilitate learning:

Illustrations with labels and captions are used to define key terms, introduce topics, and examine steps in processes like photosynthesis. They often summarize the main points in longer texts, so they prepare learners for extended reading. As output tools, they enable learners to communicate at a basic level.

Content area texts communicate the genre, vocabulary, and language characteristic of the discipline. Some text types cross content 'borders' like instruction and information. Familiarity with text features prepares learners to understand authentic materials.

Graphic organisers like Venn diagrams, tables, and flow charts present information visually. As output tools, they help learners with limited language skills to communicate intelligibly.

ICT applications convey information in a virtual 'hands on' format which suits kinaesthetic learners. Rich visual support coupled with interactivity enables students to learn through active participation.

These four features provide flexible instructional support, adaptable to many content areas and appropriate for learners of different ages.

Keywords: scaffolding, genres, graphic organisers, ICT

Input – Output Scaffolding Tools

CLIL learners face considerable challenges as they cope with subject area concepts and language through a second or foreign language. Scaffolding instruction to facilitate learning can involve the use of strategies like activating prior knowledge, providing examples of outcomes prior to assigning a task, creating a motivating context, and facilitating student participation. The materials which CLIL teachers select or develop may reveal other useful tools for scaffolding instruction. Four of these identified in materials developed for Spanish CLIL contexts are examined here: a) illustrations with labels and captions; b) content area text types, vocabulary and language; c) graphic organisers; and d) ICT applications. Examples are drawn from primary and secondary art, science, geography and history contexts to show the range of their applicability. Each tool is analysed from two perspectives: how it facilitates the development of the critical thinking skills characteristic of content areas, and how it enables the development of language.

Illustrations with Labels and Captions

'Illustration' is used here to refer to realia and material in print or digital formats. Realia may be preferred for primary learners and some content concepts. However, given the curriculum for subjects like science or geography (e.g. human reproduction, the solar system, volcanoes), using realia may not always be feasible. In those cases, illustrations or models may be appropriate substitutes. Illustrations provide visual support for understanding content area phenomena, and developing critical thinking skills such as identifying or naming. As regards language, the labels or captions that usually accompany them support target language use at the word and sentence level.

Labelling illustrations often appears as a descriptor of language ability. Descriptors for reading and writing in the *Common European Framework of Reference* (Council of Europe, 2001: 96) state that A1 learners can "get an idea of the content of simpler informational material and short simple descriptions, especially if there is visual support" (*Ibid:* 70), and that they can "copy out single words and short texts". At A2 level they can "pick out and reproduce key words and phrases or short sentences from a short text" within their competence (*Ibid)*. The WIDA standards for English language proficiency across content areas (WIDA, 2007) provide examples of lower-level writing skills for learners aged 12–14 such as:

- Science: identifying types of energy represented visually
- Social studies: labelling illustrations which show features of government
- Language arts: producing words or phrases to convey basic information
- Mathematics: making a graphic representation of math terms and labelling them

Labelling in CLIL contexts yields similar examples (CILT, 2008).

An especially striking example of labelling was part of a science lesson devised by a CLIL science teacher in Catalunya (personal communication, 2007) for eight and nine-year old learners. Learners at that age normally study body systems with diagrams or models. However, this session involved the use of animal viscera from the local butcher shop: trachea, lungs, heart and liver. Learners examined the organs and experimented with some of their functions. Protected with smocks and rubber gloves, they used straws to blow air into the lungs through the trachea. Guided by labelled illustrations, they organised the viscera into an anatomically correct sequence on a large sheet of paper, and identified each organ with hand-written labels. Similar activities can be done with realia like food products: they can be labelled 'plant' or 'animal' to classify them by origin.

Labelling activities like those above are effective tools for recording hands-on experiences, but they can also be used to record information from other sources. For example, primary science materials developed in the Basque Country involved labelling the stages in the water cycle (Eusko Jaurlaritza-Gobierno Vasco, 2004-5). In Madrid, primary learners created a display to record their research into prehistoric life. Tools, animals, art, clothing and settlements were represented with drawings and photos, then classified and labelled (Pareja and Fernández Yubera, 2009). In summary, from the content perspective, labels identify key terms or concepts, and stimulate thinking skills like identifying, naming and matching (i.e. illustration and term). From the language perspective, labelling involves skills which are attainable goals for even very young learners.

The previous discussion focused on labelling as a lower-level thinking skill, however, using a taxonomy of critical thinking skills (for example, Bloom, 1956) as reference, teachers can transform labelling into a stepping stone for activities at other levels. For example, secondary learners studying Roman history can create maps of the empire. The empire developed in stages –monarchy, republic and empire– so they could differentiate the territories added in each period, search for their Latin names (i.e. *Germania, Thracia),* and create a key. By comparing this map with one of Europe and the Mediterranean region today, students can discover which countries occupy the original territories (Richmond Publishing-Santillana, 2008a). This comparison can help them predict where vestiges of Roman civilization may exist, and search

for photos to illustrate their maps. Learners may then create role-plays which capture the reactions of Roman time-travellers visiting those remains. In doing so, students see today's world from another perspective, empathise with another civilization, and participate in an engaging activity which involves them personally. In summary, the labelling activity, map-making, develops history content and thinking skills like identifying, comparing, classifying, and recognizing parts (territories in the Roman Empire). Role-play language may involve functions like conveying factual information and expressing emotional or moral attitudes. Here, a map is the starting point for an activity sequence. In other cases, works of art provide support for part of a lesson.

Photos of famous works of art stimulate comparison of techniques in this example from a primary CLIL art class on 'landscapes' linked to the science topic of 'light and dark'. An art unit designed for L1 learners (Crown copyright, 2008a) offers starting points which could scaffold learning in CLIL: students observe and sketch local landscapes under different light conditions. A science unit (Crown copyright, 2008b) suggests relevant vocabulary: light (dark-light, bright), source of light (the Sun), comparisons (lighter-darker, the lightest-darkest) and expressing reasons (because). Colours and shades (e.g. blue, dark green) might also be helpful. Language can be taught directly or introduced as needed during the observation and sketching phases.

By introducing works of art, CLIL teachers can build on the learners' personal exploration so that they can perceive how other artists have captured landscapes and move on to develop their own work. Two of Claude Monet's water-lilies paintings from the 1914-1917 series can be used: a bright day scene and another in darker tones. Like other Impressionists, Monet explored the effect of light on a subject, and often painted the same one at different times of the day. The teacher displays photos of the paintings, and asks learners to describe them *(What can you see?)* supplying or reinforcing language as needed. Further questions encourage closer examination, making inferences and drawing conclusions: *How does the artist use line and colour? Why do you think he worked on this subject twice?* Eliciting opinions *(Which painting do you prefer?)* encourages learners to state their preferences. This leads them to experiment with techniques, and express personal observations and feelings about a landscape. In this landscape lesson, illustrations stimulate close observation, draw on several thinking skills, and serve as catalysts for self-expression.

Illustrations with captions (phrases or complete sentences) abound in geography, history and science texts. Captioned illustrations provide more content input than labels, focus on significant information, and can also introduce learners to text organisation. A secondary level CLIL history lesson on Ancient Egypt uses a captioned photo of King Tutankhamen's sarcophagus to focus on the elements that symbolize the royalty, power and protection associated with pharaohs: the vulture, headdress, beard, crook and whip (Richmond Publishing-Santillana, 2008a: 103), for example:

> The vulture was the symbol for Upper Egypt.
> The crook symbolised protection.

The position of the captions around the photo reflects an organisational pattern commonly used to describe human figures: head to foot. Thus, well-positioned captions function like an illustrated outline which reveals the organisation of longer, more complex texts learners may read on the same topic.

Content Area Text Types, Vocabulary and Language

CLIL practitioners strive to enable learners to experience the content and language common to the discipline studied. Authentic texts are often an essential part of their lessons. When selected from sources like websites or course materials designed for target language speakers, texts reflect the vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and organisation characteristic of the content area. As the input provided is more extensive than in captioned materials, (often several paragraphs accompanied by labelled or captioned illustrations), learners need better language skills to grasp the concepts and discuss them.

Highlighting Correlations between Content and Language

To make informed decisions on text selection, Brinton *et al* (1989: 90) recommend taking into consideration the level of difficulty: *Are the materials appropriate for the proficiency level of the students' language skills? How heavy is the lexical/syntactical load?* As discussed earlier, selecting appropriate texts for CLIL is often difficult because the diversity of contexts currently exceeds the availability of CLIL-specific materials. Consequently, when using texts from other sources, teachers can facilitate learning by pointing out correlations between language features and content.

Some CLIL materials highlight these correlations by making both content and language objectives explicit. Table 1 offers an extract from a text on the hydrosphere (Richmond Publishing-Santillana, 2008b:96) in which content objectives are set out side-to-side with language functions exemplified by exponents drawn from the text.

Content objectives	**Key language**
In this unit you will …	
Find out how water is distributed on Earth.	Expressing amounts *68.7% occurs in the form of ice and snow.*
Learn about the properties of water.	Describing: *Water is attracted to other water.* *Water is a powerful solvent.*
Learn about ocean movement: waves, currents and tides	Expressing direction Water filters <u>into</u> the ground. Currents move <u>through</u> the sea.

Table 1. *Expressing Correlations between Content and Language*

Awareness of these correlations supports learning in three ways. First, awareness heightens teachers' sensitivity to the language needed to develop the topic, and may enable them to incorporate more redundancy into their input. Second, the correlations guide learners as they work with the text, and may aid understanding and production. Third, the correlations can be shared with target language teachers so they can design focused language work: for example, have learners locate features in texts or incorporate them in guided production activities. When no correlations are provided, teachers may seek guidance from research or work like that of Swales (1971) to discover them. CLIL teachers can also focus attention on the genre or type of text: how information is organized.

Developing Awareness of Text Types: Scaffolding Input

Students come into contact with several oral and written text types, for example, dialogues, songs and narrations in foreign language classes. However, those classes give priority to social uses of language, so they may provide less exposure to texts which communicate instructions, explanations or cause and effect. However, these text types account for a large percentage of the reading matter in content area materials and websites designed for L1 learners: both sources of material for CLIL teachers.

Specialists in reading skills propose dedicating special attention not only to text features in these genres (Grellet, 1981), but also to *non*-text information (Nuttall, 1982). Following Nuttall (1982: 43-47), CLIL teachers may support understanding by drawing attention to the features of the text type. They can begin by focusing on easily-noticed non-text features: spacing, indentation, layout, choice of type, punctuation and symbols. For example, learners examining instructions for a lab assignment can look for words in larger or darker type (the title), lists of items set off from the body of the text (the materials required), numbered sentences (the procedure) and images which accompany them (clarifications of procedure). Teachers can then shift attention to text features: the presence of imperative verb forms or relatively short sentences, and sequencing words like *first, then, finally.*

When learners are familiar with a text type, they can examine other texts, search for similar features, and decide if they belong to the same type. Grellet (1981) offers detailed suggestions for developing sensitivity to text features like chronological sequence, description, comparison – contrast. On-line resources for the development of L1 literacy may also be useful in CLIL contexts (see the Teaching Pets and World vision sites).

Scaffolding Output

Awareness of content area text features provides a foundation for text production which CLIL teachers can further develop by guiding production with sentence stems, questions or instructions (see Llinares and Whittaker, 2009, for examples drawn from secondary history history texts). Table 2 shows these scaffolding tools in a science task: writing about an animal.

Sentence stems	Questions	Instructions
The (name of animal) lives in …	*Where does the animal live?*	*Habitat: describe where the lives.*
(name of animal) eats …	*What does it eat?*	*Nutrition: list the foods the animal eats.*

Table 2. *Scaffolding Output: Sentence Stems, Questions, Instructions*

Supporting learning with sentence stems provides more language guidance, whereas questions leave the learner more freedom. Categorised instructions (headings like ‘habitat’ and ‘nutrition’) make the underlying structure of the text more explicit, but place more language demands on the learner. Scaffolding output helps learners work with the information in texts. Especially helpful tools in this respect are graphic organisers.

Graphic Organisers as Scaffolding Tools

The *Teaching Knowledge Test Glossary for CLIL* (University of Cambridge, 2008: 10) describes graphic organisers as "aids which help learners to understand and remember new information by making thinking visible." They are widely used in L1 classrooms: see Forte and Schurr (2001) for examples from social studies; Goldsworthy and Feasey (1996) for uses in science; Marzano *et al* (2001) and Mohan (1986) for a general discussion. Forte and Schurr (2001: 7) cite several reasons for the popularity of these tools in social studies, for example:

- Increasingly larger bodies of material must be studied in specific time frames.
- Sorting skills are a necessity in 'information-saturated' classrooms in which learners must be able to use facts and concepts in a meaningful way.
- Graphic organisers encourage the use of critical thinking skills and meta-cognitive reflection as well as visual discrimination and organisation.

Given the dual nature of CLIL objectives, tools which enable learners to extract relevant information from content sources, organise and work with it make graphic organisers useful in CLIL contexts. Of the many graphic organisers available, (see Forte and Schurr, 2001, and on-line sources like Education Oasis and TeAchnology), three are especially versatile: Venn diagrams, tables and flow charts.

Comparing with Venn diagrams

Classifying and comparing are common activities in content classes: for example, in geography, learners classify countries by climates; in history, they compare life in the Palaeolithic, Neolithic and Metal Ages; in art, they compare how different artists use colour and line; in science, they compare arthropod bodies. Venn diagrams with two or more overlapping circles permit learners to record common elements in the parts that intersect, and unique features in the others. For example, learners could complete a Venn diagram while observing or reading about insects and arachnids, and report their findings in a Venn diagram: see Figure 1 below.

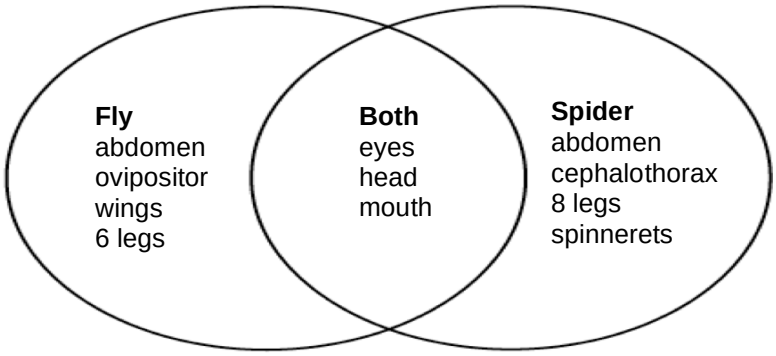

Figure 1. *Venn Diagram: Fly and Spider*

The completed diagrams can support production of more extended language at several levels of complexity:

- *Flies have legs. Spiders have legs too.*
- *Flies have six legs, but spiders have eight.*
- *While flies have six legs, spiders have eight.*

As seen in the preceding example, Venn diagrams are especially suitable for comparing two or more things which share common elements. In other cases, tables may be more appropriate.

Classifying with Tables

Table headings guide learners to classify information as they observe a phenomenon, extract information or take notes. As a result, they structure input and subsequent oral or written production. See the example from a primary lesson on medieval settlements based on an illustration (Eusko Jaurlaritza-Gobierno Vasco, 2005-6) or Table 3 which guides analysis of a photo of Europe and Northern Africa taken by satellite at night. Urban areas which consume energy appear as white spots or lines of varying sizes in the photo. Filling out the table helps learners to focus on the distribution of energy use. The completed table supports oral and written comparisons like *Urban areas give off more light in the north of Europe than in northern Africa.*

	Europe	northern Africa
Urban areas give off more light		
... on the coasts of ...		
... in the north of ...		
... in the south of ...		
... in the centre of ...		

Table 3. *Guide for satellite photo analysis*

In general, comparisons like these and the descriptions based on the Venn diagram above convey static views of reality. However, when the target content is characterized by dynamic elements or involves cause-effect relationships, flow charts are more appropriate organisers.

Expressing Sequence of Events or Cause and Effect with Flow Charts

Many topics in science, history and geography can be explained as sequences of events or cause-effect relationships: for example, photosynthesis, the growth of the Roman Empire, and the stages of erosion. Flow charts enable learners to show these sequences and relationships. They also guide follow-up discussions which often call for thinking skills like comparing, explaining patterns, and drawing conclusions. Like Venn diagrams and tables, flow charts can be completed with pictures, words or sentences. Thanks to their versatility, these graphic organisers are appropriate for learners of widely-varying language abilities. Similar versatility can be found in the learning support offered by ICT applications.

Scaffolding Input and Output with ICT Applications

CLIL teachers engage in a constant quest for presentation formats that motivate active participation in the learning process: for some, ICT applications provide that scaffolding. The number of training sessions offered across Spain suggests a growing interest in ICT. Jáimez and Pérez (2008) provide insight into the use of technology in plurilingual programs in Andalucía. Robledo Ortega (2008) offers a list of applications for CLIL and Fernández Fontecha (2007) proposes a materials design framework for the use of ICT in a wide range of L2 classrooms. Selected for discussed here are:

- PowerPoint presentations
- Activities with interaction: often found on-line
- Web research
- Webquests

The functions of these ICT tools may overlap, but the most common are: a) present content; b) stimulate learner participation; c) provide reinforcement and d) serve as a database for research.

PowerPoint Presentations

Teachers, especially in secondary level contexts, create PowerPoint presentations to introduce topics and stimulate oral interaction (see examples on Isabel's ESL Site, and on the site run by the Department of Education, Generalitat de Catalunya). Both functions are often made possible by labelled or captioned illustrations (see earlier discussion of their language potential). Teachers introduce a topic orally, but support their delivery with visual input to insure understanding and maintain attention levels. Fernández *et al* (2009), for example, created a PowerPoint presentation of the Norman Conquest for secondary CLIL history students. They incorporated maps of Norman invasion routes, photos of the Bayeux Tapestry and extracts from the Domesday Book. As a result, their slides not only present information, they exemplify how historical research draws on a variety of sources. Learner motivation can also be achieved with interactive material.

Activities with Interaction

Interactive material with reliable CLIL-appropriate content can be found on institutional websites like the National Gallery of Art, the Natural History Museum, the Roman Baths, and NASA. Interaction may entail clicking, dragging, marking, drawing or in some cases, inputting short texts. The navigation, instructions, content or language characteristic of interactive material initially designed for L1 users may, however, constitute barriers for CLIL learners. If the website has a children's or student section like the sites above, the activities may have the high visual content and interactivity that primary or lower secondary CLIL students need (see Mellado, Álvarez and Isabel's ESL Site for a selection of interesting web pages).

Interactive materials can provide motivating reinforcement for concepts presented through other media or offer new opportunities for exploration. Language usually involves reading isolated words or simple texts. The thinking skills needed vary, but identifying and classifying seem prevalent. Interactive material usually allows the learner a moderately active role within a well-defined context in which the need for personal initiative or working with others may be small: quite the opposite of the skills required by web research or webquests.

Web Research

Research can involve searching for images or information. Image searches are easily done using key words like 'insects' or 'dinosaurs', so even young learners can use ICT this way. For example, learners aged seven downloaded photos and drawings to illustrate simple texts they had written about vertebrates and invertebrates (Pareja and Fernández Yubero, 2009). Older learners in the same context studied world landscapes. Inspired by Verne's *Around the World in 90 Days,* they researched travel routes, climate and geography. As a result, their language needs extended to sentence and whole text levels. These examples suggest that what could be called 'discrete point' web research for photos precedes research involving more extended reading. Both may prepare learners for webquests.

Webquests

Webquests organised according to the format set out by Dodge (1996) incorporate a framework that scaffolds inquiry learning (see Abbitt and Orphus, 2008 for a summary of research). The characteristic sequence of incremental steps (introduction, task, process, evaluation, conclusion and credits) offers built-in scaffolding. Thanks to these steps, learners move from the generalities provided by the introduction to a detailed understanding of what final product is expected; where to get information; how to work (individually or in groups), and what criteria to use in evaluating final products and work processes. Interestingly, webquests often contain graphic organisers to facilitate data collection and presentation. Final products may be oral or written, so learners must take the audience into consideration. From the language perspective, webquests put learners in contact with varied input: illustrations, diagrams and content area text types (see Isabel's Site for examples of webquests developed by teachers in Spain).

Student output in webquests can take many forms, but PowerPoint presentations are popular for the same reasons teachers use them. They enable learners to combine text and graphic information, support oral delivery, and maintain audience attention. Multimedia rubrics can guide the learners' production by specifying content, language and technical features. Teachers can adapt existing rubrics (see Project-Based Learning with Multimedia and TeAchnology) to their needs. In addition to their usefulness in the CLIL classroom, ICT applications give learners the opportunity to hone their technology skills, a competence of special importance in many national curricula.

Conclusions

This paper has focused on four broad categories of materials which provide support for learning in CLIL classrooms: illustrations with labels and captions, content area texts or genres with content vocabulary, language and organisation, graphic organisers and ICT applications. All four scaffold learning as they contribute to understanding of subject area content, guide language production, and encourage the development of thinking skills. ICT applications also play an important role in developing the 21st century technological literacy which has become increasingly necessary for learners of all ages. Taken together, these four types of materials support the CLIL goal of preparing students for life-long learning in a world which, to use Forte and Schurr's term (2001), is 'saturated' with information.

It is hoped that the preceding discussion will stimulate in-depth research into the materials dimension of CLIL so that practitioners can achieve their objectives with greater ease and efficiency.

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Unleashing Learner's Potential Through Process Orientated Work

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Abstract

Individualisation and differentiation are successful ways of dealing with the different capacities of pupils in the classroom. The teacher has to be aware that he/she is teaching individual students as well as content. Students differ in how they learn so the teacher has to be actively responsive to those differences.

One form of differentiated teaching and learning is process orientated portfolio work, because students' differences are its basis and starting point. It enhances self-centred learning strategies, self assessment, reflexion on individual working progress, and demands formative assessment modes on part of the teacher. Furthermore it enhances students´ interpersonal communicative skills by introducing peer tutoring and peer assessment.

This paper aims at demonstrating that process orientated portfolio work, especially if combined with self and peer assessment, is a most effective teaching and learning tool in the CLIL classroom. Students receive clear instructions for both the work process itself as well as for the final product. They are encouraged to work according to their personal interests and needs, to amend and embellish their products till they are satisfied with it. Throughout the process both peers and teachers work as facilitators. After at least two rounds of working on their drafts students hand in the portfolio containing all the various drafts. Students also keep a journal in which they document the whole work process. The entries help them to write a letter to the portfolio reader in which they reflect on their progress, thus analysing their learning strategies.

Process orientated portfolio work, combined with peer tutoring and the teacher as a facilitator, has been an integral part of CLIL teaching with the authors for many years. It has proved highly motivating for both students and teachers and promotes the major goals of CLIL. The students internalize the subject knowledge, enhance their language performance in all four skills and develop valuable interpersonal communicative skills.

Process orientated portfolio work in the differentiated CLIL classroom

It is necessary to define the main principles of differentiation in the classroom, process orientated portfolio work and CLIL objectives before considering their possible application in the CLIL classroom.

According to Tomlinson (2004) the tenets of a differentiated classroom are the following:

- Student differences are studied as basis for planning
- Assessment is ongoing and diagnostic, it is formative
- Focus on multiple forms of intelligence is evident
- Excellence is defined by individual growth from a starting point, evident in personal progress
- Students are guided in making interest-based choices
- Many instructional arrangements are used
- Student readiness, interest, and learning profile shape instruction

Mehisto et al. (2008, 123) define the portfolio as
"... a presentation of a student's most valued work. It is evidence, collected over a considerable period of time, of a student's knowledge, skills and of progress made in achieving learning outcomes. It is a tool for learning."

Is portfolio work a successful learning and teaching tool in the CLIL classroom? There are basically four objectives for teaching CLIL:

Firstly, to enhance the student's language proficiency in L2 as defined by the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). This is reached by natural input in the second language (English in the context of this study), while at the same time boosting students' cognitive strategies in L2 learning.

Secondly, the students have to acquire subject knowledge. A central question in CLIL teaching involves the question of which methodological and didactic means to employ in order to enable the students to acquire subject knowledge in L2. Input has to become intake.

Thirdly, the development of the students' learning strategies for them to reach the learning goals they have set for themselves constitutes another basic element of CLIL. Students have to be made aware when and how they reach their best achievements.

Fourthly, CLIL has to meet the increasing demands in our society for flexibility, initiative and interpersonal skills. The last two in particular are embedded in communicative interaction. Interaction in the CLIL classroom, however, is often restricted to the pattern of question- answer-feedback, or initiation- response-feedback between the teacher and the student (Dalton- Puffer, 2007). So, the uses of more flexible working patterns are needed to "allow the abilities that can be developed within a bilingual context …to be recognised more fully." (Morgan, 2002, 40)

Finding a way of embedding these CLIL targets with differentiating teaching methods as the basis to process orientated portfolio work was quite a challenge at the beginning. Teachers were especially sceptical with regard to the students` self-motivation and self-organizing competence, especially when methods that were applied demanded a great variety of task achieving competence. However, having practised process orientated portfolio work in the L1 classroom in various subjects, most students were able to handle the principles of this learning method efficiently, especially when combined with formative assessment on part of the teacher and peer tutoring. It seemed natural to introduce this method in the CLIL classroom as well.

Process orientated portfolio work in Lower and Upper Secondary Education at the VBS (Vienna Bilingual Schooling) Draschestraße, Vienna

General considerations

Process orientated portfolio work has been an integral part of the teaching and learning in various CLIL classes at the GRG 23 Draschestraße Vienna Bilingual Schooling (VBS) for some years now. The approach has developed over the years and may still be called work in progress.

The principles of process orientated portfolio work are the same for each level. The students are encouraged to work according to their personal needs and capacities, setting their own individual goals they consider realistic for themselves with the help of their teachers and their peers. After having received their assignments with assessment scales stating the goals, students begin their work, making improvements throughout the process as long as they feel it necessary. They are encouraged to hand in drafts till they reach the final satisfactory result. Each draft is commented on by peers and teachers, who give both qualitative feedback and grades on the assessment scale. At the outset of their work students use the self-assessment scale to define their goals and expected outcomes. This means they set their own standards, but which they often modify in the course of the work process. There is usually an upward trend in the assessments, much to surprise to some sceptical teachers with negative expectations. Students document their work progress with the help of various self-assessment lists, and reflect on their ups and downs in a journal which they update after each work unit.

Formative assessment is incorporated in process orientated portfolio work. Black et al. refer to formative assessment as "... all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by the students in assessing themselves, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged….to meet the needs." (Black et.al., 1998, 12). According to Harlen formative assessment "provides feedback which leads to students recognising their learning gap and closing it…. It is forward looking." (Harlen, 1998, 79). The teacher as well as the "study buddies" encourage and support the students by qualitative feedback. Quality feedback is expected to

- Focus on the learning intention of the task
- Occur while the students are doing the learning
- Offer information on how and why the student understands and misunderstands
- Provide strategies to help the student to improve
- Assist the student to understand the goals of the learning.

Researchers have shown that qualitative feedback is most likely to be effective when given economically. The supporting person is invited to highlight three successes in the student's work and one area where some improvement is necessary (Clarke, 2001). Both teachers and students must be informed of these principles and be aware of them throughout the whole work process. This way "the students learn and share among themselves with the teacher as a facilitator who checks on the students´ understanding and progress. The tutors learn to explain and clarify concepts while the tutored students have the benefit of one- on- one interaction in a non- threatening manner." (Short, 1991, 29) Experience has shown that students readily develop critical supportive abilities when asked to help their peers, because they see the mistakes others make more easily than their own and respectively become aware of their own shortcomings.

The actual work process

As a first step, the teacher gives out instructions concerning what the students are expected to do for their portfolio work and their final presentation, including a final assessment scale. Clarifying the learning outcome at this planning stage by giving them a list of I /You can do… statements for self-assessment and peer tutoring, so they know where they are heading, is extremely important. These statements comprise all the skills they are expected to develop during the individual stages of their work process. During the work process they are encouraged to fill out copies of this list at least twice, namely after handing in the first and the second draft, thus reflecting on their individual progress. Each student chooses his peer, study buddy. In addition, they receive instructions for peer tutoring, and most importantly on how to give encouraging quality feedback, describing rather than evaluating the product. Students also get a definite time schedule for the whole work process.

Once the students start with their work they collect information and data for their tasks, sort out what they can use for their topic. At this stage they are encouraged by the teacher to acquaint themselves with the technical vocabulary and the subject knowledge. At the same time they acquire strategies on how to manage the abundance of information on the internet, especially by using wikis and blogs critically. Here the support of the teacher is immensely important, encouraging pupils to ask for help, giving advice where he/she feels appropriate, helping to sort out reliable sources, and showing how to store the material found. This phase is also accompanied by peer help.

Then the students process the material and data they have gathered, and produce their first drafts of whatever their tasks may be: analysing a phenomenon and commenting on it, producing graphs, tables, hypothesising on their findings, writing texts on researched topics, etc.

These products are then shown to their peers, their study buddies, who give them feedback.
After the students have modified their drafts with the help of their study buddy, it is time for the teacher to provide feedback. It is up to the students themselves to which degree they make use of the various forms of feedback. This process can be repeated several times but experience has shown, however, that repeating this more than twice is de-motivating.

As a third step the students present their final work. Presentation guidelines are established by the students themselves and summed up in an assessment scale handed out along with the instructions for the portfolio work and its assessment. Our experience has shown that, theoretically, students know exactly what a good presentation is like and are very critical of their peers.

As a fourth step the teacher gives his final assessment, which is based on

- the quality of the final work in comparison with the original goals the student has defined for himself,
- the progress the individual student has made during his work process and the effort he has taken, and
- the presentation.

Portfolio work of this kind has been carried out already with various classes. The booklets of portfolio instructions/ portfolio templates and related tables of two case studies, one for Lower Secondary and one for Upper Secondary, are annexed to the article. The students receive these booklets of 4-5 pages containing all the essential information. It is discussed extensively only the first time the students produce a process-orientated portfolio. Once they are familiar with the procedure they are expected to work on their own. The assessment scales are always adapted to the specific task achievement requirements.

Conclusion

Student-centred independent study for portfolio work, combined with peer tutoring and the teacher as a facilitator, has been integral in the authors' CLIL teaching for many years. It has proved highly motivating for both students and teachers and it promotes the major goals of CLIL.

It " is an effective tool in supporting the application of several core features of CLIL methodology……it lends itself well to taking into account and discussing different learning styles and strategies. It encourages students to take ownership of their work through reflection and discussion about the learning process and results. Portfolio assessment provides a forum for challenging students to take another step forwards and to set realistic personal goals." (Marsh, 2008, 124)

Several years of experience have shown that the students use English naturally when they discuss their work with their teacher. Code switching takes place only seldom, in situations the students find exceptionally difficult. The teacher exclusively facilitates in English, which is readily accepted. When classroom discourse between student and teacher is carried out in L2 without exceptions, the students will communicate with the teacher in L2 after some time and start associating the teacher with the L2. The development of discourse in L2 between the students usually takes more time. A desire to succeed, however, often stimulates L2 students to use more and more English in interaction with each other.

According to our experience students make fairly accurate suggestions for improvement of their peer's work. They think very critically and like to ask when they do not understand the meaning of a statement or paragraph or when they find faults with some task achievement.

Students are consequently more aware of the learning goals, both with regard to the subject knowledge as well as language aspects, and integrate this awareness into their own achievements, getting the feeling of progress and personal success. They also enhance their language performance. They learn to distinguish between various registers; they become sensitive to subtle lexical and grammatical differences in meaning.

Students use all five skills as listed in the CEFR, since the tasks are set to demand the practice of all these skills. Moreover, students develop an awareness of learning strategies for both language learning and subject content and enjoy the active involvement in their own and in their peer's learning. They develop communicative and interpersonal strategies to give helpful qualitative feedback for their peers. Students also acquire intercultural competence through analysing and reflecting on different conventions and customs, especially in a multicultural classroom, which is often the case in immersion programmes.

So far our experiences have been encouraging but further research is needed, however, in order to evaluate this teaching tool on a quantitative basis.

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Examples of Portfolio Instructions

Time schedule and assessment scales

Well balanced report, accurate, contains all important facts, self explanatory visual material	12	9	6	3	0	Superficial survey, downloaded No visual material
Distinct differences between historical approaches and ideological and political points of view, historical and socio-political/economic traits clear, arguments well defended with sources	12	9	6	3	0	Superficial outline of contrasting views, no supportive argument, no sources
Elective text providing all criteria of the chosen text type	12	9	6	3	0	Elective text sloppy, no typical text criteria
Corrected, improved texts The final texts are well structured, coherent and cohesive.	4	3	2	1	0	The texts are boring, hard to read, lack cohesion and coherence.
The language is fluent, idiomatically correct, wide range of word choice	4	3	2	1	0	Poor word choice, poor idiomatic expressions
Accuracy: grammar excellent	4	3	2	1	0	Accuracy: often incorrect grammar
The spelling is absolutely correct	4	3	2	1	0	Many spelling mistakes
Work process The candidate took observations for improvements seriously and successfully integrated them in the final texts.	8	6	4	2	0	The texts have barely been improved or revised. Suggestions for improvements have been largely ignored.
The work process is clearly reflected in the various drafts.	4	3	2	1	0	There are not enough drafts or they are too incomplete to reflect the work process.
The work process is clearly reflected in the work diary.	4	3	2	1	0	There is no work diary or it does not reflect the work process.
Reflection Sheet: Gives insight into the candidate's work process and shows his/her high capacity of analysing his/her work progress	4	3	2	1	0	The reflection sheet gives no insight into the candidate's progress and shows little readiness for personal reflection.
Layout: The portfolio contains all required parts and is pleasant to look at. The title page and the contents have been designed attractively and clearly arouse curiosity	4	3	2	1	0	The portfolio is sloppy and designed without effort.

