



ASOCIACIÓN ESPAÑOLA  
DE LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA

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*Revista*  
*Española de*  
**LINGÜÍSTICA**  
**APLICADA**

MODELS AND PRACTICE IN CLIL

Francisco Lorenzo  
Sonia Casal Madinabeitia  
Virginia de Alba Quiñones  
Pat Moore (eds.)



VOLUMEN MONOGRÁFICO (2007)



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Producción Gráfica: Reproestudio, S.A. - Logroño

I.S.S.N.: 0213-2028

Depósito legal: LR-415-1997







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## INTRODUCTION

### Models and Practice in CLIL

FRANCISCO LORENZO  
SONIA CASAL MADINABEITIA  
VIRGINIA DE ALBA QUIÑONES  
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The focus of this publication is CLIL, a new umbrella term for bilingual – content and language integrated – education, which has been spreading throughout Europe since the mid-nineties. CLIL has found an impetus both in the decades-old negative reputation which has tainted foreign language education, rendering it unresponsive to idealised competence standards, and in pan-European moves towards pluriculturalism and plurilingualism.

The adoption of CLIL in the European arena has been rapid and widespread. In 2006 there were pilot CLIL projects involving between three and thirty percent of the pupils in all European nations bar six (Denmark, Greece, Cyprus, Lichtenstein, Portugal and Iceland) according to the official European Network in Education, the 2006 Eurydice Report. This has led to official bodies like the European Council of Modern Languages voicing concern that “the implementation of CLIL is outpacing a measured debate about the impact on students and teachers of using an L2 as the medium of instruction” (ECML 2007: 11)<sup>1</sup>. It is clear then that the need is now for consideration, study and observation of how CLIL is working, which is precisely the goal of this collection.

Studies like the ones in this volume are of interest in the international arena, as CLIL is an international phenomenon. But the question is of even more import in the Spanish scenario, where the approach is especially common. In Catalonia, Galicia and the Basque Country, alongside other areas in Spain with their own national tongues, the potential for immersion education was realised at an early stage. Now, other markedly



monolingual areas have recognised that CLIL arrangements could meet their educational challenges regarding plurilingualism. The *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo* in Andalusia and the Bilingual network in the Comunidad de Madrid encompass meaningful instances of the emergence of foreign languages as vehicles of instruction in state education. Many other territories in the State are following suit.

This volume is intended to be a contribution to the study of contemporary CLIL. In their capacity as advisors, educators and teacher trainers, the editors have become increasingly aware of a need for printed materials focusing on the implementation of CLIL. Questions range from the theoretical to the practical, and may be generalised or localised. This publication has been conceived as an attempt to reflect upon some of the most common questions. We hope that it will be of use to a wide audience in the sector: administrators, teacher trainers, practising teachers and teachers in training in both content and language areas.

The book is divided into two sections. The initial part looks at learning theory in CLIL. The reader will identify an initial preoccupation with the linguistic side of things which is largely justified by the opening chapter in which Carmen Muñoz discusses some of the shortcomings of the traditional (North American) immersion model and ways in which European bilingual models, exemplified by CLIL, are seeking to redress the content-language balance. In his chapter, Francisco Lorenzo reflects upon the sociolinguistic implications of CLIL, exploring why and how the new teaching approach responds to the dire need for 21<sup>st</sup> century Europe to meet its standards in the terrain of language learning and social cohesion. Carmen Pérez Vidal continues with the theme, discussing the role of Focus-on-Form in CLIL classrooms with an exploratory study of teachers' practices in Catalan classrooms. Next the focus shifts to learning theories in general as Sonia Casal Madinabeitia outlines the basic tenets of a constructivist approach, suggesting that an understanding of constructivism is vital to an appreciation of the aims of integrated curricula and CLIL. The next chapter of this section turns its attention to teachers' production as Emma Dafouz discusses a series of university lectures given by non-native speakers, illustrating ways in which they go beyond the transmission of factual information and use language to encode multifaceted interpersonal relations which also play a significant role in the learning process. In the final chapter, reporting on part of a Madrid-based longitudinal study into the linguistic needs of bilingual students in the Social Sciences, Ana Llinares and Rachel Whittaker outline the adoption of an SFL approach to analyse a corpus of students' oral and written production in comparison with the language used in their textbooks.

The second part of the book focuses on more practical questions. In discussions relating to bilingual education in Europe, Germany is frequently held up as a model. Graciela Vázquez's chapter provides a retrospective overview of bilingual teaching and research in Germany over the last forty years which emphasises the diversity of praxis at grassroots levels and outlines factors which the German experience suggests can contribute to successful CLIL.