Table 1: Final assessment scale

	I can do this excellently quite well poorly	You can do this/peer	You can do this/teacher	Comments
Use the information offered by the various media critically				
Take down notes/ keywords efficiently so I can use them later on				
Do some extensive brainstorming on the various texts and limit it down to the essential strings in a mindmap, already focusing on their different genres				
Produce a text/ a product according to the task achievements of the assignment (cohesion, coherence, accuracy, fluency)				
Stick to the time schedule				
Make use of suggestions and feedback of my study buddy				
Make use of suggestions and feedback of my teacher				

Table 2: Self / Peer / Teacher assessment scale

Case Study Upper Secondary

English- History Portfolio / Current international affairs

As part of your semester achievements (1/4) you have to compile a portfolio.

A portfolio is a set of texts, pictures, maps which you write/ collect/ edit, then process write and finally compile in an attractive booklet with the help of your friend (your study buddy) and your teacher. They will give you feedback and help you whenever you need their support. You yourself process their opinion and feedback in a way that suits you and helps you best.

- Find a study buddy:
  Who is going to be your study buddy?
  Set down five rules of how you will perform your cooperation.
  Sign the contract of your teamwork

- Find a topic for your portfolio:
  Watch the news, read international newspapers or browse through BBC and CNN for one week.
  Which current international affairs cause headlines?
  Which one are you particularly interested in?
  What do you already know about it?

- For your portfolio you are to produce three texts: Each about 800 words

  - A report about the situation at the moment including quotations from newsreels, newspaper and other contemporary sources you used (interviews …). Include visual material as well.

  - There are always two sides to the coin. So try to analyse your topic of how it might be seen from two different ideological points of view/ political involvement/ historical understanding/ personal experience: What is the truth? Can it ever be found? Integrate different sources as illustration

  - Electives: Choose one:

    1. Maybe there is a film linked to your topic- how is it related to it and how does it present the situation
    2. Maybe you write a short story related to your topic – do not forget to integrate the typical elements of short story writing
    3. Maybe you write a poem related to the topic (need not be 800 words)
    4. Maybe you write a letter of protest to the governments involved- have a look at samples by AI and other NGO´s.

Start with your work on your portfolio; do not forget - your teacher and your study buddy are there to support you.

Do not forget to document each work step in your work diary - date, place, result, comments.

- gather information for your topic, make sure you use different sources, do not forget to put down the references
- make some brainstorming and mind mapping for the report, then separate ones for your other two texts- they must have a different focus
- save the sources, find some visual material
- work on the tasks, produce your first drafts
- go through the self assessment scale
- ask your teacher and your study buddy for their opinion (including assessment scale)
- go over your work again, process the feedback
- show the product to your teacher and study buddy a second time: what do they think now?
- go over your work again if you want to and ask for their opinion
- produce a final version of your work
- proofread it
- create a catching cover page and write a letter to the reader: What is your personal relationship to your topic? What triggered your interest? Have you changed your personal relation to it during your research and work?
- Write a final reflection

    - Did you like working on your portfolio?
    - Was it difficult at the beginning and did it become easier later on?
    - What was the most difficult?
    - What would you do differently next time?
    - Where did you learn most?
    - What are you most proud of?
    - What kind of help would you like to get next time?
    - Was your study buddy of any help? Why/ why not?

- Write a letter to your study buddy

Contents of your portfolio: Your portfolio is to consist of

- Cover page
- Index
- Letter to the reader: introduction of the topic and your personal relation to it
- Three texts
- Drafts including teacher and study buddy's comments
- Work diary
- Self assessment scales
- Reflection on work progress
- References

Case Study Lower Secondary

Cross curricular History- Handicraft- English/The Greeks

We learned a lot about ancient Greeks, their daily life, their history, their culture, their religion, their legacy.

- Which one is your favourite topic in Greek history?
- What do you remember about it?
- Have a look at the books and in the internet, if you find some more information on your topic. Put down some key words.
- Now find a precise title for your topic:
- Find a study buddy!
  What does the study buddy have to do?
  Help you!!! And you have to help him!
  Who is your study buddy?
  Set down five rules for your work together:
  Sign these rules:
- Keep a work diary!

Start with your work on your portfolio:

- have a look at the books and the internet sites again
- collect all the information for your topic
- pick out the important facts
- write down keywords
- order the keywords: which belong to the same idea? Which idea is more important than the other?
- Write a description of your topic (about 250 words) What is it about? What are the most important facts?
- Write a paragraph on: What is so special about your topic for you? Why is it your favourite? (about 150 words)
- Write a diary entry of a person important for your topic. If he had had a diary, what would he have written on a special day living then?
- Find pictures for your texts
- Explain why they are important for your topic.
- Produce a Greek artefact, e.g. a vase showing your topic in the typical Greek way
- Write a letter to the reader:
  - Did you like working on your portfolio?
  - Was it difficult at the beginning and did it become easier later on?
  - What was the most difficult?
  - What would you do differently the next time?
  - Where did you learn most?
  - What are you most proud of?
  - What kind of help would you like to get next time?
  - Was your study buddy of any help? Why/ why not?

CLIL Geography Lessons: Student Presentations for Language Skills Integration

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Abstract

This paper deals with student presentations prepared for Geography lessons taught in English to 13-14-year-olds at a junior high school in Toruń in the school year 2006/2007. The Geography Curriculum includes studies of the world biomes. The students were divided into groups of two to three to prepare presentations on the selected topics, such as tropical rainforests, savannas or deserts. Each group was to prepare an information package on location, climate and nature, accompanied and/or followed by tasks for the entire class. All the language skills were integrated, although grammar was not under special focus. Most of the presentations proved to be successful, as the majority of students engaged in both preparation and presentation of their topic. This included visuals, special objects characteristic of a given biome, and, in many cases, food typical of a given climatic zone. The last stage of the entire project was to produce a poster with all the basic information on the studied biomes, which later became the basis for the final evaluation.

Key words: CLIL, bilingual teaching, school projects, Geography and English, Earth biomes

Teaching through projects

Projects constitute an essential component for both Geography and English when they are taught separately. In every modern English course book teachers will find suggestions for project topics to increase the motivation and engagement of the learners, as well as to practise writing skills, such as describing a selected holiday destination or presenting an idol profile (Hayton, 2005). Some projects integrate all the language skills and may easily be used by Geography teachers to guide their students in conducting a street interview on a specific topic or creating a string and pin display about tourist destinations within a town (Fried-Booth, 1997).

If well prepared methodologically, projects in Geography teaching give students an opportunity to experience a change from their typical lessons. Such projects can be short activities solely devoted to a selected geographical topic. However, they may also take a longer period of time and can integrate Geography with other disciplines (Bailey, 1991; Gołębniak, 2002; Zaparucha, 2006). In either case, projects in Geography enable the students to have a hands-on experience with a given topic and have a novel learning experience in one or several subjects.

It is clear, thus, that a project is a great way to combine both the requirements of the English and Geography curricula (Zaparucha 2007a; Zaparucha 2007b; Zaparucha 2008). A well designed CLIL lesson, including a project-based teaching initiative, should contain four elements: content (e.g. Geography), communication (e.g. English language skills), cognition (i.e. thinking skills) and culture (i.e. the elements which help the learner define *otherness*). Moreover, it is important to include all the language skills into the project, i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing (Oxford, 2001).

The project on the **Biomes of the Earth** described below was undertaken by a Junior High bilingual class of 13-15 year-olds at Secondary School Complex number 10 in Toruń, Poland, during the school year 2006/2007. As the project was implemented for a second time the teacher incorporated some minor changes.

Student projects and CLIL objectives

According to the European Union's position on Content and Language Integrated Learning (European Union Positions on CLIL, undated), as well as other authors (Dalton-Puffer, undated; Peachey, undated), a well designed CLIL lesson, including projects, should contain the four 'Cs". Most of all, they include content, in this case the study of the biomes of the Earth, and the communication element, in this case the English language necessary to conduct the projects. Ideally, besides vocabulary, all language skills should be practised. Moreover, cognition, i.e. learning processes, and culture, such as cooperation and other social skills, should also be well-represented.

The **Biomes of the Earth** project and its content-specific outcomes include the following:

- students will be able to connect the existence of the biomes with the position of the Earth towards the Sun in its yearly rotation;
- students will be able to name the biomes of the Earth (e.g. tropical rainforest, savannah, desert);
- students will be able to locate the biomes of the Earth (e.g. in central Africa, in Siberia, to the north of taiga);
- students will be able to characterise the climates of the biomes of the Earth (e.g. dry/wet season, precipitation, mean monthly temperature);
- students will be able to characterise the flora and fauna of the biomes of the Earth (e.g. moss, lichen, elephant grass, bamboo, vulture, lynx);
- students will be able to present their data in the form of the selected graphs (pie, line, bar or picture graphs);
- students will be able to present their findings in the form of a class activity.

While designing the tasks for students, a teacher needs to consider that all the language skills are practised, i.e. the productive ones (writing and speaking) and the receptive ones (reading and listening). Moreover, vocabulary items should be carefully selected so as not to overwhelm the students with the amount of new words. Thus, in terms of the language-specific outcomes, the realisation of the project will fulfil the following lexical items:

- students will revise place names in various locations (e.g. the Amazon, the Sahara Desert, Antarctica, Greenland);
- students will study the vocabulary connected with different biomes of the world (e.g., names of location, animals, plants);
- students will revise adjectives related to climate (e.g., hot, short, wet);
- students will revise and study the vocabulary on the flora and fauna of the individual biomes (e.g., giraffe, liana, pine, oak, maple).

Moreover, both receptive and productive language skills will be practised:

- students will practise reading skills, including spelling rules, while doing the tasks prepared in advance by the presenting students;
- students will practise listening skills, including stress and intonation, by listening to the presentations prepared by other students;
- students will practise writing skills, including spelling rules, by completing the tasks prepared in advance by the other students;
- students will practise speaking skills, including stress and intonation, by giving presentations themselves and answering the questions prepared in advance and asked by other groups of students.

The cognitive aspects of the project will include various content- and language-specific outcomes, as well as those stemming from combining both, especially the following:

- students will develop their research skills while looking for materials;
- students will process information fund in different resources, both in Polish and in English;
- students will develop critical thinking by selecting necessary information from the resources;
- students will apply their knowledge from different earlier Geography and English studies in order to fulfill the presentation requirements;
- students will draw conclusion on the interrelation between the living conditions and the type of plant and animal species in diverse biomes;
- students will draw conclusions on the interrelation between individual biomes and the living conditions for humans;
- students will draw conclusions on the common origin of names of various plant and animal species in Polish and English (e.g. liana (En.) – liana (Pl.), bamboo (En.) – bambus (Pl.), tiger (En.) – tygrys (Pl.), kangaroo (En.) – kangur (Pl.), etc);
- students will draw conclusion on the common origin of various place and biome names in Polish and English (e.g. the Amazon (En.) – Amazonka (Pl.), Siberia (En.) – Syberia (Pl.), savanna (En.) – sawanna (Pl.), Sahara (En.) – Sahara (Pl.), etc);
- students will develop their map orientation skills by using the world map to show the location of the specific biome areas.

As the project on the **Biomes of the Earth** deals with diverse aspects of world nature, one of the areas where the development is expected to take place is connected with making comparisons with living conditions in Poland. As well, students are expected to further develop some of their social skills:

- students will be able to make comparisons between the natural conditions of the biomes of the Earth and the Polish ones;
- students will develop their social and co-operative skills by working in pairs;
- students will develop their interpersonal skills by discussing the content of the project in pairs;
- students will develop their learners' independency by working outside the classroom and without the supervision of the teacher;
- students will develop skills necessary for public presentations;

In doing such a project, it is very important to balance both the content and the language. If the language used by the students gets too complicated (vocabulary, grammar structures), the acquisition of the content by the listeners might be hindered. On the other hand, if the level of the contents is too high**,** even using simple language might not be enough to ensure the students' understanding of the core content. It is the role of the teacher to assist students in their preparation stage and serve as a counsellor. In terms of this very project, the role of the teacher is as follows:

- the teacher will set rules for the individual presentations;
- the teacher will prepare and supervise the drafting process during which the pairs of students will select the topics to be prepared;
- the teacher will make sure the order of the presentations is followed carefully, as it is important that the specific biomes be taught "from the Equator to the Poles");
- in individual cases, the teacher will help select materials;
- in individual cases, the teacher will read the prepared text in order to check for mistakes;
- in individual cases, the teacher will help translate some plant or animal species into English;
- during classes, the teacher will supervise the presentations making sure all the students take part;
- during classes, the teacher will make notes in order to grade the presentation, both in terms of the prepared contents and the language fluency;
- during classes, the teacher will manage time making sure the entire presentation is completed during one 45-minute lesson.

A guideline to the project on the Biomes of the Earth

The stages of preparation, realization and evaluation of the **Biomes of the Earth** project were based on the Field Studies Council publication for GCSE students *Projects without panic!* (Projects without panic!, 1989). The steps given below can be used for any other project, be it based on the fieldwork, class survey or individual research done by students.

Step 1. Choosing a project idea

Presentation of the main biomes of the Earth poses an important section in Geography teaching. However, the Junior High textbook includes information on biomes within different sections (Dobosik et al, 2004). Chapter 4, Section I, deals with the insolation zones resulting from the various positions of the Earth in relation to the Sun during its yearly rotation (pp. 25-31). Next, Chapter 5, Section II (The Atmosphere), discusses the pressure zones (pp. 69-70), followed by the distribution of precipitation (pp. 73) and climatic zones (pp. 74-77). Chapter 6, Section II, deals with the areas of water surplus and water deficit (p. 81), while Chapter 7 describes the diversity of vegetation formations (pp. 87-92) and soil zones (pp. 92-93). Finally, the whole system of climatic, soil and vegetation zones is summarized in one table in Chapter 8 (p. 94).

Human activity in different climatic zones is dealt with in Sections III, IV and V of the book (pp. 95-151). Throughout all the sections on human activity there are numerous references to the natural conditions connected with climate, soils and vegetation world. Collecting all the information on biomes in the form of projects enables students to make a clear summary of the material dispersed in the text book. Moreover, such a way of dealing with the school material lets the students understand better various interrelations between the following elements of nature: (1) movements of the Earth → (2) insolation of the globe → (3) high and low air pressure zones → (4) precipitation zones → (5) soil types → (6) vegetation zones → (7) animal world → (8) human activity.

Step 2. Stating a problem, hypothesis or investigation

The discussion before the selection of the topics for presentations included the revision of the movements of the Earth (element 1) and their consequences, i.e. climate type, flora and fauna. It was stressed that the biomes should be presented in a logical way, i.e. starting from the equator and moving to the north and south of it.

Step 3. Planning the projects

As the class was divided into two groups for CLIL, each had 15-17 students. As a result, one project was done by two to three students. The way the students organised themselves into teams was left to the students to decide. The teacher prepared strips of paper with the topics to be covered. A draw was held to choose a topic. Students who were unhappy with their topic, were able to exchange it with someone else.

Step 4: Preparing the project

The students had to search for information (books, atlases, encyclopaedias, the Internet, etc.) and gather the necessary information, i.e. location of their biome, climatic conditions (annual distribution of rainfall and range of temperatures), flora and fauna. As Kelly points out (Kelly, 2005), all CLIL initiatives require the use of visuals. Thus, it was the task of the students to find appropriate photos, posters, maps, drawings, etc. Moreover, as the presentations were not meant to be mere lectures, another task of the students was to prepare exercises for the rest of the class. They ranged from crosswords to true/false statements, open questions, word squares and texts with gaps.

Step 5. Presenting the projects

The projects were presented in front of the class. Each was designed to last one 45 minute lesson. Any extra visuals or attractions were welcome, such as food (e.g., tropical fruit salad for the presentation on tropical rainforests), souvenirs (e.g., masks of indigenous people from Costa Rica), and clothes the students presented or were actually wearing (e.g. summer clothes for the

Mediterranean biome or winter clothes for the tundra presentation). Ideally, the presentation should not be read. However, for some of the students this proved to be really challenging.

An important part of the students' lessons was to give the listeners enough clues to enable the fellow students to complete the extra written tasks. Such tasks, together with the handouts prepared by the presenting team, made good material for individual revision at home.

A sample plan of a 45-minute lesson unit looks as follows:

- students giving a presentation enter the classroom during the break to get prepared (e.g. put the vocabulary on the board, install an overhead projector, hang a wall map, set the pictures, prepare a display);
- the rest of the students comes into the classroom;
- students introduce their topic and distribute materials (e.g. tasks to be done during or after the talk);
- students give a presentation (e.g. in a form of an interview, a dialogue, a puppet show or a speech given in turns);
- students show illustrations during or after the presentation (e.g. pictures of animals and plant species, landscape and landforms examples);
- peer students do the extra tasks, either individually or in pairs or groups;
- the tasks are checked by the presenting students;
- the presentation is graded by the teacher.

Step 6. Gathering the information from the projects and conclusions

Once all the projects were delivered, all the students were asked to once again bring their notes to class. Students from two groups joined for one lesson to discuss and select the most important pieces of information. The students were asked to choose the most important locations of their biome, limited information on temperature and precipitation, as well as maximum 5 animal and 5 plant species. This required a lot of talking/listening and writing/reading. As a result, the entire material from the presentations was simplified and gathered in a form of a poster, later on to be transformed into a table (Table 1). This compilation made an easy tool for students' individual preparation for a final test.

NATURAL LANDSCAPES OF THE WORLD				
	WHERE	**CLIMATE**	**VEGETATION**	**ANIMAL WORLD**
TROPICAL RAINFOREST	CENTRAL AMERICA AMAZON BASIN CONGO RIVER BASIN MADAGASCAR SOUTH-EAST ASIA	ANNUAL PRECIPITATION – 2000 mm; TEMPERATURE – from 18ºC to 25ºC	LIANAS BAMBOO BANANA TREES MANGROVES	TARANTULA PIRANHA CAPYBARA ANACONDA
SAVANNAH	AFRICA north & south of the rainforest zone ORINOCO BASIN DECCAN AUSTRALIA	DRY SEASON & WET SEASON TEMPERATURE 20-25ºC	BAOBAB ACACIA BUSHES GRASS	ANTELOPE, LION ELEPHANT VULTURE GIRAFFE BUFFALO
DESERTS	SAHARA & NAMIB ARABIAN & GOBI KYZYL & KARA KUM TAKLAMAKAN GREAT SANDY & GREAT AUSTRALIAN MOHAVE & ATACAMA	HIGHEST TEMP. 80ºC MEAN TEMP. 40ºC NIGHT TEMP. 0ºC VERY HOT & DRY	BARREL CACTUS GRASS OPUNTIA YUCCA	CAMEL SNAKE SCORPION GECKO DINGO

Table 1. The biomes of the Earth – one section of the summary table

Step 7. Feedback

The best feedback was received during the presentations, as it was easily observable the students enjoyed their presentations. They proved to be very exciting, especially as the first team delivered an exceptionally good presentation. This encouraged the others to outdo them and thus increased the level of the following presentations.

Conclusions

A careful design of the whole series of students' projects enabled the teacher to activate the four 'Cs' of CLIL, while developing the four language skills in English. The lessons created by the students proved to be exciting and surprising, as those presenting a given biome always tried to keep their presentation secret.

However, some parents expressed concern about the students' workload, the very idea of making them stand in front of their peers, and, last but not least, the fact that the textbook was not studied chapter by chapter. One of the key elements to success in combining language and content is to make sure all parties involved, including the parents of the students undertaking such courses, are aware of the challenges and the necessity to find new, innovative ways of having students learning curriculum content.

The **Biomes of the Earth** project presented in this paper was, in fact, based on a previous project carried out a year earlier. This enabled the teacher to make minor changes to the original project, such as including a pre-project introductory lesson, and ensuring that the first group had ample time to prepare. Despite unavoidable mistakes, however, it must be stressed that doing CLIL classes through student projects makes the teaching and learning processes highly efficient in terms of both the content and the language.

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Integrating the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) with CLIL

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Abstract

CLIL introduces a cognitive dimension which is missing (or not explicitly considered) in the CEFR and adds a new competence: *using the language to learn.*

Our aim is to build a framework where "*cognitive competences*" and *linguistic competences* are described in terms of difficulty, ranging from the lowest to the highest level.

We have tried to formulate a first schema, a kind of conceptual framework on the basis of a class observation. At present we can provide examples for the "basic user" levels (A1/A2). We need to go further in order to complete the grid in relation to the other levels, e.g.: independent users (B1/B2), and proficient users (C1/C2).

An initial proposal was submitted as a Lingua 2 project in 2003 (coordinated by Aine Furlong – Ireland and T. Barbero as the representative of the Italian partnership), the project was entitled *Framing CLIL.*

Keywords: CEFR, cognition, building background, scaffolding, CLIL descriptors.

Introduction

In Italy CLIL is not officially included in school syllabi, but many experiments have been carried out in schools at different levels, and in some universities CLIL modules have also been introduced in initial training courses for language teachers.

The first question the future teachers generally ask is: "Communicative approach or CLIL? Are these approaches compatible?"

The model they face, as with almost all language teachers, is the CEFR; the pragmatic, communicative perspective it introduces is well known. It describes the competences necessary for communication, the related skills and different domains. Its focus is on the *use* of the language in a *relational* dimension: learning the language in order to communicate with people and to interact with them.

Our proposal is that not only is CLIL not contradictory with communicative approaches inspired by the CEFR but that it also enhances *communication*.

The communicative competence – BICS, Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skill (Cummins, 2000) – involves linguistic knowledge in terms of functions, structures, vocabulary and the use of social and cultural conventions as well.

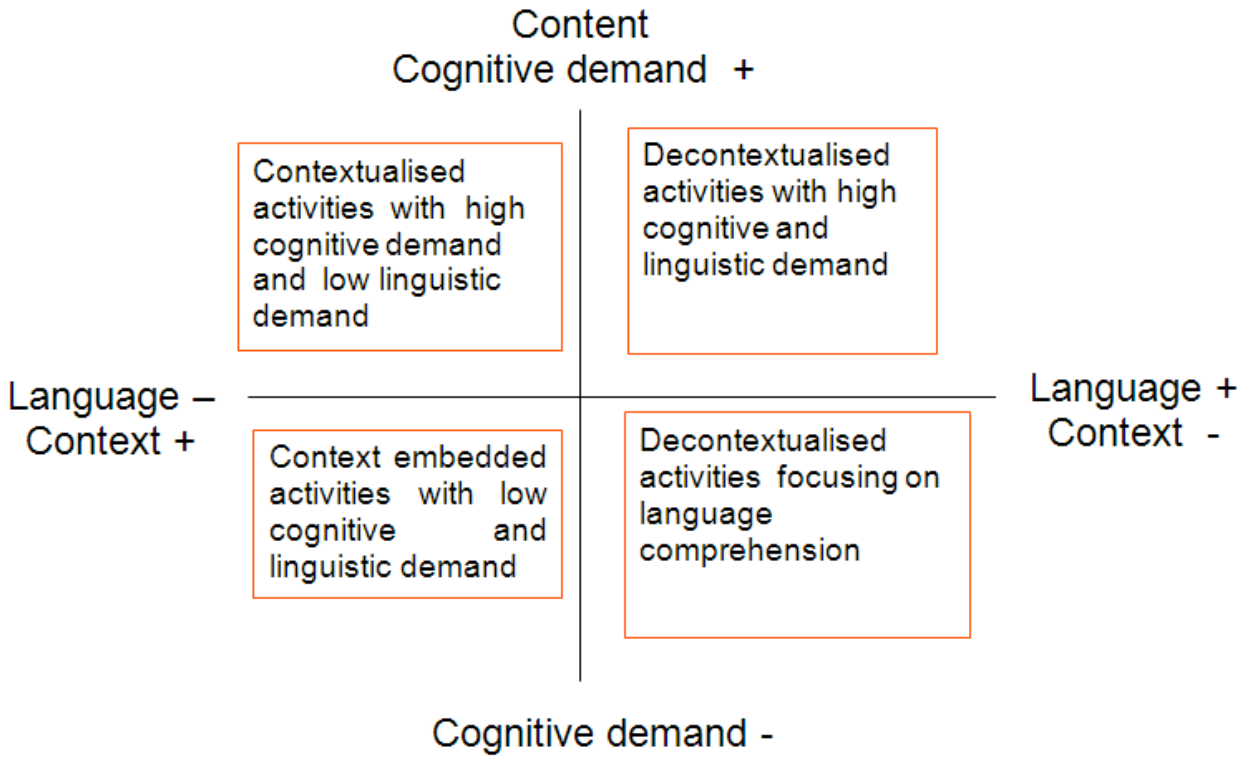
The competence in a specific field – CALP, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency – still needs language in terms of functions, structures, vocabulary but also *specific skills* and knowledge in that field. A discipline is a way of knowing, and whatever is known is inseparable from the symbols (mostly words) in which the knowing is codified. What is biology or history other than words? Almost all of what we customarily call "knowledge" is language, which means that the key to understanding a subject is to understand its language (Wellington et al., 2001).

In a communicative approach, whose model of reference is the CEFR, we learn the language to communicate; in CLIL we learn *contents* and also the *language through the contents.* This means that CLIL integrates *communicative skills*, *subject skills* and knowledge, as well as *learning skills*.

CLIL potentialities

CLIL potentialities have been summarized (Coyle, 2002) as four essential principles: *content, communication, cognition,* and *culture*. Their combination makes CLIL a very powerful tool to learn languages and subjects, proposed by European authorities as one of the best strategies to encourage languages learning. The relationship between all these elements demands a focus on methodology, on *how* subjects are taught and learnt in a foreign language. In this perspective the development of the *cognitive dimension* in language learning is the real challenge of CLIL.

Cummins's quadrant (Cummins, 2000) represents the double dimension of CLIL (Figure 1): on the vertical line the *cognitive demand*, that proceeds from the lowest to the highest, and on the horizontal line the *language* that may be more or less embedded in a *context,* provided for instance by situations, non verbal supports to secure understanding, face-to-face communication. The context is considered an important element to highlight the meaning: experiences in bilingual studies show that children are able to manifest much higher levels of cognitive performance when the task is embedded in a concrete context (Baker, 2002). Gathering all these different elements – language level, cognitive demand, context – Cummins's quadrant allows us to get a first classification of materials and activities in four principal groups, indicated in Figure 1 (Barbero, 2003)



However, we need more detailed instruments in order to:

- *describe* CLIL competences
- *integrate* cognitive competences to linguistic competences
- *elaborate* didactic paths
- *evaluate* and find criteria for assessment
- *assess* learners' performances

Our aim is to build a framework where *cognitive competences* and *linguistic competences* are described in terms of difficulty, ranging from the lowest to the highest level.

Our first schema, a kind of conceptual framework based on class observation allowed us to formulate CLIL descriptors for the "basic user" level of linguistic competence.

Developing thinking skills in a CLIL class of Science in English (a case study)

A CLIL approach develops thinking skills and consequently enhances language acquisition. We have observed this process in a primary school class that represents a sort of case study clarifying our thesis; our considerations anyway may be easily transferred to other age levels as processes are the same in their logic progression.

> Lucy is a teacher in a primary school in the outskirts of Turin. She teaches Maths, Sciences, Geography and English. Every day she develops part of her lessons in English, but she has chosen to experience more CLIL modules in Science, this means that about 60% of the content in this subject is taught in English, 40% in Italian, the pupils' mother tongue.
>
> We need to notice that in Italy, English is compulsory in primary schools, but teachers may be *specialis*t in English or they are able to teach English as a *class teacher*. In the former case this means teachers teach only English to different classes and they can collaborate with subject teachers if they choose a CLIL approach. This situation is similar to team teaching in secondary schools. In the second case the class teacher includes English in her/his teaching. This situation is more similar to bilingual schools.
>
> Lucy belongs to the latter category.
>
> Her class is composed of 22 children aged 11, in the last year of primary school.
> The Science syllabus of the second term of the year is focused on *human body* functions, compared with other organisms.
>
> During the Science lesson pupils are divided into two groups and the lesson is organised as a workshop experience. Pupils move to the science laboratory, a room equipped with scientific instruments, books, posters and pictures.

A CLIL approach offers a valid alternative to a model of teaching and learning founded on transmission of knowledge; it aims to build "knowledge as construction instead of instruction" (Marsh, 2007). In this case study examples are given of how it is possible to progress step by step from more *contextualized* learning towards more abstract and *conceptualised* forms of knowledge. New information is connected to students' *background* and *experience,* and strategies are used to *scaffold* the students' acquisition of knowledge and skills towards a progressive *autonomy.*

Building background

Before introducing new information into the lesson we observed – the heart functioning – the teacher builds a favourable *background* in two ways:

- ***Linking to past learning***
  Research emphasizes that in order for learning to occur, new information must be integrated with what the learner already knows. So it is important for teachers to make explicit connections between new learning and the material, vocabulary and concepts previously covered in class. There are different ways to establish links between past learning and new learning: teacher's questions, graphic organizers, written reminders, activities (Echevarria et al., 2004).

  > In this case the teacher proposes a labelling activity to revise vocabulary and principal concepts about the human body. The children, working in groups, are involved in a task that stimulates skills as remembering, knowing, recognizing.

- ***Providing experience***
  The content understanding and learning level of difficulty does not only depend on the knowledge of the language but on the more or less extended presence of a *context*. In other words *context embedded communication,* where there is a good degree of support, is easier to understand than *context reduced communication.*
  Consequently "language and content will be acquired most successfully when students are challenged cognitively but provided with the contextual and linguistic supports". Optimal instruction for linguistic, cognitive and content growth will move from context embedded tasks to context reduced tasks (Cummins, 2000).

  > In our case study the teacher provides experience in the following way: she asks the children to take their pulse rate. Then she asks them to carry out a physical activity, jumping, running etc and afterwards to take their pulse rate again.

  The choice of a concrete experience is important in this context. Although not all subjects can be dealt with in the same way, science is a subject that can be approached in both an experiential and theoretical way.

Scaffolding the learning

"Scaffolding is a term associated with Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is the difference between what a child can accomplish alone and what she/he can accomplish with the assistance of a more experienced individual. In the classroom, teachers *scaffold* instruction when they provide a substantial amount of support and assistance in the earliest stages of teaching a new concept or strategy and then decrease the amount of support as the learners acquire experience through multiple practice opportunities" (Echevarria et al., 2004, 86).

The objective is to help learners towards increasing autonomy, this aim may be achieved in different ways using different techniques, so scaffolding may be: verbal, procedural or instructional (Echevarria et al., 2004).

In our case study, language is used to *conceptualise* the learners' experience. Here the language is used in its *cognitive dimension*; it is used to learn and not to communicate.

> As we have seen the teacher has provided experience inviting children to count their pulse beats before a physical activity and after it. After that children are given a grid where they have to fill in the data of their experience: how many beats before? How many beats after? They are invited to *predict* and guess the heart functions. At the end the children have to draw conclusions. However, this task would be too complex, as the language competence achieved by most of them is A2 level; therefore the teacher provides them with a text where some *key words* have been deleted and the pupils have to fill them in. In this way their cognitive effort is supported by language and they may reach a relatively high cognitive level.

We can deduce that the purpose of language support tasks is to support learners in their use of the L2 and thus allow them to focus on subject-matter contents. There is a balance here: the student has to focus on both language and content; if we can reduce the language demands, we can free some mental processing capacity which can be devoted to focussing on content. Language support tasks operate at a number of language levels. They normally support the learner at the level of vocabulary, grammar, function or textual organisation, and in listening, speaking, reading or writing. They may offer support at a number of these levels simultaneously. They can also provide strong or weak support and can often be adjusted to suit the degree of support which the learner needs (Barbero et al., 2005)

Evaluating and communicating the results

In this experience we have seen that the language is used *to support content learning*. It enhances cognitive processes by triggering mental processes and improving thinking skills such as:

a) collecting information
b) rearranging it
c) predicting results
d) drawing conclusions

In this case the language structures the experience; it allows the learners to proceed from a concrete contextual learning to a more abstract and conceptualised form of knowledge. But language in CLIL is also used to communicate. In this case it is used, at the end of the didactic path, to talk about the experience and compare the results.

> Children are gathered in pairs where each one has to communicate to the other the results of his/her experience and compare them. The teacher again provides a model as a support both for the question to ask ("What is your fastest/slowest pulse rate?") and for the answer to give ("My fastest pulse rate is…) However, while practicing, we noticed that some children asked questions and answered autonomously by using their own structures.

It is a true *task*, in the same sense suggested by the CEFR: "Communication is an integral part of tasks where participants engage in interaction, production, reception or mediation, or a combination of two or more of these…" (CEFR, electronic version, chapter 7). Exactly as it is recommended, this task comes at the end, supported by previous experience and linguistic structures: "Successful task accomplishment may be facilitated by the prior activation of the learner's competences, for example, in the initial problem-posing or goal-setting phase of a task by providing or raising awareness of necessary linguistic elements, by drawing on prior knowledge and experience to activate appropriate schemata, and by encouraging task planning or rehearsal".

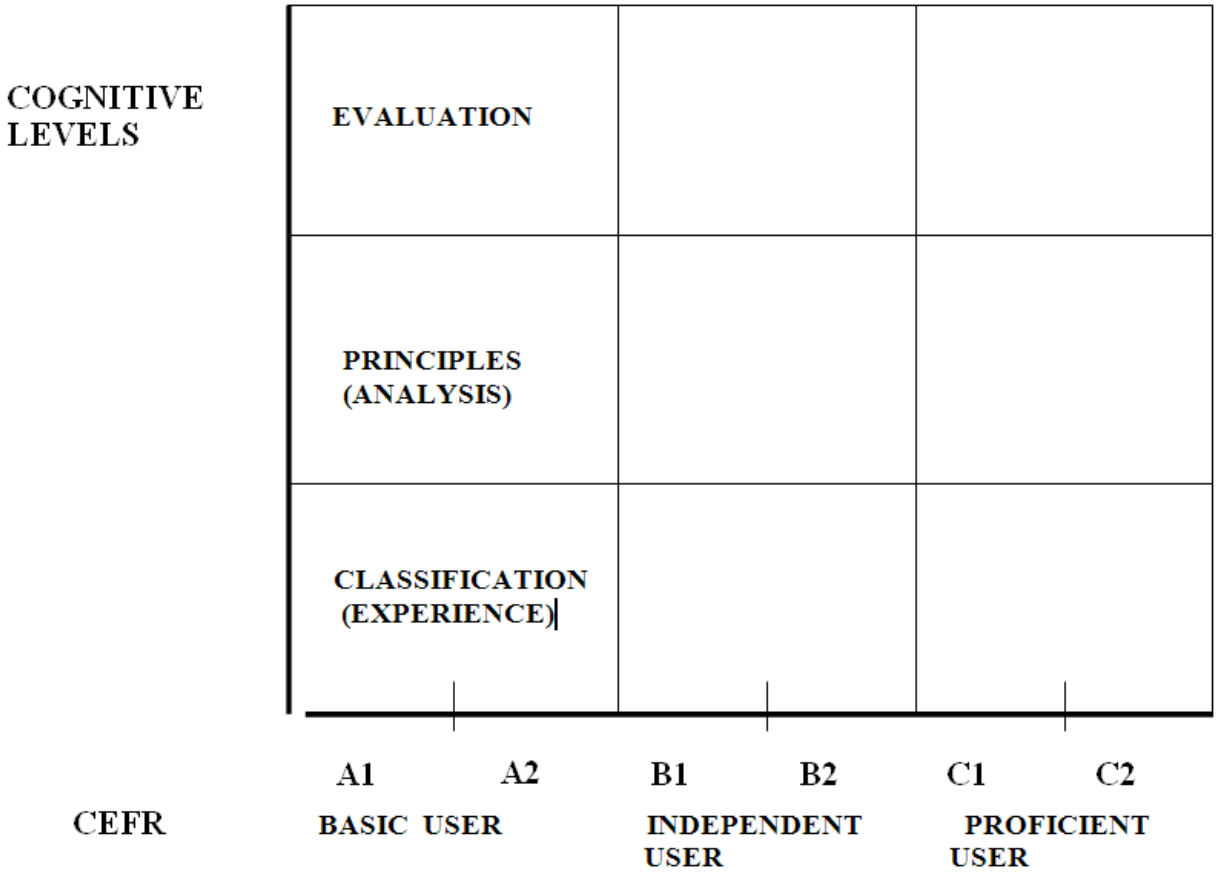
We noticed that some children had also acquired a certain autonomy in executing this task: they chose their own structures to express their own experience instead of following the given model, as the task itself suggested what linguistic forms they needed to use, while allowing them the final choice (Ellis, 2003).

This allows us to conclude on two main statements of fact:

- CLIL promotes learning through activities that have the features of tasks: involving a primary focus on pragmatic meaning it *motivates* the learners to use the language to communicate contents, it involves cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning and evaluating information;
- CLIL enhances the second language *acquisition* more effectively, where acquisition is a kind of subconscious process similar to the way children develop ability in their first language (Krashen, 1995).

Integrating CLIL with CEFR

Here we represent the integration of CLIL with the CEFR in a diagram (Figure 2): on the *horizontal* line the framework levels and on the *vertical* one a cognitive taxonomy.

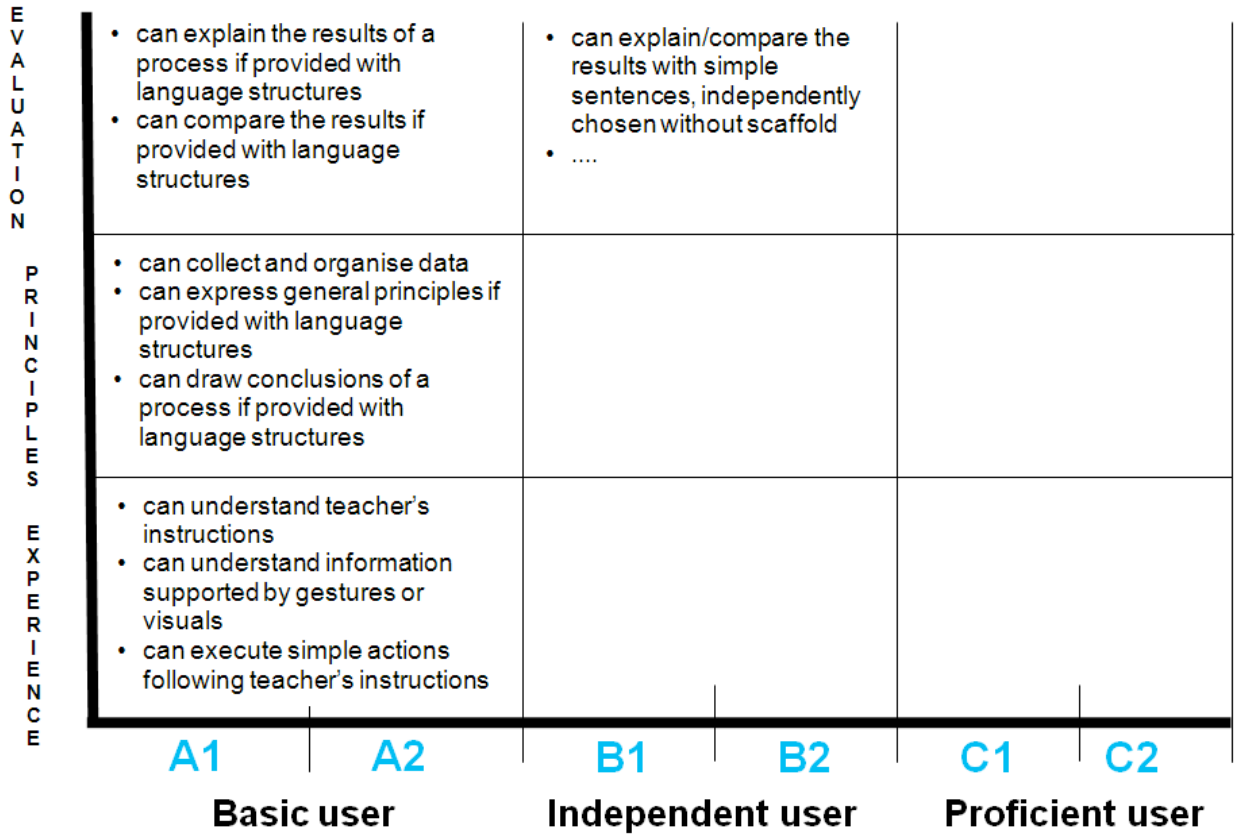


Many taxonomies are available and the question of choice should be further investigated.

We have chosen Mohan's levels since they combine higher order thinking skills with their linguistic manifestation (Järvinen, 2008, 9), inside a process similar to the one we mentioned earlier, proceeding from the context – embedded to the context -reduced language (Cummins, 2000, 65).

So, the optimal sequencing in language instruction proceeds from *experiential learning,* to *general concepts,* up to *"theoretical content*".

We have attempted to provide descriptors for these three levels as shown in Figure 3



The linguistic standard of the learners in this class varies from A1 to A2 level.
At this level pupils need to be supported with language structures given by the teacher in order to express cognitive contents.

Scaffolding is therefore needed to support the learning. However some of the pupils, as we have seen, chose their structures themselves, their competences progressing from *basic user* towards *independent user.*

Conclusions

The experience so far carried out seems to confirm that the CEFR and CLIL can successfully be integrated. This form of integration can be useful in language and even in subject teaching. Our examples are from the scientific fields, but we think that more can be done in other fields e.g. the humanities.

Our research highlights the possibility of providing descriptors. At present we have tried to give an example for the basic user levels (A1/A2), but we need to go further in order to complete the grid in relation to the other levels, e.g.: independent users (B1/B2), and proficient users (C1/C2).

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Developing Clil Training for Modern Languages Teacher Trainees

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Abstract

The development of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) could be one way forward in motivating pupils to expand their foreign language learning in England. Following the removal of the requirement for all pupils to learn a foreign language at key stage 4 (ages 14-16) there has been a decline in the take-up of languages after the age of 14. Concurrently, the entitlement to learn a foreign language throughout key stage 2 (ages 7-11) has led to diversity of pupils' experience before starting at secondary school at age 11. CLIL could be one solution to enthuse pupils through their first stage at secondary school. This paper outlines a collaborative action research project to integrate a training module in CLIL for Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) teacher trainees as part of their Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) programme at the University of Warwick with the support of Tile Hill Wood School and Language College. Tile Hill Wood School has a national reputation for innovative work in CLIL; it was one of the 2006 winners of the European Award for Languages for its CLIL work and in 2007 was a CILT (English National Centre for Teaching of Languages) 14-19 network for immersion teaching. The research reports on trainees' evaluations of their teaching of CLIL lessons in a range of secondary schools, and the impact of the CLIL approach on learners, their own teaching, and the school departments in which they were teaching. It also reports on the challenges trainees encountered in using this approach. The project culminated in a successful Association for Language Learning showcase event in June 2008 where trainees presented their work and considered the impact on learners and schools.

Key words: CLIL, integrated language learning, bilingual programmes, immersion teaching, teacher education

Introduction

Whilst there are some pockets of good practice in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in England, this approach is still considered to be innovative practice and is not widespread. This paper outlines why CLIL could be one solution to combat the decline in take-up of languages after the age of 14 in England, and how, following the success of CLIL in one specialist language college, the language college and university collaborated to develop a training module in CLIL for MFL teacher trainees as part of their Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) programme for secondary teachers.

The context for CLIL in England

The decision in England (DfES, 2002a) to remove the requirement for all pupils to learn a foreign language at key stage 4 (ages 14-16) has led to falling numbers taking languages at this level, as reflected in the 2006 Language Trends at Key Stage 4 survey (CILT, 2006). Concurrently, the government's 14-19 Green Paper and MFL supplement in England (DfES, 2002a) and the National Languages Strategy (DfES, 2002b) outlined plans for an entitlement for each pupil to learn a foreign language at primary school throughout key stage 2 (KS2, age 7-11) by 2010. However, there is great diversity in the languages taught, the potential models for including languages, the time allocated and the linguistic expertise of the teacher at primary level.

The CLIL approach could be one way of motivating pupils in England to expand their foreign language learning to continue after the age of 14 and also to cater for the diversity of experience at the start of secondary school following the introduction of foreign languages in the primary sector. The Languages Review (DfES, 2007:15) recommended 'the introduction of more stimulating and relevant content' to the languages syllabus and 'clear guidelines and support for a more appropriate and varied content to the secondary languages curriculum'. The Review (2007:16) also recommended 'opportunities to think through how language learning can be integrated into parts of other learning (CLIL), so that the language can be used in motivating contexts without detriment to learning in the target discipline.'

The CLIL approach is becoming more popular in the UK, as evidenced in the recommendations of the above report (DfES, 2007) to increase support for initiatives in this area and greater dissemination of existing experience. CILT, (the UK government's centre of expertise on languages) (2008) states that schools using this method report that the students' ability in the language improves more quickly than those studying the language in discrete language lessons, whilst at the same time, their ability in the main subject is as good as those studying it in English. Many CLIL initiatives are currently being developed. For example, some Higher Education Institutions (HEI) are including school placements abroad on an exchange basis as part of the PGCE programme so that subject teacher trainees teach their subject through their own or the foreign language and trainees from other countries are placed in schools in England. A further initiative is to create Integrated Language Learning (ILL) networks to include collaboration between a HEI, local authority, secondary schools and primary schools to develop integrated language learning methodology and smooth transition between the sectors.

A new National Curriculum and revised Programmes of Study for secondary schools in England (QCA, 2008) have been devised for implementation in Year 7 (age 11, the first year of secondary school) from September 2008. The curriculum aims to provide an entire planned learning experience underpinned by common values and purposes with a new framework for personal, learning and thinking skills. The revised Programmes of Study focus primarily on aims, concepts, and processes rather than coverage of content and there is a stronger emphasis on linguistic competence, knowledge about language, creativity and intercultural understanding. There is an emphasis on 'real' content and links with other curriculum areas. CLIL methodology clearly adheres to these proposed goals.

The development of the CLIL approach

CLIL is a new approach to foreign languages teaching, where content is learnt through the foreign language in an integrated way so that language learning is linked with other areas of the curriculum. Marsh (2002:15) describes CLIL as 'any dual-focused educational context in which an additional language, thus not usually the first language of the learners involved, is used as a medium in the teaching and learning of non-language content'. The advantages of this approach are that the teaching is focused on content whilst language is used for an authentic purpose and is assimilated in a natural context. This can boost learners' motivation to learn languages.

French immersion programmes have been developed in Canada since the 1960s, designed primarily 'to provide Canada's majority-group English-speaking learners with opportunities to learn Canada's other official language' (Genesee, 1994: 1). These programmes, based on the teaching of non-linguistic subjects in French to children whose native language was English, were the first to be subjected to intensive long-term research evaluation and produced positive results. Cummins (1999) summed up research over 30 years which found that students gain fluency and literacy in French at no apparent cost to their English academic skills; that there is no evidence of any long-term lag in mastery of subject matter taught through French and with respect to French skills, by the end of elementary school (grade 6) students are close to the level of native speakers in understanding and reading French although their expressive skills of spoken and written French are less well developed. While the Canadian experience is not necessarily directly transferable to Europe, it has nevertheless stimulated valuable research in this area and encouraged a wide range of experimental activity.

In Europe, interest in bilingual education methodologies started to increase in the 1990s due to European socio-economic integration and globalization. This was further developed through Council of Europe activities and in 1996 the term CLIL was introduced (CLIL compendium online, www.clilcompendium.com). One of the aims of the European Commission stipulated in the Action Plan 2004-2006 (Commission of the European Communities, 2003:7) advocated 'mother tongue plus two other languages'. The Action Plan also emphasized that CLIL should significantly contribute to achieving the goals of language education and provide opportunities for pupils to use their language skills alongside immediacy of purpose.

> *'It opens doors on languages for a broader range of learners, nurturing self-confidence in young learners and those who have not responded well to formal language instruction in general education. It provides exposure to the language without requiring extra time in the curriculum, which can be of particular interest in vocational settings.'* (Action Plan 2004-6:8)

CLIL is supported by the European Commission and European Council and is also one of the priorities of national governments. Several major European organisations specialising in CLIL projects have emerged and there have been numerous initiatives throughout the European Union to promote this approach. A Eurydice publication (2006) offers an interesting analysis of CLIL provision in the education system. It deals with the status of languages and levels of education concerned, examines the aims and range of subjects taught through a foreign language, considers evaluation and certification and discusses factors inhibiting the general implementation of CLIL.

CLIL has gained support from political authorities because it contributes to the development of multilingual interests and attitudes, prepares learners for internationalization and provides learners access to the wider cultural context. It is believed that languages will play a key role in curricula across Europe and the combination of subjects and languages offers learners a better preparation for life in Europe, in which mobility is becoming increasingly more widespread.

Marsh and Langé (2002:8) claim that CLIL promotes not only linguistic competence but also cognitive development and thinking skills:

> *'Because of the different "thinking horizons" which result from working in another language CLIL can also have an impact on conceptualisation, literally* how we think. *Being able to think about something in different languages can enrich our understanding of concepts, and help broaden our* conceptual mapping *resources. This allows better association of different concepts and helps the learner go towards a more sophisticated level of learning in general.'*

The situation in the UK, as an English speaking country, is somewhat different from other European countries. The Nuffield Languages Inquiry (2000) recommended that there should be a nationally co-ordinated programme of bilingual learning in the UK (i.e. studying a curriculum subject through the medium of a foreign language). Following this, the use of the CLIL approach started in the UK with the Content and Language Integration Project (CLIP) hosted by CILT. This three year pilot study, led by CILT and the University of Nottingham, ran in eight project schools selected on the basis of set criteria at both primary and secondary level from 2002.

Methodology

A classroom based action research approach was adopted for this project. Picciano (2004) defines action research projects as school-based studies that seek to improve performance and solve problems. Indeed, the aim of an action research project is to bring about practical improvements and innovations, implement a change or develop social practice. Burns (2005: 58) defines action research as a response to a perceived problem or an identified "gap" related to, for example, teaching, learning and the curriculum. In this case there was a desire to improve an aspect of teacher education by including innovative practice in CLIL and disseminating this to a broad range of schools.

The project

The aim of the project was to develop and enhance CLIL practice in schools by designing training input for MFL teacher trainees during their one year PGCE course. Initially the training input in 2005-06 was to raise awareness of CLIL practice by providing information and examples of good practice from Tile Hill Wood School and Language College. In the subsequent year this training input led to an assessed subject completion task whereby trainees had to plan, teach and evaluate two CLIL lessons during their final teaching placement. In 2007-08 this training input was extended with a view to staging a CLIL showcase event at the end of the year. Consequently trainees received an initial in-service training programme on the CLIL approach, a more detailed session on how to plan CLIL lessons, as well as a planning surgery before they embarked on the final planning and teaching of CLIL lessons during the final placement.

Experience of CLIL at Tile Hill Wood School and Language College

The training input was provided by Tile Hill Wood School and Language College who have developed a national reputation for their innovative work in CLIL teaching in PSHE (Personal, Social and Health Education), Geography, Science, Maths and Music in French in Year 7 (age 11-12). The teachers' experience of CLIL was very positive: they found that the enriched content gives language learning a purpose, it is challenging and discursive, and encourages thinking skills, opinion giving and justification. Teachers enjoyed working collaboratively, planning learning objectives thoroughly and developing resources. In terms of attainment pupils achieve a higher than average level across the skills throughout year 7 in French. Furthermore, in the subjects delivered through CLIL pupils' achievement is in line with their expected target at the end of Year 7. Pupils' attainment is in some cases higher than in the other groups taught through English. Pupils with Special Educational Needs are particularly successful. Furthermore the CLIL approach has an impact on attainment of transferable skills: independent learning, risk taking, problem solving, listening skills, and thinking skills.

Results of the project

The lesson plan pro forma was adapted for CLIL lessons to ensure that the trainees focused on the content rather than language as in discrete language lessons. The outcome of these lessons demonstrated a wide variety of approaches. Trainees had a free choice of the year group to teach and the topic. In fact, the trainees taught every year group possible from a low ability Year 7 (age 11-12) to Year 13 (age 17-18). Lesson content included Food Technology, History, Geography, Maths, PE, PSHE (Personal, Social and Health Education), Citizenship, Science and Philosophy. Trainees were complimented on their preparation:

> 'This was breathtaking! Amazing Power Points, activities and work sheets. Everything was very thorough and prepared with the other subject well in mind'
> [MFL Subject tutor, Warwick].

Trainees were asked to evaluate their lessons and the following findings are based on these. The impact of CLIL lessons on learners was clearly positive. Trainees reported, for example, the excitement leading up to the lesson and the fact that learners showed a genuine interest and desire to learn. They commented on learners' realisation that French could *actually* be useful:

> 'I managed to understand what to do even though it was in French!' (Pupil, age 13)
> 'Cooking was really fun!' (Pupil, age 12)
> 'The lesson was different and it was interesting to learn about history.' (Pupil, age 14)
> 'The Geography lessons were ok and I learnt quite a lot.' (Pupil, age 12)

Trainees also considered the impact of CLIL lessons on their teaching. Teaching content through language, in their view, led to more varied activity ideas and a wider scope for learning than in normal language lessons. They realized that in order to help learners to access the content, they needed to focus on how to communicate a message and it was therefore necessary to simplify the language by using cognates, vocabulary already familiar to pupils, use of mime, actions and visuals to support explanations. The fact that learners managed to understand quite complex language in context gave them renewed confidence in their learners' ability.

However, trainees also recognized various challenges associated with planning CLIL lessons. Firstly, it was more time consuming to plan than a normal lesson. They needed to start from the basics and to make time to meet with colleagues from other departments.

> 'It requires an enormous amount of preparation: careful analysis of the language used to explain the content to pupils, research of the subject (if not known), inclusion of a variety of activities and catering for different learners' styles.'
> (Trainee teacher)

There was an awareness of the challenge of maintaining good pace without leaving anyone behind. They also encountered difficulties with some learners who had some initial misgivings: 'What's the point?' or who still showed some resistance to the foreign language:

> 'The students didn't feel like they'd learnt much, but they had understood more than they thought: the problem was more a mental block about the language.'
> (Trainee teacher)

A further challenge was associated with content knowledge and the need to possess secure content knowledge when teaching. This generally required finding time to meet and work with a subject colleague who needed to be willing and enthusiastic.

In spite of the challenges encountered by trainees their evaluations overall remained positive. They particularly appreciated pupils' involvement and the fact that pupils were responsible for their own research. The CLIL approach engendered greater interest than in normal language lessons:

> 'The pupils were a lot more interested than in some other lessons and really seemed to enjoy the more language based aspect of their Geography through French class.'
> (Trainee teacher)

> 'I couldn't believe that all pupils, even those that are normally not interested at all, worked really well. I was worried when two of these boys wanted to work together on the poster as I thought they would not do anything, but surprisingly they designed a very good resource'.
> (Trainee teacher)

Trainees worked hard in their preparation to design activities to make the learning interesting, relevant and interactive. They were encouraged by the level of thinking skills required and the learners' ability to operate with demanding content through a limited range of language:

> 'It was particularly interesting to understand the level of thinking and writing skills required in different subjects.'

> 'Although the pupils were only level 2/3 in the Target Language, they were at least level 4 in the other subject and could still use their limited language to learn new things.'
> (Trainee teachers)

Trainees taught the CLIL lessons in a range of secondary schools in the region and therefore had a wider impact in disseminating the CLIL approach. Trainees reported an interest from all teachers who were willing to embrace new ideas and be involved in collaborative working.

> 'Once up and running it shows potential to increase children's development exponentially'.
> (Teacher)

In one school, the staff was so impressed with the CLIL lessons that the trainee was asked to present the CLIL approach to the whole department and indeed other subject departments were interested. She also wrote an article for the school magazine about the experience to be sent to the homes of all pupils and prospective pupils of the school. The trainees' experience was summed up by one trainee thus:

> 'I hope the positivity and enjoyment that we all got out of these sessions may be understood by the lesson plans and evaluations as they were a fantastic experience for all concerned. The Geography Teacher, Head of Department and Director of Studies were present and the lessons were video recorded.'

The culmination of the project was an Association for Learning showcase event to disseminate the CLIL approach and to exemplify it through the materials and experiences of the teacher trainees. Almost fifty teachers from the local region attended this event which included an introduction by the university tutor and the language college assistant head followed by presentations from five trainees who showed examples of their teaching materials and evaluated their experiences critically.

Following the success of this project, the plan is to repeat this action research for secondary trainees in 2008-09. Primary PGCE trainees at the University of Warwick will receive language and culture up-skilling as part of their PGCE programme as they will be required to teach or support language learning to comply with the government's vision that all primary children in England are to learn a language from age 7 through to 11 by 2010. This method of introducing the CLIL approach or integrated language learning can readily be replicated for the primary phase and further research will monitor these developments.

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Tateo: A School- and Action Research-Based Continuous Professional Development Model for Experienced/Senior Secondary Teachers New to CLIL

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Abstract/Summary

Strategies for helping experienced/senior teachers develop professional competences and skills to start teaching in CLIL require further research. Experienced teachers often cannot return to training colleges, where 1- or 2-year programmes cater for younger/non-qualified teachers. Yet, they often request specific support. This paper aims to contribute to the debate about professional development for secondary teachers new to CLIL by illustrating a continuous professional development (CPD) model for experienced/senior teachers teaching the 11-17 age group. The model has been applied in Trentino, an autonomous province in Italy. In Italy: (i) secondary school teachers are qualified to teach either a foreign language (FL) or a "content" subject; (ii) most subject teachers still struggle with FL competence and would not be able to teach in a FL; (iii) FL teachers often take over in CLIL, creating covert conflict or open resentment in subject colleagues. In this context, a CLIL model was developed and applied (Lucietto, 2008a) which involved teaching teams (*T-Teams)* comprising of a FL teacher, a subject teacher and an external consultant working together with a dual aim: (i) planning and implementing quality CLIL modules; (ii) establishing effective professional dialogue (TAlking To Each Other: TATEO). This chapter highlights the principles and constitutive elements of the CPD model, an *incremental framework* flexible enough to respond to local differences and needs. It also shows a *planning grid* that was offered as a planning tool. Because of the dual nature of CLIL, planning and running CLIL modules can be inherently complex. Therefore, this TATEO model could be transferable both to countries where similar constraints exist, as well as to countries where the teaching practice of "content" teachers in CLIL could benefit from professional dialogue with FL colleagues in order to increase awareness of effective CLIL methodology.

Keywords: CLIL teacher training; CLIL professional development; CLIL teacher education; CLIL action research; CLIL reflective practice; CLIL support

1. Brief review of CLIL TT/TD issues

If CLIL is to achieve all that politicians and scholars alike expect of it, i.e. enabling learners to develop high competence in two European languages other than their own (Maljers and Marsh, 1999; Marsh, 2002; European Commission, 1995; 2003; 2007), many researchers see effective CLIL teacher training (TT) or teacher development (TD) as a priority issue. The difference between CLIL pre-service education for future/prospective teachers and in-service teacher development for experienced teachers new to CLIL, however, is not always easy to distinguish in the literature. The same difficulty arises in determining who is meant by the "CLIL teacher" - a subject teacher? A FL teacher? A team of both? A "new" teacher with dual education?

The views of some authors vis-à-vis CLIL TT/TD are presented in the following paragraphs. Far from being exhaustive, the review casts at least some light on the issue as it has been and is currently being debated in Europe.

One of the aims of the CEILINK Think-Tank Symposium (Strasbourg, 1998) was to indicate the priorities for the new millennium. TT and TD were recurring themes, mentioned by many experts. They stressed that CLIL be incorporated into teacher education (TEd) in several formats, e.g., a session, a seminar, a one-week course, a year-long course and that CLIL would benefit from a Master's course (Perez Vidal, 1999); that TT/TD should adequately prepare teachers for a deep understanding of the principles and practice of bilingual education (Baetens Beardsmore,1999); that universities and TT institutions should develop pre-and in-service programmes for future CLIL teachers, balancing scientifically grounded research and expertise with practical concerns, and that graduates should be given specific certificates as a basis for job selection (Wode and Burmeister, 1999). Only Wolff (1999) underlined that the main issue in CLIL was that the debate

still seemed to be restricted to language teachers, with subject professionals being effectively excluded. On the contrary, he advocated the full integration of subject teachers in CLIL. In the discussion on whether the future CLIL teacher should be a subject teacher trained in a foreign language or a language teacher trained in one or two subjects, he reported that the latter view seemed to prevail among the participants. This obviously cast a new light on who CLIL TEd should address and how it should be organised.

More recently, it seems as if the idea of collaborative work among teachers, often - but not necessarily - from different professional backgrounds, has become more prominent in CLIL discourse. Again, this raises questions about the nature of TT/TD best suited for teachers currently working in the profession. In the Italian context, Serragiotto (2003) considers collaborative work between FL and subject teachers as one option, where the role of the FL colleague is mainly to ensure the conditions for learning through comprehensible input. He emphasizes that this approach must be organised in strict synergy by teachers and requires frequent meetings to plan, choose appropriate methodology, define teachers' respective roles, reflect on classroom findings, and find suitable solutions to problems. However, he does not give guidelines as to how this process can be initiated or managed: when mentioning teacher training, he seems to advocate programmes where language teachers are supported in their quest for competence in "content", whilst content teachers get linguistic and methodological support.

In the Helsinki CLIL 2006 post-conference publication, Mehisto (2007: 67, 72) mentions the importance of teamwork, and of training non-CLIL, as well as CLIL teachers. He emphasizes that "the road from theory to practice is long", and that "CLIL teachers will need support in applying in the classroom what they have been taught during in-service training". Chopey-Pacquet and Amory-Bya (2007) report in detail on a system of interacting top-down and bottom-up strategies for piloting and supporting in the long-term CLIL development in catholic secondary education in Belgium. Since 2004, certain schools wishing to start CLIL have been required to complete a project proposal following a planning tool based on Coyle's (1999) "four Cs" and Baetens Beardsmore's (2003) "macro-logical variables". Among others, two measures are interesting for the theme of this paper. The CLIL-EMILE Piloting Committee mentions the following measures: meeting and supporting schools' CLIL workgroups, question/answer sessions with school staff during in-service/ continuous professional development days, and participating in information meetings for prospective parents/pupils. The CLIL-EMILE Pedagogic Committee, on the other hand, whose mission is "to connect the principled planning framework to the practitioners" (Chopey-Paquet and Amory-Bya, 2007: 85), among other actions has (i) provided in-service training sessions in CLIL fundamentals and methodologies for mixed groups of both content and language teachers who are often pioneering CLIL in their schools; and (ii) organised co-constructive workgroups of pedagogical advisors and CLIL teachers for materials development within a framework that respects existing curricula. In her concluding remarks, Langé (2007a: 353) reports on how conference participants "focused on the need to lay down foundations for CLIL teacher education and training in classroom-based praxis".

2. Context and background

2.1 CLIL in Trentino

In Trentino secondary mainstream education, CLIL started to gain a foothold when Italy devolved responsibility for school management to the schools themselves in 2000-01 (*DPR 275/99; DPGP 1999 n. 13-12/Leg*). Typically, CLIL consists of short modules (15-20 hours) organised and taught by FL teachers working alone, quite often during their own FL lessons (Ricci Garotti, 2004, Zanoni e Schir, 2006). Since CLIL is depicted as one way of promoting plurilingualism in the EU, it is still perceived by the general public and FL teachers alike as pertaining to FL teaching. That is why FL teachers almost invariably start CLIL and are not always ready to open up to "content" colleagues or to consider their points of view and contributions as crucial to successful CLIL. In spite of only being qualified to teach FLs, many teachers choose to offer short CLIL modules delving into "content" topics they might touch upon in their own language classes, e.g., food and food education (presenting it as "Science"), colours (as "Art Education"), British/American history (as "History"), geography of English-speaking countries (as "Geography") without involving their subject colleagues. As a result, subject teachers are on the one hand increasingly more resentful, as they see FL colleagues invading their "professional territory" without feeling entitled to intervene, and end up complaining in the staffroom as they consider their status and posts in jeopardy. On the other, even when they are convinced they should be involved, they do not often dare to step forward, as they usually have insufficient FL competence – or feel they do, convinced as most are that CLIL teaching means giving lectures in a foreign language, which they often lack the confidence to do.

2.2. CLIL TT/TD in Trentino, 2000-2007

Langé (2007b) briefly outlines some teacher training (TT) opportunities for experienced teachers across Northern Italy who wanted to start CLIL. She lists special regional projects: *ALI-CLIL* (Lombardy, since 2001); *Apprendo in Lingua 2*, (Veneto, 2002-2004); *Lingua, Cultura e Scienze in lingua straniera* (Piedmont, 2001-2004); *Tutor Europeo CLIL* (Emilia Romagna, since 2003); *RETE CLIC Udine* (a provincial school network in Friuli-Venezia Giulia, since 2001). With the noticeable exception of *Apprendo in Lingua 2*, most activities addressed primary teachers (who are qualified to teach any subject in the curriculum) or secondary FLs teachers, and were organised centrally. *ALI-CLIL* also comprised blended training.

The Trentino local education authority (LEA), however, did not organise any in-service CLIL courses/programmes for teachers between 2000 and 2005, leaving newly-autonomous schools to take full responsibility for training. Only in 2005-06 did they organise a traditional-type open-enrolment course, repeated almost unchanged in 2006-07 and 2007-08, which aimed to inform teachers through plenary sessions with CLIL "experts" and experienced teachers. In spite of being advertised as being for FL teachers, the course was open to subject teachers as well. In this context of limited choice, the Provincial TT Institute (IPRASE) launched a politically-commissioned TT programme for FLs teachers in 2004 (*Alis, Apprendimento delle Lingue Straniere*). Immediately, some schools asked for CLIL support. Rather than organising an open-enrolment, traditional in-service training course, IPRASE negotiated with schools a model that was more financially demanding for the Institute, but potentially more effective, i.e. free continuous professional development (CPD) CLIL consultancy in individual schools.

3. The CPD consultancy model

The model was applied in three schools - two *istituti comprensivi* (6-14) and a vocational school (14-17) - from 2004 to 2006, with the aim of developing CLIL competences in teachers new to CLIL (Lucietto, 2008b). Amongst its many innovative elements, IPRASE was offering for the first time free-of-charge individual consultancy which catered for different school needs; secondly, IPRASE insisted that the consultant would work on *real* CLIL projects, applying action-research principles; thirdly, that she would work with *T-Teams* of FL and subject teachers together, thus respecting both the dual nature of CLIL and the legal constraints of existing legislation regarding teacher qualifications and recruitment. Those requests were a novelty both for subject teachers, who had been used to being cut off from CLIL, and for FL teachers, who had long taken for granted that they could organise and run CLIL on their own.

The model was incremental and flexible, rather than imposed as a take-it-or-leave-it whole package, i.e. schools could specify their needs and negotiate with IPRASE before signing protocols. In the first school the consultant became a full *T-Team* member, involved in all CLIL phases, including materials production, classroom observation, feedback, and module evaluation; in the second she was involved at all stages except for classroom observation; in the third, a school very distant from Trento**,** her role was more of a supervisor than of a full *T-Team* member. Evaluations showed that this scheme was very popular in schools, where teachers felt respected and supported in ways they could appreciate, respond to, work with and learn from.