## INTRODUCTION

One of the goals of this publication was to produce something which might be instrumental in offering solutions to teachers. Much troubleshooting is needed in CLIL scenarios. Teachers have found themselves exploring new terrains and en-route they have made the discovery that their itineraries and maps are outmoded. In homage to those who believe that the change is worth it, the final part of the book addresses the didactics of CLIL in the hope that teachers may find inspiration and solutions. John Clegg deals with the language demands of CLIL, outlining categories which teachers can employ in their analysis of content-related language demands. Switching the focus to students, Kay Bentley then outlines practical ways by which teachers can both increase STT (student talking time) and communicative efficiency. In the final chapter Pat Moore explores the potential for content teachers to enhance the language in their classrooms both through modelling and encouraging a wider lexical range.

In closing, the editors want to thank the contributors for their work and their willingness to collaborate. Everyone on our initial wish list agreed to participate and we have been very lucky in managing to gather a well-balanced selection of expertise and *savoir faire* from in and out of the country. In a more institutional vein, we would also like to thank the Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Andalucía both for funding bilingual research over the years (one of the major outcomes of which is this publication) and also for tasking us with INSET training for state bilingual school staff. At their behest, we are able to expand and develop our research into the interface of language and content in education.

## NOTES

1. See European Council of Modern Language *Help Files* at <http://www.ecml.at/help/detail.asp?i=168>





# PART ONE

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## CLIL IN THEORY



## CLIL: SOME THOUGHTS ON ITS PSYCHOLINGUISTIC PRINCIPLES

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**ABSTRACT.** *This paper aims to reflect on the psycholinguistic principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). To do this it looks at four essential components of second language acquisition: exposure to input, the processing of meaning, the processing of form, and language production. Through these, this study analyses the adequacy of the traditional model of language teaching and the immersion model (or semi-immersion, in content-based teaching) from the point of view of language acquisition. With respect to traditional language teaching, this paper highlights important weaknesses in relation to limitations of input, quantitative as well as qualitative, the lack of motivation to process meaning and form and the scarce language production of learners. Teaching through content or through immersion also presents some limitations due, in particular, to the lack of focus on form. Finally, this paper presents CLIL as an alternative that could overcome the deficiencies of the previous models.*

**KEY WORDS:** *CLIL, Second Language Acquisition, Immersion, Teaching through Content, Input, Focus on Form*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In the European Union the field of second language teaching and learning is experiencing the enthusiastic growth of a pedagogic and educational orientation towards the integration of language and content in the classroom. In fact, the speed at which Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has spread across Europe since 1994 has surprised even the most ardent of advocates (Maljers, Marsh and Wolff 2007: 7). A descendent of the Canadian immersion programmes and the North American content-based language teaching programmes, and strongly based on the linguistic necessities of the European Union (viz the decisions taken at the Conference of Barcelona 2002), this orientation is extensively known by the English acronym CLIL, which was translated in



Spain as AICLE (Adquisición Integrada de Contenidos y Lengua Extranjera) (see Navés and Muñoz 1999).

There are many hopes for improvement that CLIL has provoked and encouraged in our context, for which reason it seems a good idea to pause to reflect on the psycholinguistic principles of this initiative. The first part of this work presents some basic components of the acquisition of second languages which allows us to analyse the practice of CLIL from the point of view of language acquisition. In the second part, certain weaknesses in traditional methods of language teaching, as well as in content-based teaching or immersion are presented, to finally argue that CLIL could mean an improvement with regard to each of those methods.

## 2. PSYCHOLINGUISTIC PRINCIPLES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

We start by considering four essential components for the acquisition of a second language: exposure to input, the processing of meaning, the processing of form and language production. These components correspond to the stages of information processing: input, central processing and output (see Skehan 1998).

### 2.1. EXPOSURE TO INPUT IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE

Twenty years ago, Krashen in his Input Hypothesis defended the argument that exposure to abundant input was the requirement for the acquisition of a second language (1985). According to him, what the learner needs is to be exposed to comprehensible input at a level slightly superior to their own ( $i+1$ ). Although it has been shown that to have comprehensible input alone does not guarantee language acquisition, the need to have sufficient input has been defended from different angles recently. For example, this need has again drawn attention to the argument as to the reasons for which children make slow progress in the learning of foreign languages in regular school programmes (see DeKeyser 2000; Muñoz 2006)

Learners' input should satisfy other conditions, in addition to comprehensibility and quantity. It has to be authentic, to guarantee that it can be used to a communicative end, and it also has to be varied, to guarantee that it can be used in different contexts and accomplish all the functions for which language is required.