3.1. Consultancy stages

3.1.1. CLIL lead-in time

The first visit to a school would typically take place in early spring, which left time for three-four meetings before the summer holidays to (i) illustrate CLIL principles and methodology, its main practical issues and the reasons for *T-Teams*; (ii) to discuss organisational issues, i.e. what *T-Teams* were possible and which classes and subjects would be involved the following year. In two of the three schools, where the head teacher participated for at least part of the time, institutional support was much greater, as evidenced by teachers obtaining specific support for starting CLIL (e.g., time off for planning and materials development, paid extra time for CLIL-related activities). The identified *T-Teams* would then spend the summer making choices about which portion/s of the subject curriculum they would do in CLIL and, given the shortage of off-the-shelf CLIL materials, creating a materials bank from different sources (native speaker textbooks, the internet, authentic materials, Italian textbooks containing CLIL sections). Sometimes decisions were made that had to be reassessed the following autumn, if non-permanent teachers were moved elsewhere. Staff continuity proved in fact to be an issue in schools far away from the capital city, where teacher turnover is great.

3.1.2. CLIL planning

September-January (Semester 1) proved to be just adequate as planning time. *T-Teams* new to CLIL need to process a lot: they need/have to (i) establish professional dialogue (which in the Italian context is not widespread, and often seen as a threat); (ii) get accustomed to working together and compare teaching strategies pertaining to their two very different professional worlds (FL teachers usually being more accustomed to getting their students actively involved, whilst subject teachers still preferring lecturing classes); (iii) learn "the CLIL approach" (*see e.g.* Mehisto *et al*, 2008); (iv) make choices about how to subdivide the module into smaller chunks (units), and within each unit organise the learning tasks and activities; (v) decide what and how to assess. It was agreed that the subject teacher would make overall decisions about module content and objectives, as content learning should not suffer due to CLIL, whilst the FL teacher would advise on the use of task and activity formats, and anticipate the language difficulties students would encounter. Assessment would be planned together, but "content" should take precedence in the marking scheme. A CLIL unit planning grid was offered by the consultant not as a straightjacket, but as a way of helping *T-Teams* to stay both focused and productive, and keep TAlking To Each Other (TATEO) (Dahl, 2000). Table 1 represents the A3 planning grid as it stands now, modified over the years to accommodate more elements as *T-Teams* became more experienced. Typically, *T-Teams* would meet and plan at times negotiated with the head teacher, and the consultant would go in and work with them every two-three weeks. Different versions of materials and tasks would be produced and compared until everybody was happy with the results. For inexperienced *T-Teams,* planning would typically require 60-70 hours for a new 20-h module.

See Table 1

3.1.3. CLIL delivery and on-going evaluation

Modules were usually implemented between February and May (Semester 2). The first module unfolded naturally within this timeframe, and it proved so effective that it was applied in the other two schools. It has become a *de facto* routine every time the consultant works either with new *T-Team* or on new modules. *T-Teams* appreciate it, as it gives them time to relax in the summer, and enough time to plan during the school year before the module starts. The CLIL model suggested by the consultant (Lucietto, 2008a) would preferably see the subject teacher as the CLIL practitioner in class. However, as no subject teacher involved in the three schools had sufficient FL competence, the FL teacher became "the *T-Team*'s voice". Since modules were carried out during the regular content classes, the subject teacher was able to work alongside the FL teacher. Content teachers acted as classroom co-organisers, observers, and managers of meta-cognitive activities with students. This also allowed for the ongoing monitoring of student progress.

3.1.4. CLIL module evaluation

T-Teams (including the consultant) also made decisions about how to evaluate the impact of the modules, and designed questionnaires when appropriate. Pupils' evaluations were collected through group interviews (with the consultant), or end-of-course meta-cognitive sessions (with their subject teachers), and/or through questionnaires. Parents filled in an end-of-year questionnaire, and *T-Teams* and one head teacher were interviewed. Data showed that the modules were considered very successful by most stakeholders, and everybody involved with the exception of one teacher wanted CLIL to continue (Lucietto, 2008c).

3.2. Consultancy principles

3.2.1. Co-constructive CPD

The consultancy model assumed that: (i) human beings learn by co-constructing meaning with others (Vygotsky, 1962); (ii) all teachers have the right both to lifelong professional learning and to experiment with new approaches; (iii) experienced teachers also have the fundamental right to progress by building on their existing competences and skills (Richards, 1998); (iv) adults' willingness to learn is encouraged when they feel valued and respected, and when they see the relevance of what they are doing (Knowles, 1973). This brief theoretical framework was at the core of the IPRASE request to work with teams on real CLIL modules.

3.2.2. Reflective practice and action-research

To favour the process of professional development, *reflective practice* on classroom-generated data is seen as a major TEd tool (Schön, 1983; Richards and Lockhart, 1994). Data gathering and reflection are also at the core of action-research, i.e. teacher-initiated and -conducted research aimed to find and implement solutions to problems posed by (innovative) teaching practice (Hopkins, 1985; Pozzo e Zappi, 1993). That is why, in coherence with these TEd principles, IPRASE did not offer free open-enrolment courses to teachers from different schools, but responded to the specific needs of individual schools asking for support. In action-research the teacher-researcher works with colleagues from the same school. Sometimes, the group may include an outside researcher who, rather than being a "neutral expert" who tells the others what to do, is a peer among peers who listens to the group's needs and works with them to find suitable solutions That is why the consultant worked with *T-Teams* feeling as part of the team and being accepted as such, and yet standing back, observing and noticing the process, and giving professional advice when appropriate.

3.2.3. Talking to each other (TATEO)

Respect for different positions and active collaborative search for "new ways of doing" were at the core of the consultant's pragmatic communication (Watzlawick *et al*., 1967). To be able to do collaborative work, teachers need to Talk to Each Other (TATEO), but this does not spontaneously arise when they come from different backgrounds of professional expertise. They fall very easily into a default model of "blame culture", to the detriment of effective communication (Gordon, 1974). Thus, professional dialogue needs to be actively promoted, facilitated, nurtured and learnt. Here, the consultant acted as a facilitator and enabler, whilst creating the framework for effective communication by setting some basic behavioural rules.

3.3. CPD/consultancy evaluation

From formal end-of-year interviews, as well as from written documents and more informal data gathering, the CPD consultancy model has proven to be well accepted by *T-Teams*, as they found it responded well to their needs and contributed to their professional growth. In the words of one of the *T-Teams* "every time we had a planning meeting by ourselves or with the consultant, it was like being on a professional development course" (Lucietto, 2008c: 139).

4. Ways forward

In the school year 2008-2009, the CPD model is being applied in a 10-school network. With slight changes, it will also underpin a workshop-type course organised by the LEA for *T-Teams* from the whole province. It is hoped that the model, which has worked well when dealing with one *T-Team* at a time, will continue to be fruitful under changed conditions.

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SCHOOL ……..

SUBJECT ……..…… **School-year** ……..……..…….

CLIL MODULE ……... **CLASS** ……..……

UNIT within Module…….…….. ***T-Team*** ……..……

"content "objectives		"language" objectives	whole-curriculum objectives (when appropriate)	tasks (number, brief description, times and phases)		thinking skills	language for learning	resources (materials)	"content" expected outcomes		"language" exp. outc.	whole-curr. expected outcomes (when appropriate)	task check / assessment activities
knowing	"can do"	"can do"		what the T does	what the SS do				knowing	"can do"	"can do"		

Table 1 - CLIL Unit planning grid

return to text

Relevance of CLIL in Developing Pedagogies for Minority Language Teaching

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Abstract

In recent years there have been renewed efforts in the UK and elsewhere to identify appropriate pedagogical approaches for the teaching of minority/community/heritage languages (as distinct from both foreign and regional languages). In this chapter it is argued that CLIL may have much to contribute to the development of such pedagogies and that there is a need for research to explore models appropriate for the different contexts in which these languages are taught.

Drawing on the experience of developing an initial teacher training course for Arabic, Mandarin, Panjabi and Urdu at Goldsmiths, University of London, examples of three cross-curricular projects involving bilingual learners are presented and their impact considered in relation to language, culture and broader identity issues.

Key words: minority / community / heritage language education; plurilingualism; inclusion; pedagogy; bilingualism; Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

> *Content-based instruction is particularly appropriate for heritage students, who have a background in the target language and culture and a need to develop knowledge of register, stylistics, and high-level vocabulary.*
>
> (UCLA, 2003)

In this chapter I would like to draw attention to the relevance of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)* approaches for the development of appropriate pedagogies in teaching minority/community/heritage languages. In a context in which intercultural competence and plurilingualism have come to be seen as key goals, there has been renewed interest in minority languages in the UK and in other European countries in recent years reflected both in policy developments and research (Tosi and Leung, 1999; The Nuffield Foundation, 2000; DfES 2002 and 2007; Council of Europe, 2007; McPake, Tinsley et al., 2007; Helot and A-M. de Mejia, 2008; Kenner and Hickey, 2008). Given recent interpretations of communicative language teaching as well as insights gained from bilingual education programmes, there is now the possibility of a more integrated and inclusive approach to second/foreign language teaching, an approach to which CLIL, I shall argue, holds the key. Moreover, the development of such an approach offers the chance to open up a dialogue across the European Union on commonalities in methodology between people involved with different types of language and linguistic environments.

A major concern within the area of minority language teaching has been the question of pedagogy and how best to address the needs of a highly diverse group of learners for whom neither a 'foreign language' approach nor a 'mother tongue' approach is appropriate (Anderson, 2008a). As a result of a language policy in England which is monolingual in its assumptions and which provides minimal opportunities for bilingual education, English tends to become the dominant language for minority students. Moreover, the shift towards English typically increases across the generations. Another important factor is that learners from minority backgrounds are growing up in a social and cultural context which is different from that in the country of origin. They are building an identity which is not uniformly one thing or another, but is constructed in an in-between space reflecting the totality of their experience. The implications of these factors in terms of pedagogy are crucial and point to the need for an approach which builds upon the bilingual and bicultural background of learners in ways which are both challenging and personally empowering (Kenner et al., 2008; Datta, 2007; Creese et al., 2008)

What then, more specifically, is the experience that bilingual learners bring? In what way has their language development occurred? Most fundamentally, it has grown and developed through a need to interact and communicate with close family members and friends. It has been a natural and predominantly unconscious process with a focus on message. It has been highly contextualised, related to real life experience within a particular social and cultural setting. In terms of Cummins' distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1984), the orientation has been more towards the former than the latter. As with the EAL learner who has achieved some degree of conversational fluency, the need is to develop the ability to use language for a wider range of cognitive functions across the spectrum of spoken and written genres. Courses in which medium is prioritised over message or where the emphasis is on performing trivial everyday transactions are not appropriate for learners from bilingual backgrounds and risk undermining confidence and demotivating learners.

This is why CLIL approaches are of such relevance for the teaching of minority languages and why, on the initial teacher education course in Arabic, Mandarin, Panjabi and Urdu at Goldsmiths, University of London (Anderson, 2008b), we discuss the potential of CLIL and consider different models, making links to cross-curricular strategies for literacy development and for supporting pupils with EAL (Brown and Brown, 1996 and 1998; Masih, 1999; Cummins, 2001; Grenfell, 2002; Gibbons, 2002). Unfortunately, opportunities to give student teachers direct experience of more developed forms of CLIL whilst on school placements have hitherto been limited. However, some students have chosen to carry out investigations based on cross-curricular projects with an intercultural or citizenship focus. We will now look briefly at two of these projects followed by a third example involving collaboration between the author and teachers in an east London secondary school.

The Anti-Racist Show

The first project, which was devised by two student teachers in a Panjabi complementary school, involved a mixed age group of 11-16 year olds creating and performing their own drama sketch. The theme emerged out of a class discussion about racism and consideration of why Asian pupils tend to associate and make friends with classmates of the same or similar ethnic backgrounds. It was suggested that a possible factor in this might be the home environment and subtle pressure exercised by parents to encourage children to mix with others of the same ethnic background within the community. The pupils drew on their own experiences of racism as well as those of friends and family and commented on discussions they had had with parents on the matter.

This led on to the idea of creating and then performing a drama sketch based on a friendship between two girls, one of Sikh and another of Chinese background and the conflict with their mothers who disapprove of the friendship. The format of a talk show was suggested by the pupils with a host facilitating exchanges, first between parents, then between children and finally between parents and children. A draft script was produced in Panjabi and English versions and then refined through the rehearsal process.

Extract from 'The anti-racist show'

Miss J.K. (Host):	… what's the problem here?
Manjit:	Oh, it's not a problem for us, it's our parents. Both our families don't like us being friends and I know that is because Fong Lee is not of the same race as us. My parents only want me to mix with other Indian people.
Miss J.K.:	OK, thanks Manjit. Now Fong Lee, why does your mother not want you to be friends with Manjit?
Fong-Lee:	She won't admit that it is because Manjit is Indian, but I know it is. I have heard her saying things about Manjit's family to my dad. He calls them names. (She looks at Manjit) I'm sorry, Manjit.

The sketch, which ended with a song performed by the whole group, was presented at the school's annual celebration, an event attended by parents and wider family as well as by friends and community members. Although based upon a simple idea, the project led to positive outcomes on various levels. Firstly, it enabled pupils to explore a serious citizenship issue to which they could all relate at the same time as developing language skills in Panjabi (Brownlie, 2001; Brown and Brown, 2003). Secondly, use of drama in the project provided a safe context with scope for creativity, self-expression and negotiation of identity (Cummins, 2006: 'identity texts'). Thirdly, it allowed pupils with different levels of competence in the language to contribute and develop valuable skills - linguistic, social and intercultural. Fourthly, pupils found it engaging and fun.

A methodological point worth noting is that, although the final performance was in Panjabi, during the preparatory and rehearsal stages of the project, switching between Panjabi and English was frequent. Whilst teachers wished to encourage communication in the target language, it was recognised that some use of pupils' dominant language (English) to support in the learning was justified and could also serve to promote broader literacy development. The fact that code switching and code mixing is a natural feature of communication between bilinguals was another factor in adopting this more flexible approach (Williams, 1996; Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales, 2003; Baker, 2004; Bradbury and Jones, 2006; Creese et al., 2008; Cummins, 2008; Kenner et al., 2008).

The Butterfly Lovers and the Willow Pattern

The second project which was carried out by a student teacher of Mandarin working with a pre General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) group in a Chinese complementary school focussed on the traditional Chinese tale of 'The Butterfly Lovers' set in ancient China. Interestingly, the tale became known in England during the last half of the eighteenth century through the trade of blue-and-white porcelain from China. Working from an original Chinese motif, the famous English potter, Josiah Spode, created the willow pattern based upon scenes from 'The Butterfly Lovers' (The Willow Story, 2008). The pattern has remained popular in Britain to the present day.

Work on the tale was based on Cummins' (2001) framework for academic language learning, which sees teacher-student interactions as crucial in maximising both cognitive engagement and identity investment, the latter referring to positive affirmation of students' cultural, linguistic and personal identities. Central to the model of the teaching-learning process Cummins presents is an initial focus on meaning (comprehensible input, critical literacy), moving on to a focus on form (awareness and critical analysis of language forms and uses) and leading finally to a focus on use (i.e. a creative outcome to which the learner brings new and personal perspectives).

Focus on meaning (scaffolding to provide context and to make input comprehensible)

- Oral introduction to the story drawing on images (in the form of a set of authentic Chinese stamps) capturing key moments. Pupils listen and, with the visual support provided, work out gist of story.
- Further contextualisation provided by the teacher by asking students if they are familiar with the story of Romeo and Juliet (with which The Butterfly Lovers is often compared), i.e. linking existing knowledge with new knowledge.
- As the teacher repeats the story, students working in groups are asked to place the stamps in the correct sequence.
- In order to develop understanding, teacher puts basic questions about the story (when, where, what happened / who did what and why?)

Focus on form

- Text sequencing. Students presented with story in written form, cut up into blocks of text. Working in pairs/groups they have to work out the correct order of the text.
- Guessing the meaning of selected new words from context, followed by teacher explanation and note-taking.
- Text marking. Underlining link words and verbs, followed by matching verbs to pictures.

Focus on use

- Retelling story (in modern version)
- Creating a poster to illustrate story
- Following introduction from teacher, researching and presenting 'The Willow Story'

Reflecting on the project, the teacher concluded that the theme chosen and the pedagogical approach taken to it, i.e. interactive, process oriented, personalised and supported through contextualisation and a range of scaffolding strategies (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976; McGuinness,1999; Lantolf, 2000; Cummins, 2001; Gibbons, 2002) had enabled students to engage with material which was both more stimulating and more cognitively challenging, thereby supporting learner's progression from BICS to CALP. She also stressed how the project had developed students' intercultural skills and understanding as well promoting independence and creativity. For her class of 13-15 year olds she felt that this was precisely the kind of work they needed to prepare them for the challenges of more advanced study (Advanced Subsidiary and Advanced level General Certificate of Education courses) Finally, she noted the motivating effect of the project, citing one student's comment that 'It is more interesting. We are doing things more actively and the text we are learning is more interesting than the textbook. The textbook is boring'.

Regeneration: A multilingual web-publishing project

The third project, involving two Year 9 classes (13-14 year olds) studying Urdu and Bengali, had as its aim the creation of sets of web pages on the school website focussing on the theme of regeneration. It was planned and implemented collaboratively between the class teachers, the ICT coordinator and myself. Students' levels of proficiency in Urdu/Bengali varied widely within the classes and this was particularly the case with regard to literacy. All students had acquired basic ICT skills and been introduced to word processing in Urdu and Bengali during the year of the project. Some students had also learnt about web page design within their ICT lessons.

The project took place over one term and was timed to tie in with the school's Year 9 Arts Week. The theme chosen for the week was 'regeneration' and students were expected to select topics related to this theme. The most popular of these were 'fashion', 'films' and 'celebrations' with students contrasting 'old' and 'new' and reflecting Eastern and Western influences and perspectives.

An important motive behind the interest shown by the Urdu and Bengali teachers in this project was the desire to foster greater student independence. Thus whole class teacher input was kept to a minimum and students, working predominantly in self-selected friendship groups, were given a large amount of choice in determining content, structure and style of their web pages.

The framework for carrying out the project, i.e. planning ⇨ researching ⇨ drafting/redrafting of text ⇨ creation of web pages, is consistent with a 'process writing' approach, i.e. one which takes place within a supportive framework in which ideas are generated through discussion and research (oral interaction, reading for information, note-taking) and where the creation and structuring of text is 'scaffolded' and allowed to develop in stages. This kind of 'shared writing' or 'writers' workshop' approach enables ICT to become fully integrated within the process of teaching and learning rather than being seen as a 'one off' activity (See Table 1 below)

	Stage in project	***ICT contribution***
A	Planning	• World Wide Web audience and implications for register and genre • Parameters for structure (tree diagram)
B	Researching	• Access to up-to-date information on the Web from sources worldwide
		• Spreadsheet software for recording and analysis of survey information
C	Drafting/Redrafting	• Word processing to facilitate drafting/redrafting of work and to enhance presentation • Non-linear writing/reading framework (hypertext option)
D	Creating web pages	• Multimedia options for conveying information and ideas • Desktop publishing software (+ digital camera and scanner) as creative tool, supporting individual expression, maximising visual impact, encouraging collaboration

Table 1 Contribution of ICT at four stages within the project

It was striking how positive students' response was from the outset to the notion of publishing on the web and how attuned they were to the multimodal possibilities of the medium. Beyond any novelty effect there was a real sense of being involved in something important and exciting. It would mean that their work could be viewed not only by teachers, family, friends in their local community, but across the UK and indeed even in Pakistan and Bangladesh.

Following a whole class brainstorming activity when teachers assisted students in developing initial ideas and fed in some key language, students set about their planning in groups. They were encouraged to think not just about aims and content, but also about how they were going to make their work relevant and interesting for people who would be visiting the website. Their bilingual discussions reflected the seriousness with which they regarded both what they had to say about their topics and who their potential audience might be. In particular they clearly valued the way the project allowed them to assert aspects of their culture and identity, including both Asian and Western influences.

As part of their planning related to awareness of audience, groups were also encouraged to think about aspects of register and style. They were aware that a formal essay writing approach would not be appropriate if they wanted to interest young people. It had to be more like a magazine - chatty, informal with a strong visual element. They wished to use both Urdu/Bengali and English on their pages. They would introduce themselves and write something about their school. There would be short descriptive texts supported by images. There would be reports of surveys carried out contrasting views across older and younger generations. There would be interviews. There would be quizzes and poetry.

A major issue for teachers of community languages in the UK has long been the lack of appropriate resources. Thus an important area of investigation within the project was to examine the potential of the web as a source of up-to-date authentic material in Urdu and Bengali. In combination with other sources (magazines, newspapers, books) students took naturally to use of the web for researching their topics. One group exploring fashion, for example, was inspired by 'The Art of Mehndi' website to make Mehndi design a special focus of their work. The use of mehndi has spread beyond Indian and Arab cultures and has become increasingly popular in the West. The site provides historical information, but is supported by striking images. It is also very personal and includes family photographs as well as a guest book for visitors, to which many young people from countries around the world contribute. Understandably, the site was one to which the mainly British Asian girls involved in the project could strongly relate.

With regard to drafting and redrafting of text in Urdu and Bengali, in spite of various technical problems, the project revealed a range of ways in which word processing supported writing. This applied both to lower order, form focussed mechanical skills (text editing) and to higher order meaning focussed, compositional skills (text revision). A significant factor for all learners was the ease of correction when using a word processor and the greater sense of confidence this engendered. For the higher attainers the project confirmed findings from other studies that use of the word processor encouraged students both to write more and to take more risks.

In the final stage of designing and linking web pages, it was striking how well students worked together, drawing on each other's interests and expertise in relation to content, language and images and use of technology. Communication within the web environment is far more than words, even words generated on the word processor. It involves the integration of the verbal with other modalities – visual and audio most prominently - within a dynamic and interactive electronic environment. It requires an understanding of how messages are constructed within each medium – the underlying signs and codes - but also how they stand in relation to each other, i.e. what effect is achieved when they are juxtaposed or combined. There are structural, technological and aesthetic factors to be taken account of here as well as broader social and cultural considerations. Rather than being daunted by these challenges, students relished the opportunity to exploit the possibilities offered by the multimedia environment for personal expression and creativity.

Too often bilingual pupils see themselves pigeon-holed into one cultural frame or another, as though the boundaries were fixed and unchanging. Amongst other things this denies the intercultural literacy, the ability to 'navigate difference' and to see things from different viewpoints that are benefits arising from a bilingual, bicultural upbringing. What comes across powerfully in the web pages created by students in this project is precisely the merging and validation of different cultural and linguistic realities and the assertion of identities which draw upon and reshape these various influences.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to argue the relevance of CLIL in developing pedagogies for minority language teaching and the need for CLIL research to give more attention to this area. CLIL currently encompasses a wide range of models. Given the diverse aims, learners and contexts for learning involved in the teaching of minority languages, this flexibility is in itself of major significance. It allows account to be taken of learners' bilingual backgrounds as well as of the broader political, social and cultural context. It raises the purpose of language learning beyond low-level tourist transactions towards a genuine engagement with culture and provides a basis for enhanced literacy development. Drawing on well-established strategies for promoting 'language across the curriculum' and in particular for enabling students with limited language to access the curriculum, it enables learners both to achieve academically and to develop positive plurilingual identities (Wray and Lewis, 1997; Cummins, 2001; Gibbons, 2002). In terms of Coyle's 4Cs framework (Coyle, 2007: 51), it 'puts culture at the core and intercultural understanding pushes the boundaries towards alternative agendas such as transformative pedagogies, global citizenship, student voice and 'identity investment' (Cummins, 2004)'. Thus, it has the potential to break down barriers between the teaching of foreign and minority languages, and to contribute to the development of an integrated and genuinely inclusive languages curriculum.

Note:

* The development of programmes involving the teaching of subject content through a second or third language has taken many forms influenced in part by particular social and political contexts. The term Content based instruction (CBI) is commonly used in the USA and Canada in the context of their bilingual and immersion programmes (ref. quote above from UCLA) whilst CLIL is seen to apply to the range of programmes developed within the European context. In terms of underlying pedagogy the two have a great deal in common. Marsh (2002: 54-60) provides a full discussion of terminology and the adoption of the term CLIL within the European context.

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The Importance of Context in CLIL Implementation and Planning: The Case of Puerto Rico

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Abstract

CLIL is a curricular approach for incorporating one or more languages into a school system. It is also often part of wider policy initiatives of governments that recognize the economic benefits of a multilingual society. CLIL, and other dual language or plurilingual approaches are well-intentioned and their effectiveness backed by abundant research. However, if the sociocultural, historical and political background of the region where it is to be implemented is not taken into consideration, even the most educationally-sound plans for development of a multilingual society will fail. Such is the case in Puerto Rico, a U.S. territory located in the Caribbean, where initial culturally insensitive, efforts to impose the English language as a medium of instruction led to resistance movements that have impeded the implementation of the more enlightened attempts to incorporate dual language instruction made in recent years.

Keywords: language planning; Puerto Rico; bilingualism; context; curriculum

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The History of English in Puerto Rico

As a result of the Spanish-American War, in 1898, the islands of Guam, the Philippines and Puerto Rico became possessions of the United States of America. Almost immediately, a military government established school curricula imported from the United States in the public school systems of these three areas and made instruction in English mandatory. As was common in such takeovers, the native languages were regarded as inferior languages of lesser importance and, to a great extent, a barrier to be overcome if the islands were to progress.

From 1898 to 1949, a series of changes took place in language policies for the schools in Puerto Rico. The amount of time dedicated to English instruction and the use of English as the medium of instruction were modified several times as the different Commissioners of Education tried to ensure that Puerto Ricans learned English. These seven principle policy changes are described in detail in Osuna's *History of Education in Puerto Rico* (1949), Cebollero's *A school language policy for Puerto Rico*, (1945), Negron de Montilla's *Americanization in Puerto Rico and the public school system* (1977) and in Algren de Gutierrez's *The movement against teaching English in schools of Puerto Rico* (1987).

The first policy, established in 1898, brought about a dramatic change for the schools of Puerto Rico as English was designated the medium of instruction in all grades. This policy proved difficult to enforce because of the lack of teachers with the ability to teach in English, and, by 1900, the new Commissioner of Education, Brumbaugh, reinstated Spanish as the medium of instruction in the elementary grades. English was taught as a subject until high school where the language policy was inverted with English as the medium of instruction and Spanish taught as a subject.

However, in 1903, with Roland Faulkner as Commissioner of Education, a renewed emphasis on English resulted in the reinstatement of the original language policy. English was once again used as the medium of instruction at all levels with Spanish being taught as a subject. The Faulkner policy remained virtually unchanged until 1917, when Commissioner Paul Miller began to implement a bilingual language policy for the schools of Puerto Rico.

Under Miller, Spanish was used as the medium of instruction from first through fourth grade with English taught as a subject. Half of the fifth grade courses were taught in English and the other half in Spanish. After fifth grade, all courses were taught in English. This policy remained intact until 1934, when the Brumbaugh policy with Spanish as the medium of instruction in the elementary grades and English at the high school level was reinstated.

When Commissioner Gallardo took office in 1937, he began once again to try and implement a bilingual language policy in the schools. Spanish was used as the medium of instruction in the first and second grades, but both English and Spanish were used in grades three to eight. English continued to be the medium of instruction at the high school level. However, in 1942, Gallardo was forced once again to put into function the Brumbaugh policy.

There was a great deal of public debate and controversy surrounding the issue of English in the schools during this period, and in 1949, Mario Villarongo who previously had been forced to resign as Commissioner of Education because of his open opposition to English as a medium of instruction was put back into office by newly elected Governor Luis Muñoz Marín. Almost immediately, the language policy that established Spanish as the medium of instruction and English as a Second Language taught as a subject at all levels was implemented. This is the policy that continues today in the public schools of Puerto Rico.

The Resistance

Unlike most other territories acquired by the United States during its expansionist period, a highly educated, politically active group of professionals was already in existence on Puerto Rico at the time of occupation. There had been organized revolts against Spanish Imperialism and a wide variety of literary genre of a nationalist nature by native authors was readily available. Institutional support for national culture also existed as well as many Spanish speaking politicians taking an active role in legislation at that time (Clampitt-Dunlap, 2000).

The native intellectuals were perhaps particularly influential with the general population because of the public expression of national pride in mass media and politics. Many of these poets and novelists were also leading journalists for newspapers or active participants in the political scenario.

Many examples of such people can be found: José Mercado who under the pseudonym “Momo” wrote poems such as *La lengua castellana* (The Spanish Language), also maintained a newspaper column known as *Yanquerías* (Yankeeisms); Antonio Pérez Pierret, a lawyer and a poet, published a magazine known as *Revista de las Antillas* (Journal of the Antilles) whilst also producing poems such as *La Raza* (The Race) and *Nuestra Bandera* (Our Flag). Other poet-journalists of the time include Mariano Abril, Trinidad Padilla Sanz, and Augusto Malaret, author of *Por mi patria y por mi idioma* (For my country and for my language) in 1932.

The rationale used by these intellectuals in defense of the Spanish language was twofold. First, the Spanish language was used as a symbol or important element of national and cultural identity of the Puerto Rican. Second, and almost always coupled with the first, was the presentation of the perception of English, Americanization and United States presence in general as a threat to national identity (Clampitt-Dunlap, 2000).

The links between language and culture were being made by public figures of the time from the beginning of the 20th century, but by the late 1920’s, figures such as Fernández-Vanga became much more explicit about the issue. In 1927, for example, he wrote of Puerto Ricans losing their soul as they lose their language (Fernández-Vanga, 1931: 174) and again in 1928, he writes that the mother tongue was the only language that responded to the heart and intelligence of the Puerto Rican (Fernández-Vanga,1931).

This use of language as a symbol of Puerto Rican national identity continued throughout the history of the Island even into the 1990's. As the bill which would make Spanish the sole official language of the Island was being debated, representative López-Galarza spoke of Spanish as, "...*a reflection of our personality and our idiosyncrasy as a nation, the vehicle of our maximum expression of our spirit and our existence as Puerto Ricans...*"[translation by S. Clampitt] (López-Galarza et. al, 1990).

The repeal of this law which established Spanish as the sole official language, and the reinstatement of English as a second official language by Governor Pedro Rosselló in 1993, was criticized as being an attack on Puerto Rican nationality (García-Martínez, 1993), and fresh voices of protest rose. It was portrayed as an action against Puerto Rican identity (Ortega- Borges, 1993: 16) and as an attempt to annihilate Puerto Rican nationality (García, V., 1993: 37). This presentation of English as a threat to Puerto Rican identity has a long history on the island.

Fernández-Vanga (1931) spoke openly and explicitly about the impending destruction of Spanish as a result of the United States governance of Puerto Rico. He stated that as long as the U.S. Congress had control of Puerto Rico, they would force their language on the people eventually causing them to lose their native language. When Fernández-Vanga spoke of English in the school system, he spoke of the intentions to "rip-out" the mother tongue to replace it with English. In fact, in almost all of Fernández-Vanga's discourse on language in Puerto Rico, the United States and English were portrayed as destroyers of the Spanish language.

Beginning in the 1960's, great concern was expressed over the impact that the English language was having on the Spanish spoken in Puerto Rico. English was seen as a corrupting factor, and many articles and books were published analyzing Anglicism in the language. One of the most well known publications in this area is Germán de Granda Gutiérrez's (1968) book *Transculturación e Interferencia Lingüística en el Puerto Rico Contemporáneo* (Transculturation and Linguistic Interference in Contemporary Puerto Rico). De Granda described Spanish "suffering" from the linguistic impact of English. In more recent years, this sentiment was reiterated in a study on language in Puerto Rico commissioned by the Puerto Rican Senate. In *Informe Final sobre el Idioma en Puerto Rico*, Senator Margarita Ostolaza-Bey, president of the Commission on Education, Science and Culture proposes the creation of an Institute for Linguistic Planning with the main goal being the maintenance and protection of the Spanish language (2001: 59), thus implying that the language is threatened and needs safeguarding. In fact, a great deal of the report focuses on the negative impact, interference and impurities caused by the incorporation of English in the school system and as an official language of the Island.

This sentiment has prevailed and continually reappears in political debates about the status of the Island in its relationship with the U.S. English is continually presented as the language of the United States to the extent that Puerto Ricans are caught in what seems to be a never-ending dichotomy. Dr. C. William Schweers and Dr. Jorge Vélez from the University of Puerto Rico expressed the situation of English learning in Puerto Rico as:

> *a case of being damned if you do (you're betraying your Hispanic heritage and giving in to the forces of Americanization from the North) and damned if you don't (you are severely limiting your potential for socioeconomic mobility)...Thus, English and Spanish are metaphorically paired off as irreconcilable adversaries and Puerto Ricans are challenged to defend their heritage and vernacular* (1992: 13-14).

To accept English as part of Puerto Rican society is for many to condemn Spanish to a slow disintegration and eventual disappearance. Attempts to defend the vernacular in Puerto Rico have become an "either-or" situation where the decisions of Puerto Ricans have been reduced to either English or Spanish --- Yankee or Puerto Rican.

The Project for Developing a Bilingual Citizen

As can be seen, the history of imposed language policies has created what, borrowing from Yung, one might call a collective "linguistic" conscious where any attempts to incorporate English language in Puerto Rico, beyond the simple offering of a daily hour and a half of ESL instruction, is perceived and sold in the mass media as a threat to Puerto Rican nationality.

Thus, when a new plan, *The Project for Developing a Bilingual Citizen*, was proposed by the Department of Education in 1997, it was immediately met with resistance, and even now, over 10 years later, little progress has been made.

The Project, at first glance, seems well-aligned with the 4 C's of CLIL: Communication, Content, Cognition and Culture (Coyle, 2006). Its purpose as stated in the abstract to the document includes:

> *The Department of Education proposes to initiate a multi disciplinary integrated plan that includes several instruction alternatives conducive to create bilingual citizens. In this way, we prepare students to react to the challenges of the third millennium by helping them find their place in a society characterized by a global economy. Students will be able to develop thinking and communication skills in the Spanish and English languages, and will also develop their sensibility, with ethical-moral principles which will turn them into positive and productive human beings with high self-esteem, with respect toward their family, their culture, and people of other cultures.* (Department of Education of Puerto Rico, 1997: abstract)

However, as one reads further, the document begins to show an imbalance in its presumably bilingual approach. In the introductory section of the proposal, one is met with the subtitle: *Reform Project for the Teaching of English*, already establishing greater emphasis on the teaching of the second language. Although, further on in the same text, it goes on to say:

> *As an international language, English is an important vehicle of communication. Spanish is also an important language to learn. It is also spoken in a great number of countries. Consequently, being able to master those two languages is a commendable enterprise, with non-calculated value, and deep implications for any educational entity looking forward to achieve success. The Educational System of Puerto Rico is geared at responding to the need for the mastery of the two languages. It also accepts the responsibility to "guarantee" continuous opportunities for achievement all the way through the process of becoming a bilingual graduate. A bilingual graduate will be able to understand, speak, read, and write two languages properly: Spanish - English.*

The Project continues to emphasize English instruction over Spanish in the section *The Need for Educational Reform¸* where deficiencies in strategies, teacher preparation and results of current ESL instruction on the Island are pointed out without mention of similar difficulties with the native language instructional practices and results. In fact, no mention of the need for reform in the teaching of Spanish is found.

In the section of the document titled *Change Strategies to Help Shape the Bilingual Student in Puerto Rico, a*n emphasis on reading instruction in both languages is proposed starting in the first grade, with English and Spanish used as the languages of instruction for the Humanities. English is recommended as the language of instruction for Math classes starting in the fifth grade and science classes in the sixth if approved by the School Council (a group of parents, teachers and school administrators for each school). English immersion and "*Spanish reduction*" are proposed for tenth through twelfth grade.

Since its inception more than 10 years ago, very little progress has been made in the implementation of Project for the Development of a Bilingual Citizen. Both English and Spanish classes were extended to an hour and a half, and teachers participated in exchange programs with the U.S. (Millán-Pabón, 1997; Matías-Torres, 1999). Some English language materials were used in courses offered in the schools, a practice which was criticized and partially blamed for the increase in Anglicisms in the Spanish language by Ostalaza-Bey (2001) in her report to the Puerto Rican Senate. As it stands, the Island's children have been failing both the English and Spanish sections of the government mandated academic achievement tests which are part of the federal No Child Left Behind requirements (tendenciaspr.com, 2002-2006; Cruz Maisonave, 2008)

Perhaps, with greater elaboration, this Project might work in another country; the intentions of the project seemed legitimate. However, as Takala states, "*CLIL needs to be tailor-made to fit the national/local circumstances*" ((in Marsh, 2002: 40). Puerto Rico needs a language reform project that can help reverse the effects of the oppressive language policies, which have left the Island with a collective fear of losing their national identity represented in this case by the Spanish language. Any efforts towards incorporating additional languages on the Island need to begin with an elevation of the status of teaching and learning of Spanish. This may seem a strange assertion for an Island where less than 30% of the populations claim to speak English (Ostolaza-Bey, 2001). However, although Spanish is spoken in all the societal domains in Puerto Rico, the prestige associated with the ability to speak English creates an imbalance, which when translated into language policies and curriculum design will continue to impede any attempts towards societal bilingualism. Without a doubt, the 4 C's of CLIL are essential, but perhaps a fifth C also needs to be contemplated—that of Context.

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Assessment Instruments for CLIL Written Production Tasks

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Abstract

This article presents two instruments for assessing CLIL written production tasks. They are based on the ECF overall written production competence descriptors and were initially developed for non linguistic subject teachers in CLIL schools, although it could also be applied to any CLIL context where the integrated language is students' L1. Conceived as tools, they are proposed as a reflection on how to face the difficult issue that assessment represents in CLIL classrooms. They are not thought to be fixed and definitive, but to be discussed, transformed, improved and adapted to the specific CLIL school needs that any teaching community may have.

The instruments presented consist of a set of reference and marking sheets that integrate content and L2 assessment criteria. Criteria are not explicitly divided in content and structure areas, and deal with less conventional assessment aspects such as understanding the use of L2 grammar structures as a pragmatic tool to optimize the message reception; or considering the writer's interaction with the text.

The reference sheets can be especially useful for placement testing, as well as for cooperative team assessment. The marking sheets propose a category-based marking system that may give both teachers and students a great deal of information about the writing process. Apart from their prime use, these instruments can also be very useful diagnosis tools to identify problems in the curricular development, to offer remedial work solutions or to encourage students' self-assessment.

A short research on the efficiency and utility of these assessment instruments in a CLIL context is also provided. This work was developed when working with a set of CLIL Geography and Art History tasks in Spanish as a L2, that were written by 1st and 3rd year Liceum students at two Spanish-Polish Bilingual schools in Poland.

Keywords: CLIL, Assessment, Writing, Task, Instruments

CLIL approaches have proved to be effective instruments for increasing European students' L2 communicative competence (Marsh, 2002). However, many steps have still to be taken to achieve a complete implementation of CLIL in our classrooms. One of the most difficult steps still to be taken, especially for non-language teachers, is probably to find an easy-to-use instrument to measure not only what students know about the subject, but also how they use their L2 to communicate effectively within the subject context..

In this article, we will propose some instruments to assess CLIL written production tasks. Far from being definitive, these instruments have been produced to be discussed, transformed and improved by CLIL teachers according to their pedagogical needs.

Before introducing these instruments, we will explain first how they were built. Our starting point was the EFC overall written production chart and our first task was to get our assessment criteria out of its descriptors. To do so, we separated these descriptors into single statements and marked with the same colour those ones referring to each new criterion.

Chart 1: EFC overall written production chart

	Text features	EFC descriptors
C2	Complex texts Clear Smoothy fluent Appropriate style Effective style Logical structure Easy to find significant points	Can write clear, smoothly flowing, complex texts in an appropriate and effective style and a logical structure which help the reader to find significant points
C1	Clear Well structured Complex subjects Relevant salient issues underlined Subsidiary points used Relevant examples used Points of view & arguments supported Ideas expanded Own conclusions provided.	Can write clear, well structured texts of complex subjects, underlining and supporting points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion
B2	Clear Detailed Subjetcs related to speaker's field of interest Iinformation & arguments from other sources Synthesis & evaluation information & arguments	Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest, synthesizing and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources
B1	Simple Straightforward connected Familiar subjects Text elements linked in a linear sequence	Can write straightforward connected texts on a variety of subjects related to his/her field of interest, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence
A2	Series of simple phrases and sentences Linked with simple connectors	Can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'
A1	Simple and isolated phrases and sentences.	

The results obtained were eight criteria which give us information about how students work out the text contents (criteria 1-3); how they build up the text (criteria 4-5); how they interact, as speakers, with the text and its contents (criteria 6-7) and, finally, how they can influence the text receiver (criterion 8).

Chart 2: Assessment criteria

1	How has the information and the text arguments been internally organized?
2	How extensively has the information been developed? (examples, details)
3	How has the information been processed in the text?
4	How complex is the text structure?
5	To what extent have the text ideas been connected and are cohesive?
6	To what extent is the student familiar with the task contents?
7	To what extent does the student interact with the text?
8	What effect does the text reception make on the reader?

Our next step was to develop and grade these eight criteria for each EFC level. Again, we used the different EFC charts related to written production, including the communicative competence ones. Where no specific information about one criterion was stated at one level, we took as a reference the features stated in the inferior or superior ones. For example, the '*use of details*', a B2 distinctive level feature for criterion 2, was used as a reference for the inferior levels (i.e. texts need not be detailed in B1-A1 levels), and for the superior ones (i.e. details must be relevant in C1-C2 level texts).

Chart 3: Text feature graded chart

Criteria	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Text internal organization	Simple isolated sentences	A series of simple sentences	Text elements are linked in a linear sequence		Student underlines relevant issues Student uses subsidiary points	It is easy to find significant points in the text
Information extension degree			Non-detailed texts	Detailed texts	The text ideas are expanded Relevant examples are used	
Text information processing			There is no synthesis or evaluation of information & arguments	The text information and arguments are synthesized and evaluated	The student provides their own conclusions	
Text structural complexity			The task is structured as a simple text		The task is structured as a complex text	
Connection and cohesion among text elements		Use of simple connectors	Cohesive text		Well structured text	Logically structured text
Student's familiarity with text contents	Students use text topics related to their immediate reality		Student uses text topics related to their daily life and field of interest	work or study field	Student uses any text topics, related or not to their work or study field	
Interaction between student & text	Student use information from their personal data and basic needs		Student uses predictable information from their cultural reality	Students selects information and arguments from other sources	Students contribute to the text actively by using their own information, reflections or arguments	
Degree of clarity in message reception	Student's limited expression resources makes the message reception difficult for the reader		Student's resources allow a basic message reception	Clear text. No reader's effort is needed to receive the message	Clear text. The message is received easily.	Student's efficient & fluent style facilitates an easy message reception

Out of this chart comes our first instrument: the *reference sheets* (Diaz, 2007 2008). They allow CLIL teachers to place students' tasks into one EFC level under each of the eight criteria previously stated. The average level obtained will allow a general placement of the CLIL task into one EFC level. One of them is exemplified here: the one referred to criterion 1: text internal organization.

Chart 4: Example of a reference sheet. Criterion 1

1. Text internal organization		Yes	No
C2	The information and the arguments used are hierarchically organized, coherent and logical with the task		
	They are supported and reasoned by complementary information and arguments		
	They are coherent with the task purpose and give the text a global sense.		
	They are logically ordered and make an easy text comprehension		
C1	The information and the arguments used are hierarchically organized and coherent with the task		
	They are supported and reasoned by complementary information and arguments		
	They are coherent with the task purpose and give the text a global sense.		
B2	The information and the arguments are organized in a coherent and lineal way with the proposed task.		
	They are presented in the text in a simple and linear way		
	They are coherent with the task purpose and give the text a global sense.		
B1	The information is organized in a coherent and linear way with the proposed task.		
	The information is presented in the text in a simple and linear way		
	The information is coherent with the task purpose and gives the text a global sense.		
A2	The information is organized in a linear way		
A1	The information is presented in the text in a simple and linear way		

These sheets can be useful to grade new students according to their writing ability, or to train CLIL teachers in cooperative assessment work. But they could also be an interesting 'learning to learn' tool for students, since the criteria are also coherent with the ELP philosophy and offer some insightful hints which will allow them to check their own areas for improvement and plan their task performance.

Our second assessment instrument is a set of six *marking sheets* (Diaz, 2007 2008) which use the same information from the reference sheets, but which are classified into the six EFC levels. They are designed to measure how students with a specific EFC level are able to integrate L2 and content in their written tasks.

Using the marking sheet corresponding to their students' level, teachers read the task and mark one scale (ABCD) for each criterion. The average scale obtained will give us the task global mark, which can be easily transformed into a number. In this sample marking sheet, we have established that all criteria have been equally considered and assigned the following numeric value for each ABCD scale (A=100; B= 80; C=60; D=40).

Chart 5: Marking sheet sample. Level C1

C1 LEVEL				
1. How the information and arguments are internally organized	A	B	C	D
The information and the arguments used are hierarchically organized, coherent and logical with the task				
They are supported and reasoned by complementary information and arguments				
They are coherent with the task purpose and give the text a global sense.				
They are logically ordered and make an easy text comprehension				
2. Information extension degree.				
The information about the topic is quite extensive, quite detailed and well exemplified				
Its extension is adjusted to the requirements of a very complex task				
The information included expands the topic treated in class				
The information included in the tasks is quite detailed.				
The examples used are relevant to illustrate the exposed ideas				
3. Text information processing.				
The student processes the information effectively to elaborate their own conclusions				
Student uses information and argument sources different from their own				
The ideas are effectively treated (synthesized / analyzed; compared / contrasted; summarized /expanded)				
Student elaborates their own ideas and conclusions after processing the information and arguments in the text				
4. Text structural complexity.				
The text structure is adjusted to the development of very complex topics				
Good command in using sentence connectors when expressing complex ideas				
Good command in using prepositions when expressing complex ideas				
Good command in using conventional expressions (phrasal verbs, idiomatic expressions, etc) when expressing complex ideas				
5. Connection and cohesion among text elements				
Text paragraphs and ideas are cohesive and well connected with the message context				
Concordances among text elements are appropriate and consistent				
The references to elements in and out of the text (pronouns, tense use) are appropriate and consistent				
The text is structured in cohesive paragraphs				
6. Familiarity with text contents				
Student shows a wide knowledge of varied contents including the subject ones				
Student uses wide and truthful information about the task target contents				
Student uses truthful information about subject contents not included in the program				
Student uses their general knowledge on subjects (related or not with school one)				
7. Interaction between student and text.				
Student interacts actively in the text production with a purpose that is clear and relevant for the reader.				

Student participates actively in processing the information about the task topic				
Student gives relevant arguments and conclusions out of a textual source study				
Student chooses a text register appropriate and relevant for the task requirements				
Dialect and accent markers used are coherent with the chosen register				
8. Degree of message reception and clarity.				
The text is clear and shows non limited formal expression resorts to allow an effective message reception.				
The information is presented in a clear way, facilitating the text comprehension				
Word election, formation and combination is done with a high level of precision				
Spelling and punctuation are used with precision to make the text clear and easy to understand				
The use of the appropriate register makes the text to be received effectively				
Task final marking (Functional competence assessment)				
A=100 B=80 C=60 D=40				

These marking sheets can positively contribute to the assessment process because they make it more objective, as criteria have been previously established. They also give teachers and students a lot of information about their performance, indicating what should be corrected in the future and promoting self-consciousness on language learning.

Now the instruments have been introduced, we will explain an experience we developed to test them within a CLIL environment. We chose the Spanish-Polish Bilingual System and the subjects of Geography and Art History. We took some written tasks produced by 1st and 3rd course high school students of Spanish as a L2 (FL context) from two Polish Bilingual Schools: the *XXII Liceum Ogólnokształcące im. "José Martí"* (Warsaw) and the *XV Liceum Ogólnokształcące im." Zjednoczonej Europy"* (Gdansk).

The sample tasks were assessed by three Spanish native teachers to test whether the designed instruments were reliable, efficient and easy to use.

In the first place, the teachers were told to carefully analyze the tasks and place them into one EFC level according to the eight reference sheets. After that, they should decide a global reference level for each task. We will take one task as an example.

Chart 6: Sample task nº 3

SUBJECT: Geography Course 3º

El impacto turístico en España Escribe un texto sobre el tema atendiendo al menos a los siguientes aspectos: consecuencias económicas, consecuencias culturales y sociales y consecuencias medioambientales

Task 3. Alexandra

El turismo se empezaba a desarrollar en España desde los años 50 y cada vez tiene más importancia. Es un aspecto más importante en la situación económica de España. Hay mucha gente que viaja a España porque quieren ir a playa y tomar el sol (es turismo de playa y sol) y sobre todo lo hacen en verano (tienen la seguridad de que va a hacer buen tiempo). El turismo tiene impacto a desarrollo de España, no sólo hotelería, restaurantes, pero además artesanía, construcción de edificios, mejorar el transporte (p.e. aeropuertos). La importancia de turismo se puede ver en la balanza de pagos – aunque se compra más de lo que se vende balanza de pagos es positiva, porque el turismo da mucho dinero.

Con respecto al turismo cultural turismo puede tener las consecuencias positivas y negativas. Positivas porque la gente de otros paises puede conocer la historia y las personas importantes (pintores, escultores, etc…) de España y negativas porque los turistas a veces destruyen cosas porque tienen que tocar cada cosa o escribir su nombre en la pared de un edificio antiguo.

Turismo puede también tener consecuencias sociales –puede cambiar la vida p.e. de los que antes vivían en un pueblito que vivía de pescados y ahora es una ciudad turística. Pero también puede cambiar el punto de vista tan de los españoles que los de otros países –se mezclan dos o más culturas diferentes y la gente se hace más tolerante.

Turismo tiene muchas consecuencias negativas con respecto a medio ambiente –los turistas lo destruyen no solo sobre destruir la naturaleza pero también porque p.e. se destruye los bosques para construir nuevos hoteles.

El turismo se caracteriza por una estacionalidad turística –los turistas se viajan a España sobre todo en verano y se concentran en los sitios cerca del mar, donde hace sol por ejemplo costa de brava, costa de Sol, Baleares, Canarias, étc…

Otra consecuencia económica puede ser a trabajo en p.e. hotels –durante verano hay más trabajo pero después no se necesita tanta gente y por eso pierden su trabajo.

These are the levels assigned to this task by the teachers according to the reference sheets.

Chart 7: Reference assessment results. Task nº 3

	Task 3		
Reference level assigned for	Teacher1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Criterion 1	C1	B2	B2
Criterion 2	B2	B2	B2
Criterion 3	B2	B2	B1
Criterion 4	C1	B2	B2
Criterion 5	C1	B2	B2
Criterion 6	B2	B1	B2
Criterion 7	B2	B2	B2
Criterion 8	B1	B2	B2
Global reference level assessed	B2	B2	B2
Partial agreement (2 / 3)		Total agreement (3/3)	

Once the global reference level was established, every teacher was told to grade the tasks according to the corresponding marking sheet of the level they had chosen. They were asked to give one value (A, B, C, D) to measure how much each criterion had been fulfilled and to get an average mark from the values obtained. These were the marking results for task 3.

Chart 8: Marking results. Task nº 3

Reference level chosen B2	Task 3		
Mark given for	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Criterion 1	A	B	B
Criterion 2	B	B	B
Criterion 3	B	B	D
Criterion 4	A	B	B
Criterion 5	A	B	B
Criterion 6	B	C	A
Criterion 7	B	B	B
Criterion 8	C	B	B
Global Average marking	A	B	B

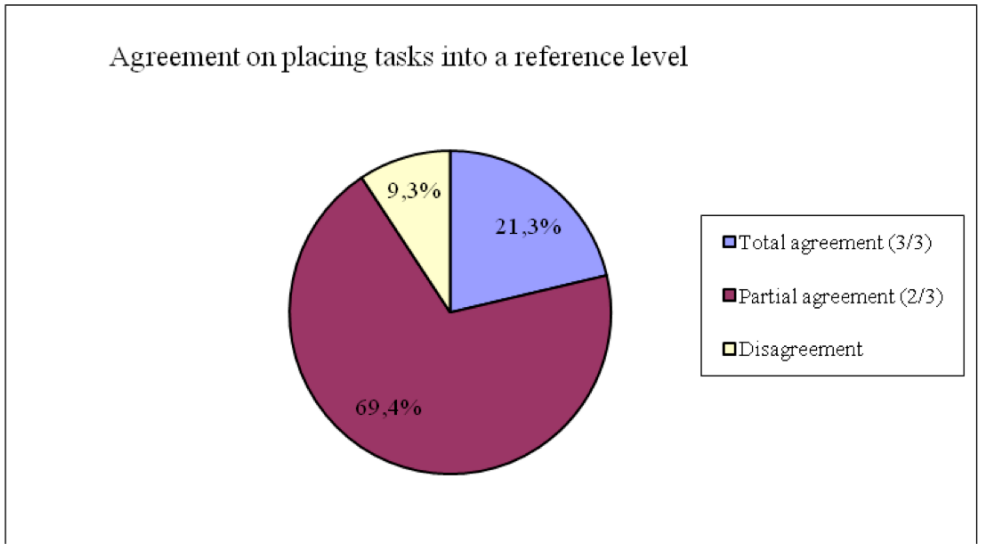
Partial agreement on marking (2/3) or Agreement on a positive (AB) or negative (CD) marking | Total Agreement | Disagreement

The teachers did not know the students nor how the CLIL subject had been taught, so all the assessment work was done exclusively from the information written in the tasks. It should also be mentioned that the teachers were asked to work individually, thus avoiding any kind of external influence on their decisions.

Once the assessment information was obtained, we started processing the results to test our hypotheses.

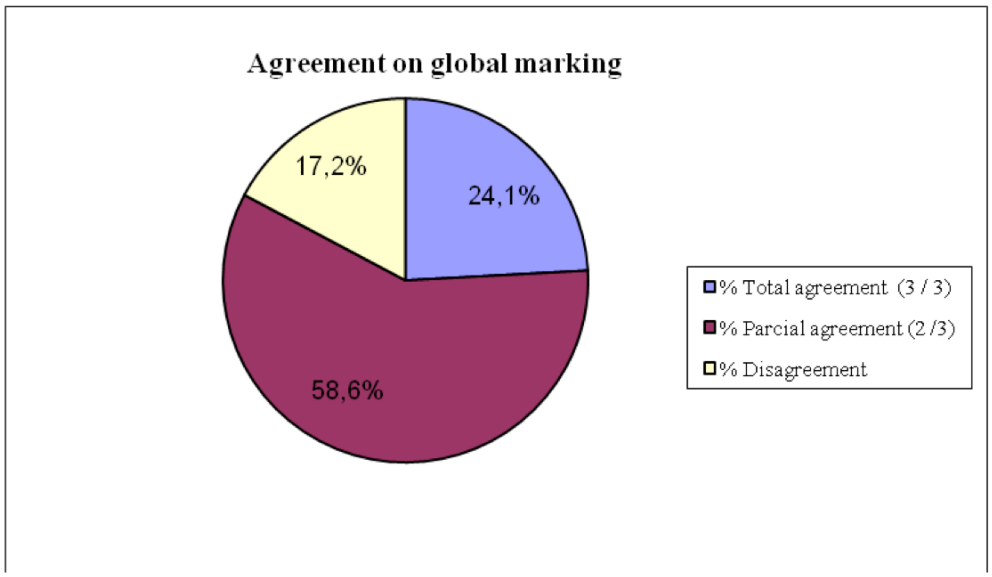
To prove that the instruments were reliable, it was necessary to see whether the teachers tended to agree on their assessment. In the use of the reference sheets, we analyzed all the decisions taken for the twelve tasks and identified the cases when all the teachers' assessments coincided (total agreement) or when, at least, two of them did (partial agreement). The results show a high percentage of total or partial agreement (90.7%)

Chart 9: Agreement on placing a task into a reference level



In the use of the marking sheets, we could only compare results in the cases when at least two teachers used the same sheet. In this analysis, we counted as partial agreement those cases when two of the three teachers had agreed on the same mark or, at least, on marking the criterion positively (AB) or negatively (CD). The chart shows 82.7% of total or partial marking coincidence.

Chart 10: Agreement on global marking



These data confirm that our reference and marking sheets are reliable: different teachers can get similar results when assessing the same written tasks. They also implicitly suggest that, in a real classroom situation, results would have probably reflected a higher level of agreement had teachers known their students' level, participated in the sheet design and had the chance to share their assessment impressions.

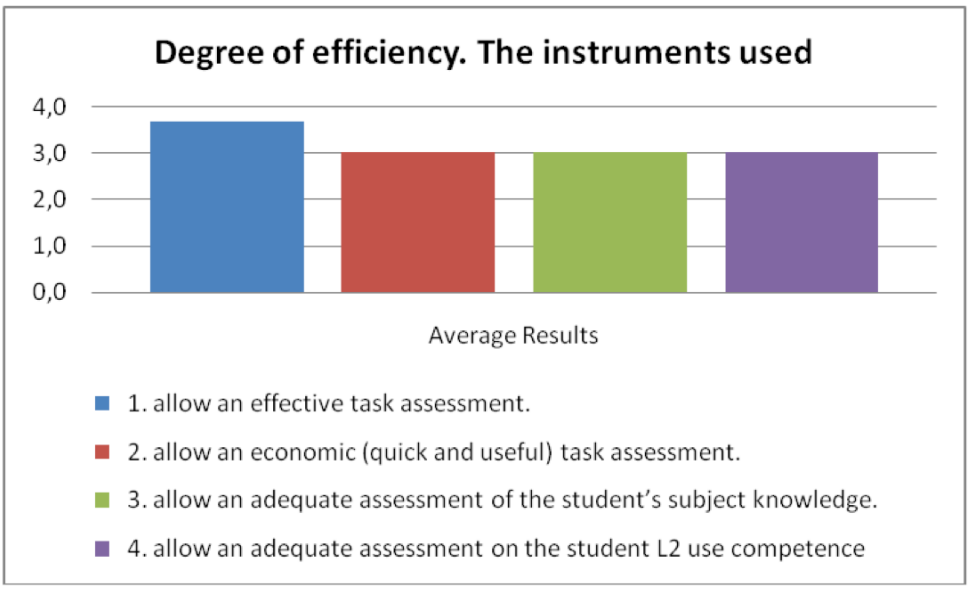
We also wanted to know whether our instruments were efficient and easy to use, so we prepared a survey and asked the teachers to assess the instruments, using a 0-4 scale (0=Not at all 4=Very much). Questions 1-4 check how efficient the instruments are, while questions 5-8 try to prove whether the descriptors in the sheets are clear, precise and useful for the teachers' assessment work. Finally, the last three questions give us an overall impression of the instruments as tools for CLIL assessment.

Chart 11: Survey about the use of the instruments

Degree of efficiency. The instruments used…	Very much 4	Quite much 3	Not much 2	Not at all 1
1. allow an effective task assessment.				
2. allow an economic (quick and useful) task assessment.				
3. allow an adequate assessment of the student's subject knowledge.				
4. allow an adequate assessment on the student L2 use competence				
Degree of clarity. The descriptors used…				
5. are expressed in a clear and precise language.				
6. have an easy-to-understand vocabulary.				
7. explain adequately and extensively all the assessment criteria				
8. are helpful to take a final decision about the assessment criteria.				
Teacher's general impression. The instruments used…				
9. are helpful to get a more accurate and complete task assessment				
10. succeed in integrating the assessment of L2 and content subject				
11. takes me to a decision that agrees with my overall impression of the task				

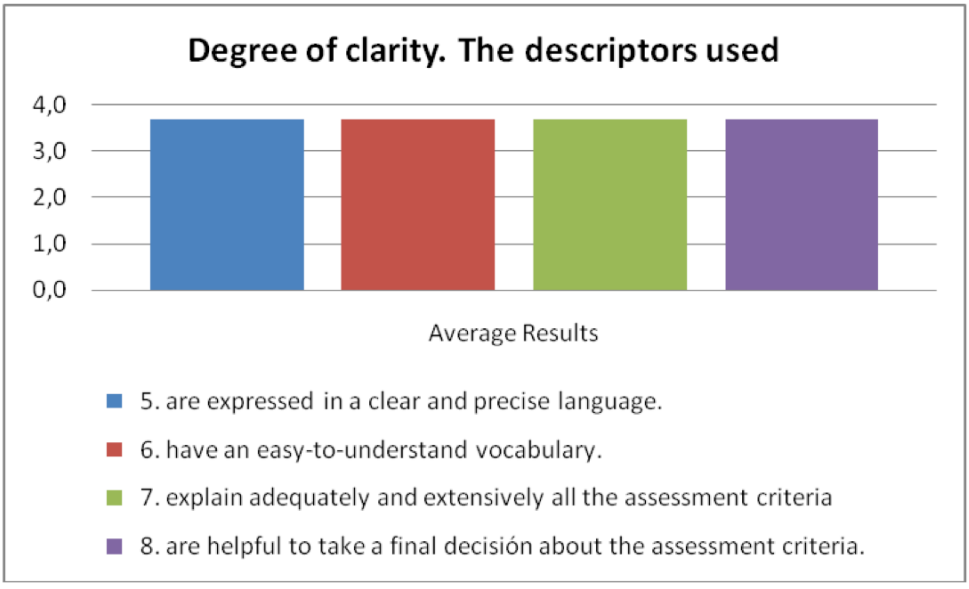
The average results for the first four questions show a generally positive response in relation to the instruments efficiency, as we can see in the chart below.

Chart 12: Average results for questions 1-4



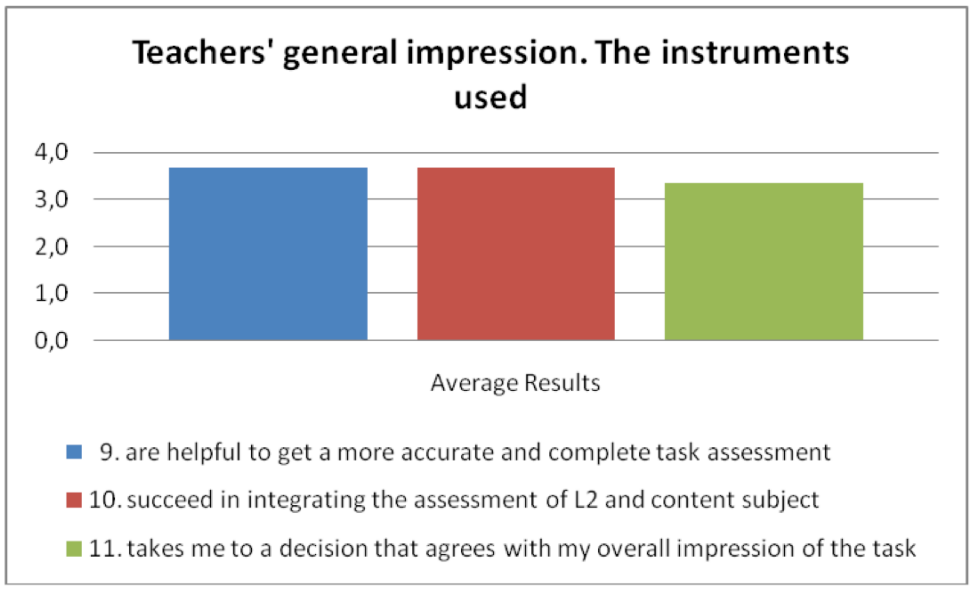
The results for questions 5-8, suggest that the descriptors used in the sheets are clear and precise enough to facilitate the decision-taking work when assessing each criterion.

Chart 13: Average results for questions 5-8



Finally, the results for the last group of questions show a positive overall impression of the instruments. Teachers think that the instruments succeed in integrating L2 and content in the assessment work and can be helpful to promote a more accurate task assessment work.

Chart 14: Average results for questions 9-11



Conclusion

Results are far from conclusive, and more systematic studies will be necessary to prove the instruments validity. However, the results may be positive enough to inspire CLIL teachers in their assessment work. They can easily adapt these assessment instruments to their specific pedagogical needs by including, for example, more levels in the reference sheets (A2+, B1+). They can also complete the levels with new descriptors, add new categories in the marking scales or use them as a reference to design *ad hoc* assessment sheets for specific tasks (descriptions, essays, etc).

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Using Literacy and ICT to Implement CLIL with Infants, and the Role Families Can Play When Guided by Teachers

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Abstract

This article aims to provide a view on the importance of approaching the teaching of pre-literacy and literacy skills when implementing CLIL with young learners. Examples of class activities for developing these skills are offered, always highlighting the fact that all CLIL students need to be exposed and guided towards the target language in all its aspects - oral and written forms, simultaneously and from the very beginning.

The paper also discusses the value of embedding in CLIL lessons the use of different ICT tools, stressing how important it is that young children are able to manipulate each of the tools and get the best of every ICT device.

Finally, the article explains the necessity of guiding families of the children as well as offering them strategies to support their children regardless of their knowledge of the target language. Examples of how to work with the families and how this cooperation affects academic results are shown.

Keywords: CLIL, oral and written forms of language, literacy skills, ICT tools, "Travelling Portfolio".

Introduction: The importance of teaching literacy skills when implementing CLIL in early years

Ever since CLIL was first defined ("*The term Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was originally defined in 1994, and launched in 1996 by UNICOM, University of Jyväskylä and the European Platform for Dutch Education, to describe educational methods where 'subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focussed aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language*"[1]) and in all subsequent definitions, there has always been a systematic description of CLIL as an approach that integrates language and content learning.

Hence, the philosophy of CLIL lies in the teaching of both language and content to obtain successful results. *"In CLIL the learning of language and other subjects is mixed in one way or another. This means that in the class there are two main aims, one related to the subject, topic, or theme, and one linked to the language."* (Marsh, D, 2000: 6). And in consequence these two aims should always be taken into account regardless of the age of the class in which CLIL is taking place.

CLIL presupposes, therefore, the need to establish the objectives to be achieved and the approach to be adopted when teaching content and also language. This is the reason why in CLIL, even when implemented in early years, it is crucial to address the teaching of the target language in all its forms (listening, speaking, reading, writing and communicating) simultaneously and from the very beginning, as it is usually at this level that children's first contact with the target language and the written form takes place. Moreover, although most pupils starting school have had contact with print through stories read by members of their family, or by simply having watched adults reading any type of information from different sources, it is at school that this association between written form and oral language is to be consolidated.

Teaching both, oral and written forms of language, at the same time will help pupils eventually to be able to tackle all type of information related to the contents taught. In addition, these skills will be useful for the rest of the child's life. Furthermore, working on pre-literacy and literacy skills will particularly help children from disadvantaged backgrounds to catch up and make progress.

[1] http://www.cec.jyu.fi

CLIL and the target language in early years

The question is: how can CLIL teachers approach the teaching of the target language in early years? Oral and written languages are just two variants of the same thing and both need to be addressed synchronously. However, while oral language can be picked up quite naturally at these ages, written language needs to be taught in a more formal way, and for CLIL teachers this is sometimes easier said than accomplished.

One of the first premises when teaching any language to very young children should always be to enable them to understand the interconnection between oral and written forms. This can be done by using different types of texts in the classroom, such as stories, fiction and fact books, news, magazines, notes, letters, lists, e-mails, lyrics of songs, rhymes, etc., indeed anything that is meaningful to the children and which is also embedded in the non-linguistic contents taught at the time. The teacher should read the texts aloud using their finger or a pointer to convey the meaning that print carries. Teachers should also, and frequently, write slowly and in a place that can be seen easily, some of the things that are said in the classroom and which need to be remembered for different purposes. Eventually, pupils will be able to dictate to the teacher what they want to put in writing. Through guided writing, pupils will be capable to produce simple written texts in due course, like the title of a book, the name of the characters of a story, lists of materials, short notes, letters, e-mails, etc. Playing with both the oral and written forms of language and swapping from one to another will help pupils to realise that both forms are connected. Children need to understand that print is a means of communication and also that reading and writing are useful and intentional activities.