### 2.2. THE PROCESSING OF MEANING

Exposure to comprehensible input implied, according to Krashen, the processing of that input by the learner. In other words, it was understood that the presence of comprehensible input at the correct moment is the necessary catalyst through which language is processed and which results in changes in the learners' linguistic system, without them even being conscious of it. For some time now, such a simple model has



been shown to be incomplete in that it does not take into consideration other components which are necessary for language processing, mainly memory. The contribution of memory, working memory as well as long-term memory, is considered essential in current models of information processing. On the one hand, the learner has a memory of limited capacity available, working memory, which extracts input that is relevant to understanding. At the same time, the knowledge of context that a person has in their long-term memory is activated and helps to process the input (Skehan 1998)

### 2.3. THE PROCESSING OF FORM

The learning of a second language also requires the processing of the forms in which meaning is expressed and, for this reason, attention plays a fundamental role. Two models have been especially influential in the last decade: that of input processing (Van Patten 1996) and that of Schmidt's *noticing* (1990; 2001). Among the principles of Van Patten's model of input processing, two are particularly interesting. According to the first, learners process input for meaning before they process it for form, that is to say they process content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) before grammar words (such as the plural suffix). The second principle maintains that for learners to process form that is non-meaningful (such as verb endings), learners have to first process the informational content or meaning at no or little cost to attentional resources. As a consequence, Van Patten proposes that learners should be taught strategies for processing the input such as, for example, preparing them to spot past verb forms or time adverbs when the language is being used to refer to the past, in a way that helps the learners to make the link between form and meaning.

Schmidt (1990) argues that there is evidence that not all the input has the same value and only that which is noticed becomes available for intake. What is interesting about Schmidt's proposed model is how the influences that determine which elements of input the learners will notice stand out. He maintains they notice more a) frequent forms, b) forms that are prominent perceptually (phonologically or for their position) and c) those features that are brought into awareness by instruction. Schmidt also proposes other influences of a more individual type: d) individual differences in processing ability, e) individual differences in the level of readiness with regard to the language system that each learner or group of learners has at a specific moment (for example, if the learners are already using the auxiliary form of *do*, in English, they are better prepared to assimilate the form *does* into their repertoire) and f) task demands (for example, some tasks require the use of adverbs or past tense forms or plural forms). These influences act on the working memory, activating consciousness (Robinson 1995) in a way that the elements that are noticed can be rehearsed, modified and incorporated into long-term memory (Skehan 1998).

In summary, input processing starts in working memory, where it is transferred for storage into long-term memory in which it is assimilated into the second language system, causing, when relevant, a reorganization of that same system. It is important to



note that to initiate this process the learner should be in a state of alertness, which is easier to achieve when they are motivated by the communication itself, that is, when the learner is interested in understanding the input.

#### 2.4. LANGUAGE PRODUCTION

The last essential component of learning is production, which constitutes the output of language processing. Swain (1995; Swain and Lapkin 1995) formulated the Output Hypothesis in contrast to Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Through this hypothesis Swain highlights the weaknesses that result from a teaching methodology dedicated exclusively to providing input without demanding complex verbal production from the learners. This was a lesson learned from research into Canadian immersion programmes, in which the learners were not encouraged to process linguistic form, as will be seen below. As well as this, from a psycholinguistic point of view, the requirements for processing understanding can be more superficial than those of production, in that very often the context can help understanding without the need to process the syntax of the utterances that are supposed to be understood. In contrast, the process necessary to produce a linguistic message requires the analysis of the different possible forms with the aim of choosing the most appropriate and, in the context of formal learning, the most accurate ones. Another benefit that is worth pointing out is that the same verbal production, once articulated, can make the learner aware of their errors and motivate correction.

The Output Hypothesis highlighted the importance of error correction in the classroom. It caused Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (2004), among others, to investigate the reaction of teachers in the face of learners' linguistic errors in immersion programmes. Their studies revealed that in communicative lessons, in which attention was only focused on meaning, the teachers did not tend to overtly correct errors of form but tended to respond with correct reformulations of the learners' incorrect productions. These reformulations are often ambiguous and do not clearly show the learner error, as in the following example:

Learner: It's boy...

Teacher: It's a boy, yes

What it shows is that, in a context in which attention is focused exclusively on meaning, learners do not process reformulations from the view point of form and so the reformulations are not really effective in correcting their linguistic deficiencies.