Reading is the process of decoding and understanding, and both aspects need to be approached at the same time to obtain successful readers, since one cannot work without the other. Learning to decode can sometimes be hard, particularly for CLIL students, if teachers lack the skills to handle it appropriately. For that reason it is very helpful to introduce a phonics programme. The use of a synthetic method will give the CLIL teacher a structure to follow in their everyday practice in a more systematic way. The fact that the author of this article supports the teaching of phonics at this age is because one aspect of language learning, learning letters together with blending and segmenting sounds, takes place in the early years. Learning phonics can be enjoyable if approached with the right methodology. Besides, it is good for CLIL students as it helps them to become aware of sounds which might not exist in their mother tongue and makes children hear, concentrate and reproduce them. In an infant's CLIL lesson, phonics should become part of the class routine for up to 10 minutes a day, and always taking into account that it should be delivered through activities and games that young pupils can enjoy, allowing for all types of learners and their own pace of progress.

However, teachers should not expect phonics to be a magic potion which solves the teaching of reading and writing. Being able to read and write means much more than decoding or segmenting sounds. It has to do with understanding the meaning of the text we are reading and the author's purpose. That is why learning phonics will not work on its own, as decoding is just an important part of a much more complex process. Phonics enables the student to map out letters and their sounds and thus be able to decode or segment words, which is essential when learning to read and write but which needs to be reinforced with other activities as well as the development of positive attitudes towards the language.

Reading and writing is like a spinning process which enriches the learner day by day through the different experiences offered in the languages spoken at school and at home. Coordination with tutors and families is also essential in CLIL since many of the skills that children need to achieve are common in both target language and mother tongue. This is one of the reasons why team work is crucial in CLIL.

Class activities with regard to Literacy

The contents to be taught in early years are based on the development of children's autonomy and a positive attitude to learning. It is obvious that learning at this level is a blend of authentic content and target language learning which should be approached in the most "natural way" possible. That is why it is difficult to be specific about activities that can be done in early years with regard to language as most of them will be embedded in the content lesson.

Although most early years' activities should be played-based and designed to benefit all types of learners, teachers need to bear in mind that pupils should be offered a mixture of free and guided play. Children need to have opportunities to play in what interests them but also to work under more formal conditions, following instructions given by the teacher.

To develop fine and gross motor manipulative skills in relation to Literacy, children should be allowed and encouraged to:

- Manipulate different types of letters: soft and hard letters, magnetic letters, and letters in flash-cards. This will help the children to become familiar with letters and sounds, to identify them and also to spell familiar words easily without having to worry about writing. Spelling can also be done by using word processors which allow children to have a wide range of options in their spelling. These activities should be guided by the teacher and embedded in the teaching of phonics.
- Trace letters with their fingers, pencil, crayons, paintbrushes, etc.
- Do letter handwriting patterns.
- Learn pencil hold and letter formation with all types of materials: pencils, thick and thin felt-tip pens, crayons, chalk and paint brushes. This will help children to develop hand-eye coordination.
- Join in with nursery rhymes and action songs that foster finger gym exercises.
- Guess the name or the sound of a letter by only touching them, when blindfolded.
- Use their fingers to write on sand, water, glitter, rice, also on another child's back.
- Use individual whiteboards to allow them to experiment with free and guided writing.
- Make letters with play dough.
- Become familiar with a computer keyboard and mouse and be able to click the mouse properly with the accuracy and strength needed.
- Have the opportunities to use and become familiar with different ICT tools.
- Draw big letters in the air.

To develop a positive attitude towards Literacy, children should be allowed and encouraged to:

- Listen to stories read by the teacher who should use a pointer to show that reading starts at the top left-hand corner and is left-orientated.
- Listen to stories helping and participating in the reading.
- Listen to stories read by an adult both in print and on screen.
- Always read aloud their own productions: letters, words and sentences.
- Give meaning to stories by doing role play and drama.
- Manipulate books and at the very early stages learn to hold a book and turn the pages.
- Make their own books by drawing illustrations and writing texts and captions, helping them to distinguish print from illustrations and also to become aware of concepts like: author, illustrator, front cover, back cover, spine. Books made by children should be used in school as a resource.
- Sequence pictures and events
- Match pictures and keywords
- Identify words and link them to the relevant pictures.
- Have opportunities to experiment with reading and writing meaningful information, with laminated cards with familiar words, For example, names of different animals which children need to classify into two categories: wild animals and farm animals. Afterwards, the two lists can be read and written down.
- Have opportunities to experiment with speaking. Children should be given the chance to speak, repeat sounds or words, sing the songs learnt, say the rhymes, and participate in the class as much as possible. Children also enjoy singing, reciting, or retelling the same song, poem or story over and over. It gives them confidence, pleasure and the opportunity to show how much they know. At the same time, it helps them to remember, to practice and to learn.

To foster a positive attitude towards the target language in all its forms, children should be allowed and encouraged to think by themselves, to make mistakes and to be aware of their own process of learning.

Information and Communication Technology

I.C.T. stands for Information and communication technology, and the first thing to be clear about is that it is not just about computers. Nowadays there is ICT everywhere and children of all ages need to see how different ICT tools are used in the classroom. On the other hand, schools` equipment and budgets vary a lot, and it is important to point out that there are many ways of embedding ICT across all areas of learning in a creative way without just using computers, interactive whiteboards or pc-tables, which are, no doubt, very interesting and useful, but not the only tools to be used.

In schools, there are usually many ICT tools that can be used to achieve the objectives of a CLIL lesson. The important thing about these instruments is that they must be simple to use and with very simple instructions to follow, so that children can manipulate them by themselves. They must also be within the context of their everyday experience.

Young children will love to use traditional tape recorders which will allow them to hear their own voice when producing sounds, words, rhymes or songs in the target language, as well as to become familiar with microphones and buttons to press. Tape recorders give pupils instant feedback and can be used without too much adult help, thus fostering children's autonomy and consequently self-esteem.

Digital cameras are also a useful device as they capture the sequence of any activity done in the classroom or outdoors. This helps children to remember and review any experience. Photos are always nice to keep in albums, or to make posters, wall displays and so on.

Filming the children doing oral presentations, role play, singing songs, reciting poems or rhymes can be very helpful in our everyday practice. Children should get used to being recorded and also to watch themselves on film and observe their own practice and others´. Self and peer-assessment, when well guided, can be of great benefit to develop most of the key competences on the students as well as to become more aware of their own process of learning and personal progress.

Web cameras can be used to record any activity and to play it back instantaneously. They can also be used to do a videoconference with students from any part of the world. However, perhaps the easiest and most motivating thing to start with could be a videoconference with a group of students of a similar age in their own school.

The use of the internet and websites in the target language is highly recommended. Families can also be asked to watch DVD's or programmes on TV at home in the target language when possible. Children will get used to the sounds of other languages and their listening and understanding skills can be extended.

Finally, E-books, CD´s, CD-roms are also materials of great benefit to CLIL students. Being able to listen to a story in the target language, a song, or playing a game as many times as they wish, will develop their listening and understanding skills.

The role families should have and how to guide them to support their children's learning

The positive impact that support from families can have on their children's education is well known. In recent decades, school authorities have agreed on the fact that it is obvious that parents need to take a more active role within the school. However, this might seem more difficult in CLIL schools when most families do not speak the target language. In this case, parents feel that they do not have the skills to support their children, which might also have a negative impact on kids of this age. Schools and CLIL teachers have a crucial role in engaging parents, and there are different ways to achieve this goal.

One of the basic needs is to keep parents informed about the specific aspects of a CLIL approach. This can be done through meetings, interviews, letters and information on the website of the school, school magazines, etc. Parents need to be aware of what the school is offering and what it is expected from the children and their families.

CLIL teachers, on the other hand, need to explain to parents how to help their children in the most appropriate way. This might start by teachers inviting them to school and allowing them to observe and be part of the lessons, which will give families an idea of the way CLIL lessons are developed in early years.

One way of engaging parents in their children's learning process is by involving both parties in a task to be done as team work. To do this, the author of this article has designed a physical support called "Travelling Portfolio". This device was created in the framework of a research in which one of the main objectives was to confirm the validity of families´ help and support of young CLIL students in their process of learning. The research was carried out during the academic year 2006-07 in the Atalía School which has delivered an Integrated Curriculum Spanish-English since 1996, as a unique experiment within the Spanish State Education System. The research included, amongst other issues, the using of the "Travelling Portfolio" with a group of twenty one students between four and five years old who would start their Primary Education in the next year and were already in their third year of their Infant Education. There was also a control group to compare the results.

The "Travelling Portfolio" consisted of a folder which was personalised by the children and used as a link between home and school. Every Friday the "Travelling Portfolio" travelled home with an activity to be done, based on the contents worked on during the week. Inside, there was also a letter written in the first language to parents in which the teacher gave information to carry out the activity. The pupils had the rest of the information based on the explanation given to them, in the target language, and the work done in class during the week. The "Travelling Portfolio" was to be brought back on Mondays with the mission accomplished. Every Monday, after going through the activities, they were kept on a box as they were something precious that needed to be treated with care.

Before starting with the activities, and during the academic year, several meetings and personal interviews were held, in order to inform the families of the experimental group about our aims and the way they should cooperate with the school. Families were first asked about their knowledge of the target language, in our case English, and it was confirmed that all of them could only communicate in their mother tongue, in our case Spanish. Parents also filled in questionnaires which allowed us to obtain information about whether they had access to the internet at home, DVD player, access to digital television or school material that the children could use.

The next step was to inform them about the academic objectives their children needed to reach, as well as to explain the methodology used in class and how we intended to achieve these objectives. Families were invited to visit the school and assist to some lessons. In some cases lessons would be filmed by the parents who had the time to visit the school and then copies of the DVD's were distributed amongst the rest. According to the families children loved watching the lessons recorded over and over again, which meant a constant revision of some of the contents worked in the school.

Families were guided on the use of different ICT tools which develop children's literacy skills regardless of the knowledge parents had of the target language. Examples of these tools were the use of websites that children were already familiar with because they had accessed them at school or the use of CD-roms, E-books, or books with a CD. Those families who did not have access to the internet at home were informed about where they could get free access, like public libraries or in the afterschool clubs. The school provided children with a CD with all the songs learnt in class to be played at home, in the car, etc. Families were also encouraged to play DVD's or to use digital television for children to watch, when possible, programmes in the target language which extended their listening and understanding skills.

The activities to be done at the weekend were designed in a way that made children use their knowledge of both target language and their mother tongue. In some cases, children were asked to teach their parents a song they have learnt in class and they all needed to sing it together and record it. In other cases pupils were asked to visit a website they had previously accessed in the school to show their parents how it worked or to perform a specific task. Sometimes students had to teach their parents about the sounds that specific letters make and were supposed to test their parents on the accuracy of their pronunciation. At other times parents needed to hear the sound of a letter made by their children and then write it on the child's back. It was for the student to decide if the dad or mum was writing the correct letter. There was also focus on content and there were activities like ordering sequences of stories or traditional fairy tales with very basic captions, while the families had the right order or were already familiar with the story. Also classifying food into different categories like: healthy and not healthy; sweet and salty; liquid or solid, hot or cold. Children had to name the food items in English to teach their parents the names in the target language while parents advised, when necessary whether the food should be classified into one category or the other. At other times children needed to choose from a wide collection and decide what clothes they would need to wear for winter. In all cases the philosophy of these activities was always based on the cooperation between the child and their family.

Tasks were sent weekly and these are just a few examples. In all cases, parents were always sent a letter to guide them in the support of their child. The "Travelling Portfolio" has been a great help and an opportunity to foster family learning. It has been very well accepted, which shows that families are usually willing to help and to learn if given the chance.

At the end of the year and as part of the research a summative assessment was delivered to both groups of students. The assessment consisted of different activities that the children had to perform on their own as well as questionnaires for the teachers and the families assessing attitudes towards learning and towards the target language, which are also objectives to be reached by pupils of these ages.

The results of every student have been classified in three bands of attainment, following the system used in the school and according to the Guidelines edited by the British Council and the Spanish Ministry of Education. The bands are organised as follows:

Band 1: from 2.50 to 3.00 (advanced students)
Band 2: from 2.00 to 2.49 (average students)
Band 3: from 0 to 1.99 (weaker students)

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP																					
STUDENTS	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	S21
MATHS SKILLS	3,00	3,00	2,90	3,00	2,90	2,90	2,80	3,00	2,90	2,80	2,80	2,80	2,90	3,00	2,60	2,60	2,50	2,30	2,20	2,00	1,50
SOCIAL SKILLS	3,00	3,00	2,94	2,88	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,75	2,94	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,81	2,88	2,94	3,00	2,94	2,94	2,81	2,69	2,44
Literacy: Listening & Understanding	2,83	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,83	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,67	2,67	3,00	2,83	2,83	3,00	2,33	2,00
Literacy: Reading & Writing	2,89	2,89	2,89	3,00	2,89	2,89	2,78	2,78	2,78	3,00	2,89	2,44	2,78	2,78	2,33	2,56	2,33	2,44	2,33	1,89	1,33
LITERACY	2,86	2,94	2,94	3,00	2,86	2,94	2,89	2,89	2,89	3,00	2,94	2,72	2,89	2,72	2,50	2,78	2,58	2,64	2,67	2,11	1,67
KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE WORLD	3,00	2,89	3,00	2,89	3,00	2,89	3,00	3,00	2,89	2,78	2,78	3,00	2,89	2,89	3,00	2,56	2,67	2,78	2,56	2,33	1,67
CONTROL GROUP																					
STUDENTS	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	S21
MATHS SKILLS	2,90	2,80	2,70	2,80	2,60	2,70	2,50	2,30	2,20	2,20	2,20	2,40	2,40	2,30	2,30	2,20	2,20	2,10	1,80	2,10	2,00
SOCIAL SKILLS	2,88	3,00	3,00	2,88	2,88	2,94	2,81	3,00	2,94	2,81	2,94	2,88	2,88	2,94	2,75	2,75	2,75	2,94	2,81	2,69	2,50
Literacy: Listening & Understanding	2,83	3,00	3,00	2,83	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,83	2,83	2,33	3,00	3,00	2,50	2,67	2,83	2,33	2,83	2,83	2,83	2,67	2,50
Literacy: Reading & Writing	2,56	2,33	2,44	2,89	2,67	2,33	2,78	2,44	2,33	2,56	2,22	2,11	1,89	2,22	2,33	2,22	1,89	1,67	1,89	1,67	1,44
LITERACY	2,69	2,67	2,72	2,86	2,83	2,67	2,89	2,64	2,58	2,44	2,61	2,56	2,19	2,44	2,58	2,28	2,36	2,25	2,36	2,17	1,97
KNOWLEDGE UNDERSTANDING OF THE WORLD	3,00	3,00	2,89	2,67	2,67	2,67	2,67	2,78	2,78	2,78	2,44	2,33	2,56	2,22	2,11	2,44	2,22	2,22	2,11	1,89	2,22

Results

The results reveal that the students belonging to the experimental group who have had strong and guided support from their families obtain better marks than the pupils belonging to the control group, in all the different areas of learning.

On the other hand, both students and families from the former group have confirmed that their attitudes and expectations towards the target language and CLIL education in general are now much more positive and optimistic than they were before.

In conclusion, it can be confirmed that families respond well to the school demands when they have the precise support and that this affects the academic results of the students.

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The Effects of Clil from the Perspective of Experienced Teachers

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Abstract

This reports on the results of qualitative research carried out on a group of eleven Italian primary school teachers accustomed to using CLIL in their teaching. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data regarding the effects of steady, multiyear exposure to CLIL. This research is based on the assumption that teachers who have lengthy experience with the CLIL approach constitute an invaluable source of information facilitating the understanding of what renders CLIL successful. As a consequence, the teachers' longitudinal experiences are deeply and organically explored, taking into account specific indicators. The strongest and the weakest aspects of CLIL are analysed from a "privileged" perspective. This chapter also discusses the impact of CLIL on teachers' professional development.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), EFL teaching, primary education, teachers' professional development; teachers' profile

1. Introduction

CLIL is experiencing exponential interest in Europe. Networks and projects, funded by the European Union, intend to contribute to the development of CLIL teaching, to promote its adoption and to foster cooperation in the implementation of specific CLIL programmes. They also favour the exchange of information about CLIL practice and the setting up of training opportunities for teachers.

Italy is involved in many of these projects and networks, providing expertise in the use of CLIL. However, CLIL has not spread all over Italy in a uniform way. There are some regions, especially in Northern Italy, which have been developing CLIL programmes for a decade and other regions which have only recently become acquainted with this approach (Infante et al, 2008). The reasons for this heterogeneous development are various and cannot easily be fully explained. It would be superficial to blame the lack of clear action on behalf of the Ministry of Education as a justification for the absence of interest vis-à-vis CLIL–by regional educational authorities and institutions. On the other hand, it is possible to state that it has been possible for CLIL to flourish and for Italy to gain a significant role in the European debate on CLIL thanks to the initiative of individuals working in certain Italian educational and academic institutions.

2. Analysis of the effects of CLIL: a methodological framework

It is not often easy to find teachers who are ready to implement CLIL teaching programmes. The main difficulties go beyond the prerequisite skills (knowledge of the target language and having a subject-area qualification) because the major challenge is in the relationship between language and content (Snow, 1998). In fact, despite their skills in the fields of language or subject, "not all the teachers are prepared to focus on content and language goals" (Mehisto et al., 2008, 21). For this reason, the role of the teacher is crucial in avoiding any tensions between these two aspects. Thus, on the one hand, the CLIL teacher can be considered as a *manager of interaction,* because he/she has to guarantee that "*the discourse proceeds in an orderly manner*" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 24). While on the other hand, the teacher has to gain the role of *primary knower* (Burton, 1981) because he/she is the one to have access to valid knowledge and truth.

As recently underlined (Ricci Garotti, 2007), it is not the *label* CLIL that guarantees quality in projects, instead a pivotal role for their success is played by methodology and teaching. This means that active approaches, proper strategies and techniques, as well as appropriate material and a varied repertoire of activities may represent the keys for the success of CLIL programmes. Teachers have the delicate task of choosing the right activity, the most involving strategy or material in order to catch the students' attention and to make CLIL work. For this reason, we judged it necessary to focus on teachers experienced in CLIL in order to fully understand what renders CLIL successful and what the basic devices are that bring about a balance between language and content. Our research was based on the assumption that these teachers can represent an invaluable source of information regarding the effects of the CLIL approach in contexts where there has been constant exposure to it for years. Not only were we interested in the positive dimension of CLIL, we also wanted to find out what limits the development of CLIL in the educational context.

In the ongoing parallel research study that we have been carrying out for two years on a group of Italian classes regarding the effectiveness of CLIL at primary school level (Infante et al., 2008), our attention is particularly focused on the experimental and quantitative dimension. Since the qualitative matrix of CLIL teaching seems to be as important as the quantitative aspect, we considered it necessary to collect and then to analyse the impressions and the viewpoints of the teachers involved in CLIL projects for years. In order to accomplish this research, we have considered the following indicators:

- quality of reflection: this refers to the process of reflection on one's own teaching and profession that taking part to a CLIL project has activated;
- quality of school organization: this refers to the level and kind of collaboration among teachers and the flexibility that CLIL projects imply;
- quality of teaching: this refers to the kind of activities, materials, strategies and techniques adopted in CLIL projects.

2.1 Instruments

Two instruments were used in this research: a) a questionnaire, and b) a telephone interview. We decided to adopt both because telephone interviews allowed us to build on teacher questionnaire responses.

a) The questionnaire appeared to be the most feasible instrument to reach teachers in the sample, who come from different areas of Italy. The questionnaire, which includes forty items, was designed to gather both quantitative and qualitative data. It is divided into three sections. The first one, formed by seven items, was intended to collect personal and background data while the second one, consisting of nineteen items, was designed to collect information about the training experience and the interests of the teachers. Most of these questions were closed-ended, often taking the form of multiple-choice questions. The third section included ten open-ended and two closed questions about the teacher's CLIL experience. These questions required more thought from the participants and more care in interpretation because they asked for unprompted opinions and solicited subjective data. The questionnaire ends with a blank free text area where possible for teacher comments and suggestions.
b) Some teachers gave short answers to some of the written questions or they did not answer them at all. In these cases, we interviewed the teachers to fill in the missing answers. In other cases, the interview was useful in order to clarify some answers or to expand on the information provided.

2.2. Sampling

We took into consideration some CLIL experiences at the primary school level in Italy (Infante et al., 2008) and gathered together a sample of 11 experienced CLIL teachers from three different regions situated in Northern Italy:

REGION	AREA	NUMBER OF TEACHERS
Lombardy	Como, Mantova, Milan	5
Piedmont	Turin	2
Veneto	Treviso,Venice	4

These teachers have been defined as *testimoni privilegiati* (privileged witnesses) because most of them began working in CLIL from the start of its introduction in Italy some ten years ago. In Lombardy and Piedmont there is a well-established CLIL tradition at the primary level while in Veneto the first CLIL experiences at primary school are more recent. From the analysis of the questionnaires, we have outlined the professional profile of the CLIL teachers involved in this research. They are women and have a full time contract. Eight of them are in the 41-50 year old bracket and the average number of years teaching is twenty-three. Nine teachers are *specialisti* (teaching only the English Language), one teacher is a *specializzata* (teaching the English language and other subjects) and one teacher is teaching English at the lower secondary school after spending ten years as a primary school teacher. Half of them are graduates (Foreign Languages, Primary Education and Sociology) and have studied English at school and at university. Only one teacher declares that she has attended a private course of English instead of learning it at school. All of them attended professional training courses in the English language. Apart from one teacher, all the others have been to English-speaking countries. Most of them have attended several courses of English language teaching abroad. All the teachers declare that they possess a high competence in using the English language: five teachers state having a B2 level; three teachers have a C1 level and three teachers a C2 level. On the other hand, none of the teachers are proficient in another foreign language. Only two teachers indicate having a level of B1 in Spanish and Portuguese. Most of the teachers passed a test to obtain a certificate specifying their knowledge of the English language. They attend refresher courses at least once a year. Half of the sampled teachers are members of at least one association of language teachers and they often make use of English in their private lives (chatting, writing emails, and watching movies, reading books and magazines…).

We were particularly interested in data regarding projects related to CLIL. Each teacher reported taking part in at least one experimental project. In particular, most of the teachers from Lombardy took part in the ILSSE (Teaching Foreign Languages at Elementary School) project which presented significant innovations in English language teaching at primary school level (Benevene, 2000). The teachers from Piedmont took part in projects concerning the European Language Portfolio and the introduction of foreign languages at nursery school (ex art. 278). One of the teachers from Veneto took part in two research-action projects about the use of cooperative learning in English language teaching. All of the 11 teachers participated in CLIL projects implemented by regional education authorities or academic institutions.

Another important aspect concerns the experience as a teacher trainer. Apart from one teacher, all have assumed this role and most have been teacher trainers in projects related to CLIL. Four teachers have published either CLIL articles or books and teaching material at a national and even international level. As for their own training in CLIL, most of these teachers have attended academic post-graduate courses on CLIL, courses organized by local education authorities and foreign universities.

As for the number of years of CLIL teaching, teachers from Piedmont and Lombardy have ten years of experience while teachers from Veneto have fewer years of experience.

3. The perspective on CLIL from experienced teachers

According to the indicators set at the beginning of our research, a series of questions were developed to stimulate and record the teachers' reflections. In this way, their longitudinal experience could be deeply and organically explored.

3.1. Reflection

Significant impressions about CLIL can be obtained by analysing the second part of the questionnaire which asked the teachers to reflect on their CLIL experience. By reading the answers provided by the teachers, it can be seen that a process of reflection started off with the first answers as evidenced by such expressions as "*I was convinced that....but now I'm realising that...*", "*At the beginning I used to...but now I am convinced that...*", "*In the past I believed that...but now I find it easier to...*". These sentences are symptomatic of a consciousness raising process that leads the teachers to have an approach to CLIL that is different from the one they had at the beginning of their experience. They are personally reconceptualising CLIL. This dynamic change, favoured by the practical use of CLIL and by their strong training background, is very important in order to understand what teachers thought about CLIL when they started using it and what caused them to alter their views. By interpreting what teachers wrote, it is clear that their new perspective on CLIL is the consequence of a series of obstacles and restrictions that they had to face during their daily CLIL practice. They declare that in the course of time they gradually learned to cope with these and to create all the necessary conditions to overcome them. Some of the teachers firmly support the importance of being flexible, collaborative and creative when using CLIL. This idea is more sustained by the teachers with a longer CLIL experience. It is not surprising that in the last multiple-choice question these teachers answered that their CLIL experience is *extremely positive* while the teachers with a shorter experience judged it as simply *positive*. It is evident that the teachers who have already overcome a series of difficulties are more inclined to see the general experience as extremely positive than the teachers who are still facing a series of obstacles.

It is clear that some variables were underestimated by the teachers at the beginning of their approach to CLIL, such as the lack of specific CLIL materials and the consequent creation of new ones, the collaboration with colleagues to make CLIL work better and an accurate planning of the task to establish a balance between language and content. In spite of these problems, an important aspect of CLIL remained unchanged over time. It is represented by a steady belief in the effectiveness of CLIL. In particular, one of the teachers from Lombardy stated "*I have always been convinced that CLIL is an effective approach because I experienced it while studying Science at a British university. I realized that I was improving my English as well as my skills in the Italian language*". During the interview, she was asked to clarify in which way learning Science in English could have affected her Italian. She replied that she found the way of studying Science in English very different from the way she was accustomed to studying. She learned to synthesize, to organize her thoughts better and to be more immediate and concise in communication. These aspects affected her way of writing in Italian as well. In her opinion, an evident impact on the cognitive sphere took place, apart from the improvement of the linguistic and content dimension. It is interesting to note that other teachers have also underlined the benefits that CLIL provides to the cognitive dimension. One of the teachers wrote: "*CLIL is an opportunity to improve the language as well as the students' motivation but also their ability to synthesise"* while another one wrote that the English language allows students "*to learn how to learn the subject content, improving the linguistic, cognitive and social dimension*". A teacher from Piedmont asserted that "*CLIL activates both cognitive processes and a specific language that can't be framed in a sequential syllabus.(...) I believe that it is essential to analyse first the cognitive dimension of the target content in order to activate personalized teaching methods which may favour different cognitive styles and individual learning strategies. Secondly it is necessary to analyse the linguistic aspects of the content".* In one of the answers at the end of the questionnaire, the same teacher makes the point that teachers need to know the theoretical fundaments of CLIL, otherwise they risk venturing into unimportant projects characterized by simple translations of texts from Italian to English without paying any attention to their linguistic and content difficulties.

The issue of integrating language and content is built into the questionnaire from the very first question. When they are asked what they think CLIL's aim is, teachers answer in a variety of ways. However, in almost all the teachers' definitions the words *language* and *content* and the concept of *integration* are always present. For one of the teachers, adopting CLIL means "*teaching content through the English language using final tests both in English and in the mother-tongue language"*. For another teacher, CLIL is "*a methodology which integrates a target language with target content thanks*

to innovative techniques". It is interesting the way in which some other definitions have been linguistically given. It seems that these teachers want to underline the fact that CLIL does not have to be considered as an approach useful only for the language. They succeed in rendering this message by postponing the word *language* and placing more emphasis on the word *content*. In fact, one teacher states "...*learning contents and at the same time, learning, as a collateral effect of the interaction, a foreign language"* or *"CLIL allows students to master the fundamental concepts of content through English as a vehicular language"*. On the other hand, we do not exclude the presence of definitions where more emphasis is given to the language, such as "*I view CLIL as the utilisation of a foreign language (...) to transmit competences that are not exclusively linked to the language*".

3.2. Collaboration

According to the teachers, the integration of language and content is mainly possible through the collaborative and collective planning of work where different aspects should be taken into consideration. In particular, two teachers from Lombardy wrote: "*I learned to plan my lessons in a multidisciplinary way, including objectives, prerequisites, materials and tests typical of other subjects*" and "*I felt the need to include the cross-curricular competences in my planning*". The idea of what happens during the planning activity is brilliantly expressed by one of the two teachers from Piedmont who uses the word "*negotiation*" to mean the exchange of ideas between the language and the content teachers to avoid meaningless transpositions of content from one language to the other. As a consequence, another key word that is often used throughout the questionnaire appears. It is '*collaboration*' that, in the teachers' opinion, represents one of the conditions that ensures the success of CLIL. Some teachers registered an increase in collaboration with their colleagues thanks to CLIL while others blame their colleagues for being passive and interested in the project only when they have to '*communicate the new content topic*' to them. This means that they do not help in the planning and they '*don't take the idea of collaborating together seriously*'. As a result, the CLIL teachers feel alone and supported only by a few colleagues. One of the teachers identifies the possible reasons for this conduct as resulting from the increase of both the number of working hours and of the workload. On the other hand, two teachers reveal that although their colleagues show a real interest in the project, they feel that the lack of knowledge of the target language represents a real barrier for them. For this reason, they feel incapable of helping and prefer not to interfere with the project.

3.3. Materials

The constant exchange of ideas and the '*valorisation of one's own linguistic and disciplinary competences*' are deemed necessary by the CLIL teachers to grant a certain level of quality to CLIL projects. Help from colleagues is wished especially for the preparation of CLIL materials which, as strongly underlined in the literature (Coonan, 2002; Serragiotto, 2003), are insufficient in the Italian context. As reported by the teachers, one of the main obstacles for the development of CLIL is the lack of available materials. As a result, they must be designed, created *ad hoc* by teachers or adapted to the primary school level, using web resources and authentic texts as references. In fact, one of the teachers asserts '*Most of the material that I use is 'teacher-generated' in the sense that I adapt it to my class. (…) The authentic texts represent a great resource but it is necessary to pay attention to them because they need to be adapted both for the language and for the content to suit the level of the class'.*

3.4. Methodology

Most of the teachers underline that it is fundamental to use objects and lots of images in CLIL classes, especially to present new words. In their opinion, the most successful activities are the ones that imply the active participation and the realization of something concrete. For some teachers, it is better to pay more attention to oral communication while for others it is advisable to propose activities, such as filling tables, reading and matching, finishing incomplete sentences, and jigsaw reading, in order to stimulate the development of written communication. It is also important to arrange activities which favour the development of thinking skills. Activities that imply making predictions, hypothesizing, collecting and comparing data are reported as being part of the linguistic and disciplinary dimension, as well as the cognitive sphere. Specific strategies, such as, for example, repeating, reformulating and summarizing several times what has just been said, might be adopted to offer a rich input to students from the perspective of language and content.

Great emphasis is given by the teachers to the communicative environment which needs to be real, not simulated, comfortable and safe and where the students can feel free to express themselves without any anxiety. In particular, one of the teachers clarifies that in a CLIL context the emphasis should be on the fluency and on the intelligibility of the output rather than on the accuracy. Moreover, in order to create a relaxed atmosphere some teachers propose adopting some cooperative learning techniques. But regarding this point, some teachers are quite skeptical. One of them says that she tried to use them '*…but since my class was not accustomed to working cooperatively and since I didn't have any experience, I experienced many difficulties'*. Another teacher says that since *'cooperative learning is very complex*, *because it implies being used to a certain type of work and the correct use of the language, CLIL activities at primary school level can be better defined as collaborative rather than cooperative*'.

As for the difficulties encountered by pupils, some teachers reported their impressions on how their pupils usually experience an initial feeling of awe and fear at not being up to CLIL at the beginning of a project. Luckily, these feelings gradually disappear and pupils become more and more confident in the new environment. Another problem is the difficulty in using the language spontaneously, unless specific teaching activities are arranged to encourage the children to use it. One of the teachers explains this aspect stating that this limit is caused by the low level of the target language that does not allow pupils to express themselves freely. On the other hand, another teacher is convinced, on the basis of her experience, that passive language plays a decisive role in a following stage. In her opinion, what seems to be a lack of learning in the initial stage is only an impression. This is because the learning process is slower at the beginning, but it grants surprising results with the passing of time. In the teachers' opinion, CLIL generally motivates pupils to learn the target language. This is because they feel that the language they are using has a concrete goal and because they have the possibility to contextualize the language in a real and not artificial setting. From the point of view of one of the teachers, the pupils' attention is focused on the content and thanks to the use of '*all their learning channels, pupils overcome their inhibition in the linguistic output'.* Only one teacher asserted that CLIL does not enhance the motivation to learn the target language, because at primary school '*the foreign language is not a 'need' and for this reason it doesn't represent a real reason for an improvement of interest'.* The same teacher is also convinced that CLIL does not improve the pupils' motivation towards the content because '*the lack of proper strategies to facilitate communicative exchanges renders the process of learning the target content more tiring and more difficult*'. Another teacher asserts that CLIL does not improve the motivation to learn the content, because her colleagues adopt interactive strategies to teach their subjects and so their pupils do not perceive the difference between the *traditional* teaching and the CLIL one. The rest of the teachers are convinced that CLIL motivates pupils to learn content because they feel that they are learning in a more involving and interesting way and, although at the beginning they consider this experience a challenge, they are rewarded by the success of the experience.

4. Conclusions

The experienced CLIL teachers admitted having some problems throughout their experience in carrying out CLIL projects, such as the lack of materials available, the absence of collaboration in the planning stage, the lack of interest from the teachers of the same class or of the same school, as well as having difficulties in properly integrating content and language, and creating an authentic and real setting in the classroom. Although these problems are reported and discussed by the teachers, their overall impression of CLIL is positive. This can be explained by the fact that the teachers always propose a solution to each of the problems that is envisaged, thanks to their expertise and to their motivation. Of course, this attitude *to make things work* has generated over time an excessive or, as one of the teachers says, '*a very heavy*' workload for them. By reading the answers of the teachers, it is easy to understand that it is their passion for this approach and their firm conviction that it really works that leads them to see the positive side of the coin and to overcome possible obstacles. But some of these problems still remain ~~open~~ especially for those teachers who are new to CLIL. For this reason, in several answers, the CLIL teachers continuously ask for substantial and systematic training. One of the teachers says that CLIL '*has so far been characterized by a bottom-up push. Now it's time for an institutional top-down push!*' Moreover, the teachers suggest creating national and international virtual environments where it is possible for CLIL teachers to meet, to exchange ideas and materials so that '*saving time in creating what has already been designed by someone else'* can be possible. Moreover, they propose the institution of a centralized observatory on CLIL so that projects and experiences can be monitored and a network created. Another important need felt by some of the teachers is the connection between the school and the academic world. They wish the results coming from research and surveys on CLIL to be spread among teachers.

We firmly believe that an important aspect, notwithstanding present difficulties, that makes the teachers so enthusiastic about CLIL is the impact that it has on the way they teach outside CLIL contexts. The role of CLIL as a '*catalyst for change*' (Marsh et al., 2001, 51) and the '*real added value of CLIL*' (Ricci Garotti, 2007, 134) are clearly perceived by the sampled teachers. In their opinion the methodological innovations, the creation of a new context and new practices, are neither artificial nor simulated, helped teachers to become more flexible and to partially change their methodology and the way of organizing their non-CLIL. In particular, one of the teachers wrote that '*thanks to CLIL I could improve my teaching'.* Moreover, the new and wider way of planning CLIL actions seems to register a positive impact on the way these teachers generally plan. As we can read: '*I have re-used what I have learned in the CLIL context to plan my traditional lessons of English'* and *'My planning is now less fragmentary and more organic than before'.*

Another effect of CLIL is the improvement of the teachers' level of reflection. The CLIL teachers have learned to plan, to act and to teach differently. It is obvious that this shift was the consequence of a gradual process of reflection on what drives CLIL. Also, in the answers to some specific questions that implied a reflection on the development of their CLIL practice, teachers have demonstrated the ability to reflect and to motivate some of the changes. Their continuous learning and problem solving experiences and their constant reflection-in-action has contributed to render them, as Schön (1983) defines, *reflective practitioners*. And this is partially due to CLIL.

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What has Ecology to do with CLIL? An Ecological Approach in Content and Language Integrated Learning

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Abstract

This article discusses the role of the ecological approach in language and content integrated learning (CLIL). The ecological theory of (language) learning emphasizes the significance of context in learning. In this view, context is the primary provider of affordances that mediate cognition by means of artifacts, such as language. On the cognitive view, context is a secondary resource of the linguistic input that is operated by the acquirer's cognitive mechanisms. The practical implications of the views of language as a dynamic system and language learning as a dynamic, non-linear, unpredictable and ongoing process in the ecological classroom are discussed.

Keywords: ecological theory, ecological approach, cognitive approach, CLIL, affordance, context

Introduction

In spite of - or more likely due to - the popularity and spread of educational approaches which combine the teaching of content and language, there are a number of models being implemented ranging from full-blown immersion to occasional "language showers". Classroom level implementation, or teaching to be more precise, is likely to be inspired by both language teaching (e.g., communicative methods) and by content-specific pedagogies. Similarly, learning theories in general, language learning theories, and research into relevant content learning all likely impact on classroom practice.

We know that the study of learning is a complex endeavour and that it is probable that a comprehensive account of how learning takes place may never be completely developed. As well, the perspectives we adopt in our attempts to understand learning will vary over time. Looking at current research into (language) learning, it seems that the emphasis has shifted from the study of cognition (with the exception of researching brain function through the new technologies) to the study of context (Firth & Wagner, 1997). We are now living in a post-modern, post-method era, looking at learning as a socio-culturally defined phenomenon determined by the social and cultural macro context and taking place in a socially, culturally and ecologically determined micro context, for example, in the classroom. For some scholars, the shift from "the internal" to "the external" means that the locus of learning is entirely outside of the individual (the source of learning is the learner's interaction with the context), for others the interaction is the resource of learning and the role of the cognitive resources is important. This article will focus on the external factors; on the ecological approach.

An ecological approach: affordance

Let us start with exploring one of the key concepts in ecological theory - *affordance*. Take a moment and look at the picture (Figure 1). Then list some of the possible associations of the possible uses of what you see in the picture.

Figure 1. Pared de Lajas 6905 - Valles SLP México 2007 (photographer: Lucy Nieto)

The picture may have invoked a variety of associations and possibilities of action. These associations are some of the affordances of the object, i.e. they express the relationship that the viewer has to the object in the picture.

The term affordance was construed by J.J. Gibson (1979) as a concept in the theory of perception. For Gibson, affordance is a property of the object, invariant and independent of the viewer's perceptions of the object and it is immediately perceptible without mediation of any kind. For example, a chair's affordance is sitting (sit-on-able) and this affordance remains the property of the chair. The perception of "a chair" is enough; no language, cognitive or real mediation is necessary for the affordance of the chair. The same goes for other everyday objects, such as door handles. There may be cultural differences, but most people familiar with western, especially Anglo-American culture, would know what to do with the object in Figure 2, whereas the message conveyed by the picture in Figure 3 is mixed. This is due to the physical affordances of the object that are invariant and that we have become accustomed to acting upon. The handle triggers the pulling reaction, which is in contradiction with the text.

Figure 2. Door Knob (photographer: René Ehrhardt)
http://www.flickr.com/photos/rene_ehrhardt/page5/

Figure 3. Picture: http://www.iqcontent.com/blog/2007/01/the-usability-of-garda-doors/

So far, the discussion has mostly dealt with the original definition of affordances, i.e., physical affordances (Gibson 1979). However, there are researchers, who allow for artefacts (such as language) to mediate between the object and the perception. Thus, it is possible to view a mediated affordance as learning, not solely as immediate perception. The focus of this article is to discuss the potential implications of the ecological approach for integrated content and language learning.

An ecological approach: language

The ecological approach to language is based on characteristics of ecology, i.e. ecology is holistic, dynamic and interactive, and situated (Garner & Borg 2005). In contrast to cognitive views on language learning, which perceive language learning as a uniform cognitive process, the ecological approach views language as a dynamic and complex system with a great deal of individual variation in individual progress (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Table 1 compares cognitive

approaches to second language learning with ecological approaches. The latter place more emphasis on the context than the former and are thus relevant when looking at language learning in the framework of an ecological theory of learning. The two approaches are compared in terms of context, interaction and the learning of conceptual content, three dimensions that are crucial in content and language integrated learning.

Table 1. Context, interaction and learning of language and content as reflected in cognitive and ecological approaches to content and language integrated learning (modified on the basis of Järvinen 2008)

Cognitive approaches	**Ecological approaches**
Context is the source of input. Language learning is receiving comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982).	**Context** is the source of learning (ecological theory, sociocognitive approach).
Interaction is negotiating meaning & form. Appropriate questions (referential questions cause more interaction than direct questions), and feedback (extended IRF, elicitation, recasts, Lyster, 2007: 93ff) promote interaction.	**Interaction** takes place on many levels: dynamic (sub) systems (DST), learner and context. Interaction in the zone of proximal (ZPD) development results in internalization (=learning) (Vygotsky, 1986).
Content-specific language (**concepts**) is necessary for content learning (CALP, Cummins, 1991). Scaffolding (Bruner, 1990) is used to add support (context) to conceptual, context-free objects of learning. Thinking skills & related language (Mohan & Beckett, 2003), content-specific discourses (ESP).	Scientific **concept**s learning through affordances and/or in ZPDs is the starting point, then these internalized concepts are used to form new ZPDs at a practical level. (Vygotsky, 1986).

The cognitive perspective (Table 1) emphasizes the relationship of cognitive invariables and linguistic processes in learning. Context is seen as a relatively "passive" resource, whereas the ecological approach focuses on the primacy of context and individual variation in learning.

The following quote (Swain, 2006: 95 - 96) illustrates the difference between the cognitive and the ecological emphases, and in particular, the re-shaping of cognition by means of language. In Swain's terms, the cognitive is emphasised in *output* and the ecological in *languaging*. Swain's term *output* refers to her Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), which states that challenging language production (spoken output) is necessary for language learning beyond the intermediate level.[1]

> For some time now, I have been searching for a word that puts the focus in second language learning on *producing* language, but which does not carry with it the conduit metaphor (Reddy 1979, see SWAIN, 2006: 96) of 'output'. Output is a word that evokes the image of language as a conveyer of a fixed message (what exists as thought).

[1] The Output Hypothesis was a counter-reaction to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) which claimed that rich input was what was needed for successful language acquisition.

> Output does not allow at all for the image of language as an activity – that when a person is producing language, what he or she is engaging in is a cognitive activity; an activity of the mind. Individuals use language to mediate cognition (thinking).

The word that replaced 'output' is *languaging*. For Swain, languaging means not only the role of language as "a conveyer of meaning", but also, and in particular, the role of "an agent in the making of meaning" (Swain, 2006:96), which involves mediating cognition, that is, articulating and transforming thinking into an artifactual form, e.g. language. As a practical example of languaging, Swain quotes a study of biology students learning about the human circulatory system. The students in the study were advised to explain aloud to themselves in their own words the meaning of each sentence that they read, whereas the control group had been asked to read the article several times silently to themselves. The experimental group, the "languaging" group, developed a more profound and prolonged understanding of the circulatory system than the control group (Swain, 2006: 97).

The ecological perspective views the (rich) context either as the source of learning or as a prominent resource of learning. The learning (of language) emerges from the affordances and activities (activity theory), such as language use and interaction at the many levels shown in Table 1.

Let us next focus on language learning in an ecological framework. Table 2 below compares the cognitive perspective to language learning with an ecological one. The implicit assumption underlying language teaching is that language learning is linear, takes place in prescribed stages, is relatively stable and fixed, relies primarily on the cognitive mechanisms for construction and the products of the learning are implemented in communicative activities. Language proficiency can be described as communicative competence, which consists of subcomponents, such as discourse and pragmatic competences.

The ecological perspective views language learning as a process, the course of which cannot be predicted, because there is ample individual variation. The process is a dynamic one, containing phases of rapid progress and stages with seemingly very little development. The learning process is holistic and complex: no subprocesses or subcompetences are discernible, and the locus of the learning is in the social context yet still supported through cognition. The relationship between the learner-participant and the context defines the affordances and the resulting learning. Learning is actualised in action, (based on substantive and meaningful content born out of context), and rather than communicative competence, the emerging competence can be called symbolic.

Table 2. Cognitive and ecological approaches to L2 language learning (modified on the basis of van Lier, 2002, Garner & Borg, 2005, Larsen-Freeman, 2006, Kramsch &Whiteside, 2008)

Cognitive approach	Ecological approach
Goal =L1 competence, normative, prescriptive	No pre-set goal of language learning interlanguage=dynamic system, ≠L1
Product	Process
Linear	Non-linear
Fixed	Dynamic
Coherent	Complex
Stable	Emergent
Global	Situated
Analytic	Holistic
Cognitive	Social
Input	Affordances
Output	Languaging
Communicative competence	Symbolic competence
Communication	Action

The content and language integrated classroom provides an ecological environment for the learning of content and language. Such an integrated context is rich with opportunities for learning (Atkinson, 2002), or to use the terminology of the ecological approach: the context provides a number of affordances, (i.e. relationships between the learners and the context), which the learners then use within the limits of their resources.

What can function as affordances?

In content and language integrated teaching and learning, the affordances are necessarily mediated and rely on both learner and teacher participation. Knowing that affordances are available and learnable as part of the subject matter and as part of the learner's resources and her/his activity and action on the available affordances, it is likely that learners tend to vary in their use of affordances in the ecological context. An addition to the variation, unpredictability and situations of ecological learning comes from the dynamic and highly individual nature of language learning (dynamic systems theory).

Research into affordances has focused on studying corpus tools (Hafner & Candlin, 2007), gaming (Starosky & Salies, 2008), teacher's feedback (Wible et al., 2003), collaborative dialogue (Swain, 1997), first language support (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), and affordances created within the zone of proximal development (namely, microgenesis, Gánem Gutiérrez, 2008). In terms of methodology, classroom activity that fosters student participation, action, critical and creative thinking is likely to create affordances that are facilitative for learning. In CLIL contexts, an important source of affordances is provided by the subject matter itself. Content-specific affordances, such as subject-specific thinking and related thinking skills, subject-specific genres and registers, offer unique opportunities for fostering learning. These dimensions need to be identified as affordances and used to facilitate learning, or transformed to pedagogical implementations when necessary.

What ecological theory has to do with CLIL: opportunities and challenges

Ecological theory as a framework for learning in CLIL brings about an enhanced emphasis on the learning environment. Context with its affordances provides the learner with learning opportunities to be mediated and internalized by the learner's cognitive mechanisms. One important artifact to be used in mediation is language. Cognition is thus situated. As CLIL contexts and affordances vary and the learners' interaction with the available affordances varies, what we have is a highly individual dynamic process of learning.

For a teacher working in CLIL, simple awareness of the implications of ecological theory may involve a wider, deeper and more accurate understanding of available affordances and learning activities that are going on in the classroom. The application of ecological theory in CLIL is likely to bring about more versatile ways of providing affordances, in particular becoming aware of and identifying content-specific thinking and the ways in which this thinking is *languaged*. In sum, the ecological approach provides a more active, less mechanical, more dynamic and less linear option to learning both language and content in CLIL classrooms.

It is apparent from the background of the ecological approach that it is not a method with fixed techniques to be applied immediately in the classroom. Rather, it is a theoretical framework that can inform the choice of classroom level applications. This means that a teacher who wishes to adopt the ecological approach in teaching needs some creativity, initiative and effort. It is to be hoped that both ongoing (see e.g. Nikula 2002, 2005; Dalton-Puffer 2007) and future research into ecological learning will lead to practical applications as well as help understand learning and teaching in an ecological framework.

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Bilingual Education and the Emergence of CLIL in Poland

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Abstract

The paper aims to summarise the Profile Report on Bilingual Education in Poland. Prepared in cooperation with the National Centre for Teacher Training and Development (CODN) and the British Council, the Report presents the results of qualitative research conducted in lower secondary and secondary schools (except for schools following MYP and IB programmes). The main objective of the Report was to identify operating models and examine operating features of this type of education. In the paper the researchers will outline the methodology and the outcomes of the research with focus on curricular models of bilingual education in Poland. Moreover, the observed strengths as well as implications and recommendations for future practice will be discussed.

One of the major documents describing implementation of CLIL in the European countries was Eurydice's (2006) report *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*. This document placed Polish bilingual practice in a broader European context. In an attempt to gain a more detailed insight into the use of CLIL in Poland, the National Centre for Teacher Training (CODN) has been conducting research investigating teaching practice in schools using different content languages. Two reports on schools using French and English as a language of instruction have been completed and at the moment additional projects are being carried out on German- and Spanish- medium classes.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), bilingual education, bilingual report, curricular models, bilingual classroom

1. CLIL in Poland – General Information

Due to the immense popularity of CLIL all over the world, there are a significant number of schools in Poland which teach content subjects through the medium of a foreign language. Implementation of CLIL (practice) in education has been adopted under the name of bilingual education (*nauczanie dwujęzyczne)*. When this practice first started bilingual units opened only in secondary schools (nowadays students start this school at the age of 16 and finish at the age of 19), but after the Educational Reform in 1999 this type of education became present also in lower secondary schools (pupils start this school at the age of 13 and finish at the age of 16). Today there are more than 100 secondary and lower secondary schools with bilingual classes using English, German, French, Spanish and Italian as the languages of instruction in Poland. In order to be called bilingual, a school needs to offer at least two content subjects taught through a foreign language. The most popular content subjects, depending on the target language, are mathematics, physics, geography, history, biology and chemistry, and less frequently citizenship, music, physical, technical, and computer (ICT) education.

Geography appears to be particularly favoured as a CLIL subject among all languages. One reason for this has been said to be the global dimension of the topics. Another is the fact that it involves a focus on concrete 'here and now' issues.

2. The Profile Report (English)

The Profile Report (English) presents results of a project coordinated by the National Centre for Teacher Training and the British Council, Poland. The research was conducted in autumn of 2007 in bilingual schools throughout the country. This Report provides an overview of practice in Polish secondary and lower secondary schools which teach partly, or largely, through the medium of English. Nineteen schools decided to take part in the project and the researchers visited these schools in order to conduct a classroom observation and interviews with students and staff. The schools following MYP and IB programme were excluded from the research.

2.1. Aims of the research

The purpose of this study was to identify operating models, and examine operational features of bilingual education in Poland. The study should not be regarded as an evaluation, but as an overview of practice, intended to support the development of beneficial bilingual procedures within and across the schools. The project identified areas of strengths and weaknesses which helped the researchers to formulate a number of recommendations for future improvement. With a view to discerning regularities in bilingual education in Poland, the study helped to distinguish four operating curricular models, which derive from the adoption of differing approaches to bilingual education. Moreover, the research aimed at describing the implementation of bilingual practice in respect to four categories, i.e. teachers, students, schools and system, and finally, materials and resources.

2.2. Qualitative research

The findings of the Report are based on the qualitative research which consisted of observation of at least one English lesson and one content subject lesson in each school. Additionally, the researchers interviewed the head teachers or coordinators of bilingual streams, teachers and students.

2.2.1. Classroom observation

Each lesson was observed and described in reference to clearly stated criteria. The researchers' task was to characterise instructional approach, classroom setting, educational resources and the use of English. In case of content lessons the researchers paid particular attention to whether English was used as an effective tool of communication, i.e. how teachers made students aware of specific language aspects of the subject, and how they provided corrective feedback, and handled pupils' language problems. Moreover, the research team aimed at describing various teaching methods stimulating the pupils' output. The attempt was made to evaluate how content was affected by the language of instruction in terms of creating, analysing, applying, understanding and remembering the new material. Observation of subject English language lessons additionally aimed at identifying examples of formal instruction and language learning strategy training.

2.2.2. Interviews

The first part of the interview was addressed to **head teachers** or **coordinators** of bilingual sections and aimed at gaining further information about schools. One of the key issues was cooperation with external institutions and other bilingual schools in Poland or abroad. The European and international dimension of bilingual education was also emphasised. The interviewees were additionally asked to characterise how the school is supported by administration on municipal and state level. Problems concerning enrolment procedure, certification and external examination were also discussed.

While being interviewed, **teachers** were asked about their professional development and availability of training courses for bilingual teachers. They were requested to characterise cooperation with other bilingual teachers in preparing teaching materials, programmes or other initiatives. Finally, the teachers described their teaching method and attempted to indicate differences between the method used while teaching in Polish and English.

Students attending bilingual classes were asked to give their subjective opinion about advantages and disadvantages of attending a bilingual school. They presented their attitude to certification, mainly controversies around the bilingual final exam - Matura. The researchers were also interested in gaining knowledge about the learning strategies used by the students and their approach to thinking and using English e.g. in group work. Other important issues were the time the students spend using English outside schools and the use of the European Language Portfolio.

3. Teachers – Students – Schools and Systems – Resources and Materials

With its aim to achieve a general overview of practice in Poland, the Report not only identifies existing models of bilingual education, but it also points at the examples of good practice and reveals the areas for improvement. The findings can be categorised into four groups concerning teachers, students, schools and systems (the educational system and its operating agents - Ministries, Teacher Development Agencies, and Examination Boards), and finally, materials and resources.

As far as **teachers** are concerned, the following profile of the content and language teachers was observed. Teachers were mostly Polish with quite common experience of living and working in English-speaking countries and in some cases with experience of teaching abroad. They all showed enormous involvement in teaching, as work with bilingual classes was for them a great challenge as well as the source of personal and professional satisfaction. What was evident was their eagerness for further development. Aware of the significance of the access to resources and opportunity to exchange experiences for the achievement of best practice, the interviewees reported the great need for specific CLIL training programmes (also subject-specific), workshops, symposia, school visits, exchanges including periods of work or study in countries where the target language is spoken. Moreover, the demand for further development of teacher work partnerships (content-language; content-content) within schools was voiced. In order to ensure it, the practical support is required, enabling proper functioning of 'professional partnerships'. Another concern expressed by the teachers referred to lack of financial resources which are crucial for their own professional development.

Students, in turn, perceived bilingual education as prestigious, broadening horizons, giving them opportunity to study abroad. Among other advantages they mentioned access to an extensive range of topics and extra language lessons, studying in better conditions (smaller-sized classes, better learning resources) and participation in foreign exchanges. Being aware of all the benefits, they expressed, nevertheless, their disappointment rooted in the fact that English Matura in many cases does not provide credit for university entrance. Whereas English Matura is difficult and preparation for it requires much effort, students are not granted extra points. Within the disadvantages of bilingual education they mentioned also the lower standard of content subjects in comparison with mainstream classes, as well as the use of traditional methods of teaching. Unsystematic code-switching (Polish-English) was mentioned as another drawback

As for **schools and systems,** the European and international dimensions were one of the subjects of the analysis. Many initiatives were observed ranging from projects on multiculturalism, cultural festivals, European Union Programmes, to variety of extra-curricular activities. In spite of that, unfortunately, little networking between bilingual schools in Poland or abroad was reported. Towarzystwo Szkół Twórczych was one of few examples of such cooperation. Hence, the necessity to build the network which would enable the exchange of materials and experiences is undeniable. Creating conditions facilitating teamwork among the

teachers (e.g. embedding team meetings into the timetable) might also contribute to the increase of effectiveness of bilingual education. Furthermore, the need for greater external support from key stakeholders, namely national educational administration, was clearly voiced by the interviewees. Without concrete regulations concerning curricula and insight into Matura exam the standards of excellence in bilingual teaching will not be achievable. The provision of a bigger range of teacher training is also expected and awaited.

Finally, within the category of **resources and materials** lack of clearly specified bilingual education (English) curriculum was mentioned as the problem underlying confusion among the teachers. The words of one of the content teachers seem to prove such status quo: "My feeling is that when it comes to bilingual classes, there are no rules, no sets of advice available in Poland." As a result, one of the main observed problems concerns the preparation for the Matura exam. There is no teacher training in this field. Moreover, the Central Examination Board (CKE) does not organize mock bilingual Matura exams and denies both the teachers and the learners access to copies of bilingual Matura exam sets in content subjects used in previous years. The CKE information booklet lacks necessary information; therefore, the teachers prepare the students to bilingual Matura exams without the knowledge of its content, structure and the assessment criteria ("We prepare our students intuitively to the bilingual Matura exams, as no support is provided" English Teacher)**.** Both students and teachers also expressed their frustration resulting from poor access to materials in English. The problem with books adjusted to Polish educational requirements was the reason for additional constraints. Because of their high price and, what is even more important, unsuitability because of culturally-bound discourse approaches, the imported course books do not satisfy Polish students and teachers' needs. Hopefully, the situation will improve soon, as first course books written by Polish authors have been recently published. As far as other materials are concerned, undoubtedly, higher quality of teaching could be also achieved by employing technological teaching devices such as classroom data projectors and portable computers, which, unfortunately, not all schools are equipped with. Certainly much more attention should be given to the provision of quality visual materials both in language and content classrooms.

4. Curricular models

The curricular models which are to be presented below are the outcome of the observations carried out by the research team in bilingual classes. There are four curricular models of bilingual education in Poland which are further divided into subcategories depending on the adopted educational approach.

Model A: (Teacher-based instruction with use of tasks requiring student pair / group work).
Extensive English Language Medium Instruction
During the classes it is mainly English which is used for teaching and learning. Polish is only used for translation of terminology and a brief summary of learning concepts. Within this model two other types were distinguished:

Type A
Single Focus: the main focus is on content. English and Polish are referred to only occasionally, especially in terms of pronunciation or spelling.

Type B
Dual Focus: the focus is on both content and language (English or Polish). While teaching content attention is given to language as well, however, the degree of focus is different form lesson to lesson. In most cases, it is the content that becomes more important.

Model B: (Mostly teacher-based instruction with limited use of tasks requiring student pair / group work).
Partial English Language Medium Instruction (Code-switching English-Polish)
English and Polish are used for teaching and learning. There is about 50% of time devoted to the use of each language. This model can be further subcategorised into two types.

Type A
Single Focus: the focus is only on content. The degree of code-switching between English and Polish is significant, depending on the purpose.

Type B
Dual Focus: the focus is on both content and language. Both languages are used during the lessons – English and Polish with a lot of switching between the two languages. While teaching content, a lot of attention is given to the English language. Like in the previous model the degree of focus is different depending on the lesson. In most cases content plays the dominant role.

Model C: (Mostly teacher-based instruction with limited use of tasks requiring student pair / group work).
Limited English Language Medium Instruction (code-switching English-Polish)
Both languages are used for teaching and learning (English or Polish). From 10% to 50% of time is devoted to the use of English language; code-switching is used for different functions during the process of teaching and learning. Two other types can be distinguished within this model:

Type A
Single Focus: the focus is mainly on the content. Polish is mainly used during the lessons with occasional instances of the English language. There is also quite a lot of switching between the languages depending on functional conventions.

Type B
Dual Focus: the focus is on both content and language (English or Polish). English is very often used during the lessons; however, it is the Polish language that remains the main language of instruction. There is also quite a lot of switching between the languages, however while teaching content the attention paid to languages is of lower importance. The degree of focus varies from lesson to lesson.

Model D: (Variant techniques do not allow for selecting a single type of instructional approach)
Specific English Language medium Instruction
English and Polish are used for teaching and learning. Only limited amount of time is allocated to the use of English. There are a few different types of model D:

Type A
A sequence of lessons taught in Polish is followed by a lesson conducted mainly in English. This technique aims at consolidating the material covered in the earlier course of the lessons.

Type B
A lesson which is mostly taught in English but concludes a lesson in Polish; as in type A above, it aims at revising the previously covered material.

Type C
The materials used in class are in English; however, the lesson is conducted in Polish.

Type D
A large portion of the content material has been acquired earlier in Polish. Then the knowledge is recapitulated in the form of project work prepared and presented by the students in English.

5. Concluding recommendations

All the above described report findings allowed to formulate concluding recommendations. The recommendations will be divided into **practice** (the schools where bilingual education is implemented) and **systems** (the educational system, Ministries, Teacher Development Agencies and Examination Boards).

In case of **practice**, it is important to:

- help schools with stating as well as implementing objectives of bilingual education into curriculum;
- form teacher and school partnerships;
- encourage teachers to join professional networks connected with bilingual education e.g. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Network (CCN) by showing them the benefits of the networks;
- provide the teachers with opportunities to develop their second language proficiency in all skills (B2 rank according to the Common European Framework of Reference);
- encourage the teachers as well as the learners to use the European Language Portfolio;

In case of **systems**, it is important to:

- create a curriculum for Matura which can be taken in English;
- provide teachers as well as learners with some preparation materials for Matura in English as well as with mock exams;
- provide uniform teaching resources which would be used by all teachers in order to achieve standardization;
- provide teachers with opportunities to take part in teacher trainings devoted to bilingual education;
- provide teachers with opportunities to take part in meetings where they could share their experience, get access to materials or work on curriculum development;
- persuade higher education institutions to take into account secondary level bilingual education streams during student application process;
- help to establish and support cooperation between schools and higher education;

If the above mentioned recommendations are to be implemented, there is a great chance that bilingual education will become one of the most powerful educational streams in Poland, especially in the times when knowledge of a foreign language is not enough anymore. What matters is both content and language.

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Needs Analysis in a CLIL Context: A Transfer from ESP

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Abstract

Needs analysis became very popular during the 70s and the early 80s (Munby, 1978; Richterich and Chancerel, 1980). These studies focused on two main aspects: target-centred and student-centred objectives, that is, the needs related to the situations where students will need the language and the knowledge and gaps students have when starting the course. Not many studies of this kind have been carried out in the latest years and, up to now, needs analysis seems to have been applied mainly to ESP (English for Specific Purposes), for syllabus design and materials development. Although there are many differences between ESP and CLIL, we believe needs analysis is a useful approach that can be easily transferred. Needs Analysis can be applied to CLIL to define the programme and to establish the needs of teacher training, materials and specific means. Finally, several important questions should be answered about the students, such as the methodology of teaching that students are used to. The aim of our contribution is to make a proposal for the use of needs analysis in CLIL programmes in Higher Education.

Keywords: CLIL, needs analysis, ESP, Higher Education, teacher training

1. From English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to CLIL: common features

ESP[1] is the term that has traditionally been used for the courses which aim at teaching the English language needed for specific situations, mainly related to academic or occupational contexts. Several works deal with the developments in the field (i.e., Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; García Mayo, 2000; Fortanet-Gómez and Räisänen, 2008), but we would like to focus on the features that relate ESP to CLIL. One of the first and most widely accepted definitions of ESP (Strevens, 1988), states that it refers to the teaching of English which meets the needs of the learners, and is related to the content of particular disciplines, occupations and activities. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 9) tried to shed some light on the relationship between ESP and General English by offering a very interesting perspective, which presents English Language Teaching as a continuum that ranges from General English courses to English for Specific Purposes courses.

[1] Needless to say that although we mainly refer to the teaching of English as a foreign/second language, we understand the whole article can be applied to any foreign/second language. Therefore, terms such as LSP (Languages for Specific Purposes) will alternate with others, such as ESP.

GENERAL →

SPECIFIC

Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	Position 5
English for Beginners	Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on particular skills	EGAP/EGBP courses based on common-core language and skills not related to specific disciplines or professions	Courses for broad disciplinary or professional areas, for example Report Writing for Scientists and Engineers	1) An 'academic support' course related to a particular academic course. 2) One-to-one work with business people

Figure 1. Continuum of ELT course types (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 9)[2]

Recent research on CLIL clearly establishes its relationship with LSP. Greere and Räsänen in a report on a LANQUA Subproject on Content and Language Integrated Learning (2008) state that "CLIL should be seen as a continuum of various pedagogical approaches which aim to facilitate learning" (ibid: 5); they define this continuum as consisting of 6 steps:

1. Non-CLIL: Non-concern for language learning, no pedagogical collaboration;
2. LSP/ Discipline-based language teaching: language specialists providing discipline-specific LT to support learning, no systematic collaboration with subject specialists;
3. Pre-CLIL (language): pre-sessional teaching of language to support student's learning of the content, collaboration language-subject teacher, language learning outcomes specified according to content learning needs;
4. Pre-CLIL (content): language learning expected due to exposure, but outcomes not specified, implicit aims and criteria, rare collaboration of subject specialist with language teacher;
5. Adjunct-CLIL: language support coordinated with/ integrated in subject studies, which takes place simultaneously, joint planning between teachers and specified outcomes for both content and language; and
6. CLIL: fully dual approach and full integration of language across subject teaching by subject specialist or team teaching.

One important part of this continuum is LSP or discipline-based language teaching, which in Figure 1 is identified as Position 5, "an 'academic support' course related to a particular academic course". However, the relationship between ESP and CLIL is not something new, since already in 1997 well-known literature supported the link between ESP (or EAP, English for Academic Purposes) and CBI (Content-based Instruction), for many a predecessor (Soetaert and Bonamie, 2008), or a synonym of CLIL (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007):

> English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and advanced disciplinary English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts provide additional support for advanced level CBI programs (Grabe and Stoller, 1997:16)

[2] EGP stand for English for General Purposes; EGAP stands for English for General Academic Purposes; EGBP stands for English for General Business Purposes; ELT stands for English Language Teaching.

Some other studies have also pointed out the link between ESP and CLIL (Mahbudi, 2000; Huan and Normandia, 2007; Fortanet-Gómez and Raisänen, 2008). There are researchers who even state that "content and language integrated learning (CLIL) ha[s] greatly influenced the teaching of ESP as [it] incorporate[s] meaningful authentic language processing [...]" (Orna Montesinos, 2006: 645).

Needs analysis (NA) has been one of the main contributions of ESP, which has only scarcely been applied to General English (Seedhouse 1995), and due to the relationship between ESP and CLIL, we consider it can also be a good contribution to CLIL.

2. A brief look at needs analysis

Needs analysis, as a term related to language teaching, first appeared in the 1920s (White, 1988; West, 1997). However, it became popular in the decade of the 70s and early 80s by means of some major publications which were associated to ESP teaching such as those by Richterich and Chancerel (1980) or Munby (1978).

A huge amount of literature has explained what needs analysis is and how it has been worked out through the years (see Long, 2005 for an accurate revision, but also Tajino et al., 2005; Cowling, 2007, among others), although we are obviously focusing our attention on needs analysis related to language learning, that is to say, the communication necessities required in specific contexts. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) consider NA as one of the key stages in ESP, being the others course and syllabus design, selection and production of materials, teaching and learning, and evaluation. According to their definition, based on previous works, NA is "the process of establishing the "*what* and *how* of a course" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 121). Not being unique to language teaching or ESP, "needs analysis is the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course" (ibid: 122).

Several researchers have been concerned with methodological issues involving needs analysis (see Taillefer, 2007 for specific references). From a critical viewpoint, Long (2005) introduced a new methodology for needs analysis that involves using and comparing two or more sources and methods in order to add breath and depth to the analysis, which can be an important means of validating findings (Long, 2005: 63). His proposal includes sources and methods used in other studies but presented in a more accurate and systematic way. Among the sources are published and unpublished literature, learners, teachers and applied linguists or domain experts, and the methods include expert/non-expert intuitions, interviews, questionnaire surveys, ethnographic methods, etc.

Following previous approaches to the topic (see Munby, 1978; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; or Robinson, 1991), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 125) propose a kind of eclectic and complete model of needs analysis in ESP which should determine:

- professional information about learners: target situations they will use the English for;
- personal information about learners: factors affecting the way they learn (such as previous learning experiences, motivation, or attitude to English);
- English language information about learners: current proficiency of the language;
- learners' lacks: gap between their knowledge of English and their target situations;
- language learning needs: effective ways of learning skills and language to fill in their lacks;
- professional communication information about the language and skills used in the target situation;
- what learners want from the course; and
- environmental situation of the course.

Although we do not know any research involving all these aspects or needs to be analysed in CLIL, there are examples which illustrate the research on some of those specific areas listed above. Most studies have been devoted to analyse certain specific needs of CLIL programmes in primary and secondary education. For example, de Graaff et al. (2007) report on short- and long-term effects of CLIL on target language proficiency, so focusing on the language learning needs. Similarly, Van de Craen et al. (2007) review previous literature to support the main benefits of the CLIL approach in comparison to traditional approaches, involving learning needs

but also other complementary factors to the learning process (attitude, motivation or cognition). On the other hand, Vázquez (2007) explains the situation in Germany after forty-five years of implementing bilingual or CLIL programmes. Through her analysis, she describes the pros and cons of the programmes, and calls for further needs analysis on the language used in CLIL classes and on the specific teaching methodologies for CLIL, among other proposals. Other studies from the point of view of needs analysis are reported by Mehisto (2007, 2008). After piloting some CLIL programmes in Estonia and gaining experience, he shows several concluding considerations and needs to be considered to successfully implement those programmes in the future, such as taking into account the environment in which the action tales place (involvement and support of stakeholders) as well as the learning environment, the personal information about the learners, their language needs, etc. These are just a few examples of the research carried out in primary and secondary education related to needs analysis (see Marsh and Wolff (2007) for further studies).

At the tertiary level, there seems to be a minor provision for CLIL (Dafouz et al., 2007: 90), and consequently less research has been carried out. Wilkinson (2004) and Wilkinson and Zegers (2008) include some chapters related to needs analysis. Other researchers have also reported on some studies which search for personal information about the learners in relation to their attitudes towards certain activities and skills (Kavaliauskienė, 2004) or about their attitudes and their teachers' to the implementation of CLIL programmes in a university context (Dafouz et al., 2007), but research also refers to the learners' professional information, such as their needs in the target situation (Flowerdew, 2005). It seems that up to now most of the studies on needs analysis and CLIL at the university are related to implementing this approach for the professional development of the learners.

NA has been proven to be highly relevant for the design and development of any kind of ESP course. In the following section we try to demonstrate that NA can become a link between ESP and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), and how NA may become necessary to apply a CLIL approach in higher education.

3. The context of Needs Analysis for CLIL

As commented above, there has been a development in the number of sources and methods of collecting data in the process of needs analysis for ESP. However, in previous literature there is scarcely any reference to the context, that is, people and institutions that may have a strong influence on the success or failure of the learning programme. ESP teaching is focused on the language teacher and the learner. Discipline teachers and domain experts, as well as published and unpublished literature, can provide the language teacher with valuable information to design the most appropriate syllabus for a group of learners, but have not been usually considered as stakeholders.

When dealing with CLIL, the responsibility of the learning process is no longer focused on the teacher, not even shared by teacher and learner, but affecting a much larger number of stakeholders. Figure 2 shows the relationships between stakeholders in the CLIL programme in Higher Education.

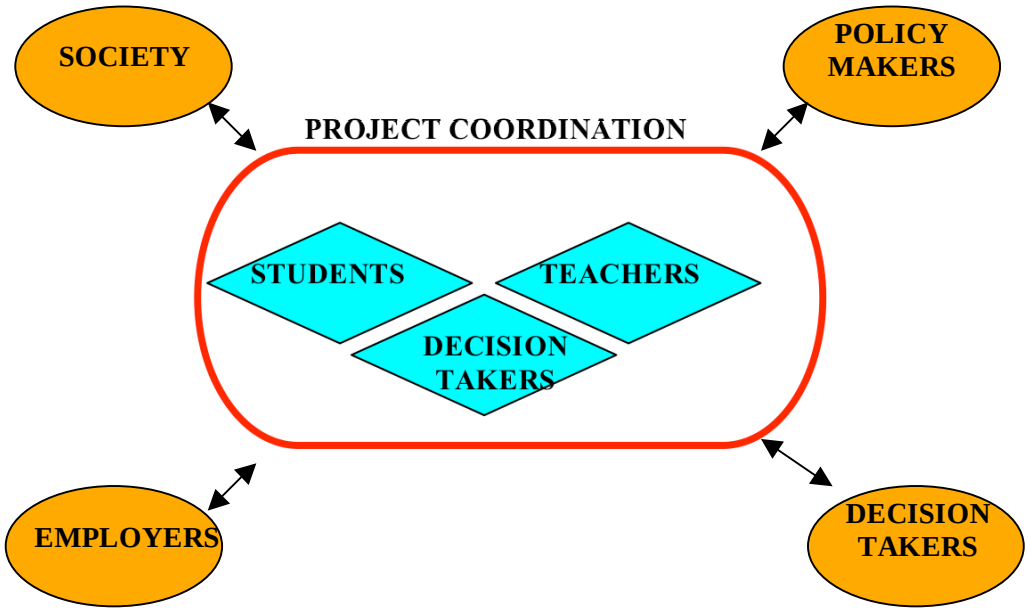

Figure 2. Stakeholder's relationships in a CLIL programme

Some of the main contributors to the success of a CLIL programme are usually policy makers and higher level decision takers, external participants of the programme. At the highest institutional level in Europe, the European Union institutions (the Council of Europe and the European Commission, mainly in this case) have been constantly issuing principles and directives since 1982 to promote multilingualism[3], and since 1993 they have approved actions and projects to support Content and Language Integrated Learning (Marsh, 1998). This has had an effect on national and regional governments which, in turn, have persuaded schools and universities to look into this matter. However, very often principles and directives show interest but offer few facts or applications.

Also essential for the successful implementation of the CLIL programme is the positive involvement of the social environment. CLIL has to be known and valued by current and future students, employers, institutions, and even teachers not directly involved in CLIL programmes. The way the programme is presented to them will very often determine its social acceptance.

Once a favourable atmosphere has been created, the CLIL programme has to be designed specifically for an institution. A coordinator is an essential participant in this process, the person responsible of collecting all the information for the needs analysis from the external and the internal participants in the programme, in order to establish the objectives, the timing, the resources needed, etc. S/he is also responsible of the follow-up and constant support, as well as the assessment and final evaluation of the programme.

As internal participants in the programme, decision takers, that is, in Higher Education university chancellors or rectors, need to be informed by experts about what CLIL is and how a programme for their institution could be developed, so that they can contribute to design the specific programme for their institution and commit themselves to support the programme.

The direct participants in the CLIL programme are teachers and students. They need to receive information and be assigned a certain role in the programme. In the CLIL environment, it can be either language or subject teachers, or both, who are involved in the programme. The decision on the teachers involved will also have an effect on the students' needs, as well as the objective of the programme. In the next sections, the three different types of NA are explained in detail.

[3] http://www.coe.int, http://culture2.coe.int/portfolio//documents/0521803136txt.pdf, http://www.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/Keydoc/actlang/act_lang_en.pdf

4. NA for the design of the CLIL programme

As said above, the design of the CLIL programme should be the responsibility of a coordinator with a good knowledge and expertise in CLIL. The information that should be collected can come from documents such as laws and rules, which may restrict the possibilities of the programme. Other sources of relevant information can be the decision makers, the teachers and the students in the institution, without ignoring the external participants: society, future students, and policy makers. The methods of collection can range from reviewing published documents to interviews or questionnaires. The results of the NA should be the basis of the institutional programme.

5. NA for CLIL teachers

In order to guarantee the success of the CLIL programme, it is necessary to make sure the teachers are provided with the support and the training they need. NA, by means of interviews, questionnaires, language audits, tests, or class observation, can provide information about the wants and lacks of teachers. The choice of the profile of the teacher, either a language or a subject teacher, or a team including both, will be related to the learning objective decided for the programme, which can be learning content through a foreign language, learning a foreign language through a specific content, or learning both content and language with the same level of importance.

The command of the language may be a difficulty in some situations, both regarding the general language and the specific discourse of the discipline (ESP), especially when it is the subject teacher who has to teach using a foreign language. However, very often it is the specific methodology of CLIL, which involves a combination of the methodologies for subject and language teaching, which may pose most problems. In CLIL both the language and the content components are important, and more strategies to support understanding and learning have to be included. There may be a need to focus on linguistic aspects, to use visuals, or to implement repetition and consolidation exercises (Deller and Price, 2007). Though difficult to attain, a close collaboration between the subject and the language teacher, including team teaching, would be an ideal situation.

Another important factor to consider is the means and materials that may be needed to apply a CLIL approach, what Dudley-Evans and St John called *means analysis* (1998). The results of a complete NA will unveil teachers' needs and wants, in order to provide them with the suitable training and support, in the case of deciding to involve in the programme existing staff. Another possibility is to recruit new teachers with a suitable profile. These new teachers should have already received pre-service training on CLIL. There are still very few countries where this specific training is provided. NA can also shed some light on what should be taken into account to design pre-service training for CLIL.

6. NA for students in CLIL programmes

The methodological approaches usually associated with CLIL are learner-centred and related to constructivism and to social interaction (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lyster, 2007). Constructivism supports that learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas based upon their current knowledge state (Bruner, 1990). The importance of social interaction relies on the fact that learning and teaching is founded on students-teacher linguistic communication, and that this communication is the prerequisite for later internalization of what has been said as knowledge or competence (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000). It is thus important to pay attention to three main aspects:

- content, what students need to learn;
- method, how they can learn it; and
- language, the means to learn.

Regarding content, subject teachers of the discipline need to be consulted, as well as partner universities in the case of providing CLIL also for exchange students. By means of meetings and formal and informal interviews, a general agreement should be reached on which subjects are most suitable to be taught in the foreign language. This could be related to the *target situation analysis* proposed by Munby (1978).

Previous learning experiences were also pointed as relevant information in NA by previous literature. However, in CLIL there should be a combination of methodologies related to language learning and to discipline learning, in order to guarantee the subject is methodologically integrated in the curriculum, and at the same time it is paying enough attention to the social interaction essential for language learning. In order to raise CLIL teachers' awareness about the different methodological approaches, we propose class observation, or the use of journals or blogs.

Thirdly, the NA related to language should observe the situation of students previous to the beginning of the course regarding general foreign language level, and specific discourse of the discipline, since a certain knowledge of both is necessary in CLIL. This could be done by means of tests and interviews.

Additionally, it will also be interesting to observe other more subjective aspects related to the motivation and attitude of both teachers and students regarding the implementation of the CLIL programme.

Going back to the triangulated methodology proposed by Long (2005) for NA, it seems to be most relevant for CLIL programmes, since it is not enough to do the three types of NA proposed so far. The results will have to be compared in order to establish the content to be taught in relation to the level of the students related to language (both general and specific), as well as the best methodology to be used. Moreover, factors such as material and human resources should also be considered before designing the programme.

7. Final remarks

The aim of this article was to present the main developments of needs analysis as related to the ESP approach, and to see the possibilities of transferring this methodology to the context of CLIL. In order to do this, two important differences have to be taken into account: the focus in these learning approaches, English language learning in the former and both content and language in the latter; and the context in which they are implemented, whereas ESP is usually presented as isolated courses aimed to respond mainly to the language needs of a certain group of individuals, CLIL involves a much larger number of stakeholders, since contextual factors need to be considered in order to create a favourable background that can guarantee the success of the programme.

NA in CLIL can be found related either to the teachers' needs or to the students' needs. Although the recent developments in NA for ESP (Dudley Evans and St John, 1998; Long, 2005) in terms of sources or methods of collecting data can be easily adapted to CLIL, they have never been introduced in a frame including both teachers and students. Moreover, a CLIL programme presupposes a needs analysis including a previous negotiation with the institution which has to decide on the objectives of the programme and a positive social atmosphere as a background to its development.

Additionally, the whole programme has to follow a series of consecutive steps: the teachers' NA should lead to a number of actions such as teacher training courses and provision of the necessary means. Only after these actions have been accomplished should students' NA be carried out.

In summary, the planning of a CLIL programme has a complex procedure and NA is only part of it. Up to now there have been some holistic programmes such as those described by Escobar-Urmeneta and Pérez-Vidal (2004) or Mehisto (2007, 2008) for primary education, though to our knowledge, nothing has been attempted at university level. In any case, a complex procedure like this requires coordination, which should correspond to a team of CLIL experts, able to explain what CLIL consists in, to assist in decision-taking, to organise the several steps, as well as the support and follow-up of the programme, and to assess and evaluate the outcomes.

8. Further research

Much still needs to be done in terms of NA for CLIL. Our aim in this article was to establish the theoretical background, as a point of departure. In the near future it is our intention to apply NA in institutional programmes at the three levels of education: university, secondary and primary education. These NA should shed some light on the answers to questions such as the following:

- What are the social and institutional needs that recommend the implementation of CLIL in Spain?
- What are the needs of learners regarding CLIL?
- Is it possible to talk about the need for a specific CLIL methodology?
- Does the CLIL teacher need specific skills? Should they be acquired in pre-service training?

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The Potential of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): The Case of English as a Second/Foreign Language

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Abstract

In this paper we examine how several Educational Technology applications and Blended learning can facilitate Content and English Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). More specifically, in section 1 of this paper we discuss the main conditions which have formed the teaching ideology of CLIL and in section 2 we make proposals as to how Information Communication Technologies (ICT) can contribute to the realization of the pedagogical, educational and language learning goals of CLIL. In section 1 we illustrate how CLIL encourages and guides students towards the development of a significant number of competences, skills and learning strategies. In section 2, first, we refer briefly to the ICT benefits in education; next, we define blended learning and we illustrate how the World Wide Web (hereafter Web) can be taken advantage of for the supply of CLIL Multimedia activities; then, we explain how the Web can be used for Web quest and project work in the context of CLIL and in which ways concordancers may facilitate linguistic study; last but not least, we examine how the Internet can be harnessed for Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) and for the compilation of online collaborative projects.

Key Words: Blended learning, Multimedia activities, Web quest, project work, Concordancers, Computer Mediated Communication

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a fast emerging and expanding, multidimensional learning environment. It aims at enhancing both the learning of second, foreign languages and school subjects (Eurydice, 2005). CLIL has sprang from the need of modern societies and educational systems to motivate students to build substantial knowledge on many content areas of school curricula, foreign language competences, computer literacy as well as life long learning skills and strategies.

CLIL is multi faceted as it accommodates subject specific content and language learning and at the same time it caters for the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence, the understanding of internationalization and the development of the personality of the student (Marsh et all, 2001). ICT has a multimodal and vital role to play in CLIL, since it caters for the media and the resources that can enhance multidisciplinary learning, and provides the means that stimulate, guide and facilitate students in their effort to express themselves adequately and effectively in the target language (hereafter L2).

Section 1. The scope and the main tenets of CLIL

1.1 CLIL: A multi faceted learning environment that strengthens motivation and enhances the development of mental processes

CLIL targets at promoting the cultivation of positive attitudes towards learning by offering the students opportunities for using the target language naturally to expand their knowledge in various fields of study. Research in L2 has shown that students are motivated when they use it as a tool for communication, and when they see the purpose for mastering a language (Vlachos, 2005 and 2006). In CLIL developing L2 language skills has always a purpose: to use the L2 to acquire non linguistic knowledge. Learning is dual focused and covers two broad educational areas: 1. Using L2 to elaborate content, discover new information and expand non linguistic knowledge; and 2. Learning how to use the L2 accurately and appropriately (Marsh, 2002). Since both educational areas are in need of equal attention, language learning is viewed as holistic, which implies that the target language is seen as the medium both of instruction and of learners' communication. L2 is perceived as the main means the learners use to explore the world. It is expected that language learning is realized in a context where students investigate, decode and understand the technological and cultural achievements as well as the existing values and attitudes that constitute modern societies. It is, therefore, felt that project work is fully compatible with CLIL, because when working with projects, students are offered the chance to explore media with information with a view to synthesizing products that exhibit the new knowledge they have acquired. We refer to project work in more detail in section 2.

Since language learning is used for exploring new non linguistic knowledge, CLIL students are not just invited to study the linguistic system of the target language; they are required to move beyond linguistic competence and start reflecting on the content of the subject areas being studied and on the learning process, 'thinking' and 'reflecting' in the target language. Training the learners to 'think' in different languages (the mother tongue and the L2) promotes the development of their mental processes and conceptualization (Marsh, 2008). Viewing the world from different perspectives, being able to decode new information based on new thinking horizons, using frames of reference that have been enriched with elements taken from different cultures and value systems broaden the way students think and learn. They progressively become able to adopt learning strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, social etc.) that enable them to internalize and consolidate previously acquired information and look for new knowledge. It can, therefore, be asserted that except from linguistic competence, more competences and skills are expected to be developed through CLIL. As we explain next, pragmatic, sociolinguistic and strategic competence need to be enhanced in a CLIL learning environment.

1.2 CLIL: competences and learning strategies

The basic methodology adopted in CLIL is encouraging students to learn by 'doing things' and by collaborating (Marsh, 2002 and 2008). As it has already been stated, CLIL students are engaged in an active exploration of the world and in experimentation, using the target language and communicating among each other. In this act of collaboration and negotiation of ideas, the emphasis is on meaning and effective peer cooperation and, hence, the development of good interpersonal skills is seen as a requirement. On the other hand, accuracy and effective expression is another condition that has to be fulfilled, if collaboration is to bring the desired educational results. Thereafter, since learning is active and it is realized through cooperation and exploration, CLIL students' attention needs to be drawn to:

1. The L2 linguistic system and accuracy, so that there are no gaps in the act of communication with their fellow students and teachers (linguistic competence);
2. The content of the messages they express, in order that they can fulfil their communicative purposes (pragmatic competence);
3. the development of compensation strategies that enable them to overcome linguistic barriers in the L2 and express themselves adequately, using rephrasing, alternative expressions, body language, etc. (strategic competence);

4. The profile of the students with whom they communicate, so that they can get used to taking into account their interlocutors'

a. language skills and capacities in the target language;
b. cultural backgrounds;
c. existing knowledge in the non linguistic topic being investigated;
d. attitudes to learning, etc., with a view to attaining common non linguistic purposes (sociolinguistic competence).

Furthermore, CLIL students are expected to be able to use the L2 for a variety of communicative purposes. People who share the same language, for example English, use it in different ways, taking into account the social context in which interaction is embedded: they can act formally or informally, show respect or intimacy, etc. In CLIL students learn to use the target language in different contexts, studying a variety of scientific fields, developing and expanding the language spoken in the classroom, learning the terminology used in the school subjects taught, cultivating the academic skills that are necessary for processing scientific texts and expressing themselves in the written language etc. (Marsh et all, 2001). Moreover, since a communicative language learning methodology is adopted, CLIL students need to experience collaboration with students from other schools within the same country or across different countries and, thus, be offered chances for building intercultural awareness (as we explain in section 2, the students' contact with different cultures and the development of intercultural awareness can be realized through Computer Mediated Communication). In other words, the aim in CLIL is that graduates will be able to comprehend and use different styles and varieties in the L2, taking each time into consideration the social context and the circumstances under which they will have to communicate. Let us now refer to the pedagogical principles adopted in CLIL.

1.3 The pedagogical orientation of CLIL

Social constructivism and cognitive psychology have been established at the heart of CLIL instruction and, therefore, students are seen as active constructors, who resort to their world experiences and schemata so that they can examine carefully new topics of study in the classes of the various disciplines taught at school. Instruction and activities are built on students' interests and experiences, respond to different learning styles and intelligences (Gardner, 1983) and challenge children to take another step forward, evaluating their progress in specific learning outcomes.

The teachers act as 'facilitators' and 'mediators': they guide students, exploit past experiences to build new knowledge and help children set goals in learning; they let learners take initiatives, repackage information and encourage collaboration; they 'mediate' between the world outside the classroom and the students, and support them in their inquiry by providing authentic input, feedback and incentives for thinking and reflecting. As we support in section 2, ICT provide the media and the applications that facilitate CLIL students in their inquiry for linguistic and non linguistic knowledge and experiences, and cater for opportunities for active learning, for experimentation with the target language, for collaboration and for the development of competences and strategies.

Section 2. ICT in CLIL: Some proposals

2.1 ICT benefits

There is no doubt that ICT have had an enormous impact in education in general and in language learning in particular. This paper draws the readers' notice to the Web, the Internet, Multimedia and Concordancers. A large number of benefits are attributed to these educational technologies, according to the relevant literature. Among many others one could list the following:

- enhanced levels of motivation,
- students' active participation and self expression,
- opportunities for:
    - ⇒ authentic language use,
    - ⇒ increased language input and output,
    - ⇒ increased learner participation,
    - ⇒ using the target language in meaningful situations,
    - ⇒ student collaboration and socialization,
    - ⇒ developing language and intercultural awareness,
    - ⇒ working across the curriculum, etc. (Peterson, 1997; Singal, 1997; Slaouti, 1997; Somekh & Davis, 1997; Warschauer & Whittaker, 1997 etc).

2.2 Blended learning

In this paper our notice is drawn to blended learning, which is defined as using a combination of face-to-face and online teaching methods to facilitate learning (Singh and Reed 2001). In blended learning educational technologies are seen as tools students use to explore and master new knowledge. Instruction and learners' active participation are kept at the 'heart' of learning. Online technologies are not used for the sake of novelty. They are combined with traditional learning in the classroom and are systematically integrated to the students' advantage. Blended learning, which is reported in the literature to offer opportunities for facilitating creativity, higher order thinking and meaningful learning, views the Internet and the Web as integral components of any contemporary educational system (Vlachos 2006).

In CLIL, where content learning is of equal importance to language learning, Educational Technologies cannot be seen just as additional elements, since they provide students with resources with updated information, presented in a sophisticated way. In CLIL, blended learning may provide the guidance and support students need in their exploratory adventure, and does offer the potential to trigger critical thinking that lets new knowledge be assimilated. As we explain in sections 2.4 and 2.5, project work is a methodology that enables teachers and students to combine face to face teaching methods with online learning in the most effective way. The examples we provide illustrate how the Web and the Internet can be used in a CLIL blended learning environment.

2.3 Multimedia activities in the Web

The Web caters for authentic input in the English language and, therefore, CLIL students can use online resources to work on different non linguistic subjects without needing to resort exclusively to course books. Learning can be organized on the basis of educational materials that are available online and are reviewed, enriched and improved regularly. An example of a site with educational material that can be accessed free of charge is the "BBC schools learning resources for home and school" (http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/). The site provides activities for CLIL pre school and primary school learners on a variety of subjects such as geography, history, literacy, music, numeracy, science, etc., as well as materials and activities for CLIL secondary school students such as art, business studies, citizenship, design and technology, English, geography, history, math, music, PE, science, etc. The materials are presented in the most fascinating way through Multimedia, i.e. there is sound, video and animation. The students can either work individually in the classroom and at home or cooperate in groups at school. The activities are graded according to subject and difficulty, and target at developing all students' intelligences and learning styles.

It should be mentioned, though, that CLIL teachers who intend to use the "BBC schools learning resources for home and school" site need to keep in mind the fact that the teaching and learning materials are designed for native speakers of the English language and it is, therefore, possible that CLIL students might have linguistic difficulties when completing the activities. It is, hence, advisable that blended learning is used, and students are prepared linguistically before processing the digital texts on the particular site. A face-to-face preparation stage is always necessary not only to introduce students to new linguistic items and language functions that will help them to decode the digital texts and collaborate with their fellow students, but also to activate their background knowledge, and to prompt them to associate previous knowledge with the knowledge that is to be acquired next. This stage also helps them to set goals and expectations, and encourages them to make decisions regarding the learning process that is to follow.

2.4 Web quest and project work

Web quest and project work constitute another blended learning methodology that can be very effective in CLIL. There is a wide range of sites in the Web providing information on a significant number of topics for study. Students can access Wikipedia, which is a Web based free content encyclopaedia, to retrieve and to elaborate information. Wikipedia, which is written collaboratively by volunteers from all around the world, has grown into one of the largest reference sites and includes more than 10.000.000 articles in more than 250 languages. It is continually updated and includes topics on art, biography, geography, history, mathematics, science, society, technology, etc. Furthermore, except from Wikipedia, there is a selection of official sites with information which have the advantage of being delivered through Multimedia. CLIL students can work individually or collaboratively to gather information to make power point presentations in the classroom, to fill in questionnaires, to create posters to be exhibited in the classroom, to compose postings to upload in the Internet, etc. Web quest and project work need to be organized in several distinct stages to facilitate content and language learning:

A. Planning

(*face-to-face learning*)

Students' previous knowledge is activated and new linguistic items are introduced so that they will be facilitated while decoding digital texts and animated graphics and collaborating. In addition, at this stage the students and the teacher specify and discuss the expected learning outcomes, the product of the web quest (power point presentation, poster, etc.), the procedures and steps to be followed, the collaboration modes (pair work-group work), error correction methodology and anticipated difficulties. Furthermore, the teacher may provide examples of similar projects.

B. Implementation

(*online & face-to-face learning*)

The students access hypertexts and select information. They take notes, fill in diagrams and questionnaires, use online dictionaries to find new words and try to express themselves accurately. They cooperate with other groups or individual students so that they can be assisted when coming up against linguistic and subject specific difficulties. They use hyperlinks to visit new hypermedia and make selections.

C. Creation of the product

(*face-to-face learning*)

The students, either in groups or individually, prepare the product of the web quest. If the product is a written text, they use the word processor and follow the stages of process writing: they make drafts which they improve; they elaborate content and expression, and revise before editing. They present their work in public.

D. Evaluation

(*face-to-face learning*)

At this stage the students and the teacher evaluate the products of the web quest. They also reflect on the process of learning, notice specific difficulties they met while browsing the web and discuss ways of overcoming future problems.

E. Follow up activities

(*face-to-face & online learning*)

The students are offered more subject specific and linguistic practice. They fill in exercises, solve problems, and associate previous with new knowledge. The focus is on consolidation and expansion. As far as linguistic practice is concerned, language focus activities, which may aim at raising consciousness in the linguistic system of the target language, may be part of this stage. Using concordancers and corpora can be effective at this stage of language analysis.

The concordancer is a programme that lets the user explore how words sit within specific texts. It studies a collection of written and/or spoken texts, known as corpus, and analyses them by calculating occurrences & presenting the frequencies of these occurrences in isolation or in collocations (Kettemann, 1996). An example of a well known corpus is the British Language Corpus, a 100 million word collection from a wide range of sources http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/index.xml).

When using the concordancer, the students have the role of the 'detectives', who hypothesize about how specific language items are being used in the text, e.g. observe how adjectives of frequency are used by exploring a bank of texts to search for actual examples (Johns, 1991). The learning process in a corpora learning environment is cyclical (Sinclair, 2004). First, students select relevant information using the concordancer, e.g. they type an adverb of frequency in the concordancer, which works like a search engine (Robb, 2003). The concordancer accesses the corpus and provides instances where the specific adverb of frequency is used. The students construct hypotheses as to how the specific linguistic item is used. Finally, they resort to resource books, and answer exercises to verify or dispute their hypotheses, before they move on to a new investigation.

Larkin concordancer (http://www.concordancesoftware.co.uk/) and Lextutor concordancer (http://www.lextutor.ca/concordancers/concord_e.html) are available online. It has to be explained that concordancers can be used for linguistic exploration either at the preparatory or at the follow up activities stages of the web quest and project work or of online collaborative projects, which are presented in the next section.

2.5 Computer Mediated Communication via the Internet and online collaborative projects

Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) via the Internet includes synchronous technologies (Internet Relay Chat, MSN or Yahoo Messenger, MOOs, 3D environments etc) and asynchronous (email, forum areas or bulletin boards and discussion lists, etc.). Our attention in this paper is focused on platforms of communication which may be used for CLIL students' collaboration. These platforms can cater for either or both synchronous and asynchronous collaboration, and can be supported by a number of mobile devices (wireless laptops, mobile phones, digital interactive TVs, iPods etc). It is up to the CLIL teacher and students to decide on which mode of communication (synchronous, asynchronous or both) and which devices they will select for their interaction.

The platforms can be used for the creation of online collaborative projects in which CLIL students can communicate with other students on a national or an international level to exchange information, to elaborate issues of common interest and to create common digital materials that are published in the Web, so that they can expand their knowledge in various school subjects and develop intercultural awareness. The target language is the vehicle of communication and the benefits in terms of language learning are considerable. It is reported in the literature that CMC via the Internet provides a context for authentic communication as it offers a feeling of reality and a purpose for language production; it enables the teachers to supplement curriculum work with online discussions; it enhances autonomous learning and promotes equal opportunities for participation in the learning procedures, since the shy students are given more chances to interact with others through online collaboration (Warschauer, 1996 and 1998, etc.).

CMC requires a lot of organization from the part of the teacher. A methodology that can be adopted for the integration of CMC in the educational programme of a CLIL class is the creation of an online networking scheme, in which the teacher arranges with other teachers to link their classes on a sister class basis with a view to compiling a series of online collaborative projects. An example of an online networking scheme that linked learners from three primary schools from Finland, Greece and Spain was the "Euro e-pals" (Vlachos, 2006). The scheme, which was used in the context of a PhD research and studied blended learning, lasted for two school years, and its purpose was to let learners consolidate and expand the linguistic and non linguistic knowledge they had acquired through their conventional, non electronic lessons at school. When the scheme started, the participating learners attended year 5 at their schools. They had developed similar skills in the English language, which was the target one, and were at an A1 level, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL, 2001). Seven online projects were produced throughout the two school years the scheme lasted. The participating learners elaborated subject specific topics such as the environmental problems in the areas the students lived, the literature of each country, Physical Education, sport activities and representative athletes from each country, Christmas and Easter traditions, as well as hygiene and good health habits.

For the interaction of the participating learners a platform of asynchronous communication was created and was available in the Internet. The learners, who worked in groups of 3-4 children, could:

- download the teaching/learning materials that prepared them for the online communication;
- communicate among each other and exchange electronic messages;
- upload the digital materials they produced, using the word processor.

The teachers used the platform to:

- download the analytic lesson plans that described the aims and the teaching steps of each online project;
- exchange electronic messages with the other participating teachers and the coordinator of the scheme (the researcher) for feedback provision.

It should also be added that the teachers and the coordinator communicated regularly using mobile phones and video conferencing.

For the teaching of each one of the seven online collaborative projects, and the effective organization of the asynchronous communication, a learning-teaching framework was created. The framework, which was named as "The Framework of Intercultural Asynchronous Online Communication" (IAOC framework), was founded on Willis' 1996 Task-Based Learning Framework. It included four stages:

A. Preparation of the learners

(face-to-face learning)

The learners were introduced to the topic of study (e.g. folk stories from our country). Background knowledge was activated. New non linguistic information was presented in the classroom. New linguistic items, language functions and text types were taught.

B. Exchange of the electronic messages

(*online & face-to-face learning*)

At this stage the groups of learners composed letters that conveyed cultural information. The texts, which included animated graphics and photos, were corrected by peer groups, edited and uploaded to "The Euro e-pals" website.

C. Synthesis of reporting texts

(*online & face to face learning*)

The groups reported the information they had collected through the online communication and commented on the similarities and differences between their culture and the cultures of their overseas partners. They uploaded the reporting texts to the website.

D. Follow up activities

(*face-to-face learning*)

This stage included consciousness raising activities in which the "Euro e-pals" learners observed some of the mistakes they had made in stages 2 and 3, and were given extra exercises with a view to improving accuracy. They also reflected on the text types and the content of the texts they had received and composed, and they thought about how future texts could be improved. In the CLIL classroom this stage may include extra non linguistic problems and activities, in which the students can be offered extra practice in the topic being elaborated.

When the seven "Euro e-pals" online projects were completed, the data that had been selected (digital texts and replies to questionnaires) was processed with qualitative and quantitative methods. It was found that when online networking is systematically integrated in the curriculum, learners are given ample opportunities for:

1. consolidating and expanding the linguistic and non linguistic knowledge they have acquired in their everyday, non electronic lessons;
2. enriching their intercultural experiences and expanding their knowledge in overseas civilizations;
3. developing communicative writing skills, such as selecting the appropriate genre, text type and register that facilitate intercultural communication;
4. developing learning strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, social, compensation and affective strategies);
5. cultivating competences (linguistic, pragmatic, strategic and sociolinguistic);
6. using creative thinking and reflection in their effort to solve problems common to all three participating schools (e.g. environmental problems);
7. realizing that it is essential in communication with international speakers that they show tolerance and understanding towards their interlocutors' cultures and codes of verbal and non verbal expression;
8. developing awareness in:
    a. their native language and culture;
    b. the language and culture of the target language; and
    c. their interlocutors' mother tongue and culture, as well as the necessary skills to mediate across them.

For further details and an in depth analysis regarding the evaluation procedures and the findings of the PhD research, the reader can study Vlachos and Athanasiadis, 2005; Vlachos, 2006; Vlachos and Papefthymiou-Lytra, 2008.

Concluding remarks

In this paper it has been asserted that CLIL is a multi faceted learning environment in which students are expected to learn to "think" in more than two languages and to develop a number of competences and learning strategies. It has been argued that online Multimedia activities, Web quest, concordancers, CMC, project work, blended learning and Social Constructivist pedagogy and Cognitivism educate students to approach and understand the contemporary scientific and technological achievements of our world. They also encourage them to show knowledge of the social conventions of modern societies, and to act as intercultural speakers of languages, who show tolerance and understanding towards the diverse culture(s) of interlocutors they might have to cooperate with in international encounters. Last, it has to be emphasized that the teaching and learning frameworks presented in this paper can be adjusted, expanded and enriched by the CLIL teachers, who may add to or alter them, taking into consideration their teaching situation and social and school context.

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