As a result, it is proposed that learners should have numerous and varied opportunities to speak and write, in different contexts and with different aims (taking into account all the possible linguistic functions) (Swain 1990). It is evident that to achieve this activities and teaching methods have to be adapted to the needs and interests of the learners, and they have to be meaningful (it is not the same thing to repeat a dialogue that appears in a textbook as it is to talk in front of a real audience; nor is it the same thing to



write a text practising certain structures as it is to write an e-mail to another adolescent with whom the only language of communication is the target language).

### 3. WEAKNESSES IN EXISTING MODELS

#### 3.1. TRADITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the context in which the target language is a foreign language which is not present in the wider environment, learning takes place exclusively in the classroom. The weaknesses of traditional, non-communicative teaching, with regard to the essential components of learning that we have just looked at are:

- a) A traditional programme does not provide learners with enough input. Such programmes are normally limited to 2-4 classes a week in which the use of the foreign language by the teacher occupies a small, often very limited, percentage of the time.
- b) Input is not always authentic. This is typical in a lesson which is non-communicative and in which the language is treated as an object to be analysed, from which some elements can be memorized (vocabulary and verb forms, for example).
- c) Input is functionally restricted. This is because in a non-communicative lesson input is limited to that provided by the textbook or, in the best case scenario, the typical functions of the classroom (the teacher's instructions, giving out material for an activity, etc.)
- d) As input is not real and communicative, it is not motivating and learners do not need to process it.
- e) The processing of form is realized through the teacher's explanations (explicit instruction). Given that the formal elements are devoid of meaning the learner is not motivated to make the mental effort needed to consolidate the formal elements and incorporate them into their linguistic system.
- f) The linguistic production of the learners is limited and it does not require deep processing either, so learners lack the motivation that is stimulated by real communication.

#### 3.2. IMMERSION PROGRAMMES AND CONTENT-BASED TEACHING

The pure communicative base of immersion programmes promoted the use of the second language as a vehicle of instruction for the content of the curriculum of different subjects and as the medium of communication in the classroom. Although immersion programmes are highly adequate and results are optimal in comparison with other language teaching/learning models, research has revealed some deficiencies. Specifically, research has found that although learners' second language comprehension ability after many years



of immersion was similar to that of native speakers (French in the case of the Canadian programmes), their production was very far from being correct or even adequate in diverse situations. This can be explained by the fact that in these classrooms the teachers believed that communicating in the second language was enough for the learners to learn the language and for that reason little attention was given to form or to error correction, as noted earlier. In this case, the learners were only focused on meaning, as the communicative movement (following Krashen) required .

Research in these immersion classrooms as well as in classrooms where content was taught through the medium of a second language brought Swain (1990: 234) to conclude that “*not all content teaching is necessarily good language teaching*”. The weaknesses of these approaches that Swain highlighted are the following:

- a) Content teaching only focuses on meaning and does not allow for pedagogic intervention with respect to the form of language. This is based on the belief that the learning of the target language will automatically result from the learners receiving meaningful and relevant (and for that reason motivating) input. However, very often a teacher will accidentally give an inconsistent model, such as in a class of beginners when the time expressions for the present and future are used with reference to a past event with the aim of making the event more real to the learners, as in the following example:

Teacher: In 1492 Columbus and his ships arrive in America.

And what will these men find in the New World?

- b) Content teaching is functionally constrained. That is to say that, due to contextual limitations, of place and interlocutors, certain uses of the language may not be practised in a natural manner (for example, the use of *Tu-Vous*).
- c) Content teaching does not encourage the processing of form, only the meaning carried by it. When the learners are only concerned with the meaning (and the teacher does not require them to focus their attention on how the content is delivered) “selective listening” (Van Patten 1985) can result. When selective listening occurs learners do not engage in form-function analysis, which, in turn, limits their learning. The following is an example of selective listening from a study of adult learners of Spanish.

Q: ¿Cómo *están* ellos? (How are they?)

A: *Son* contento. (They’re happy.)

Q: Y ellos, ¿cómo *están*? (And how are they?)

A: *Son* contento también. (They’re happy too). (Van Patten 1985: 91)

- d) Content teaching does not require complex production on the part of the learner. An observational study by Swain and Carroll (1987) clearly shows that teachers in content teaching classes accept short (one or two words) and simple responses from learners. In the study, learners’ turns were categorized into four groups



depending on their length: *minimal, phrase, clause or sustained talk*. Among other interesting results, the analysis of the transcriptions showed that 44% of the turns taken by learners in grade 6 immersion classes belonged to the first group, that is, minimal length.

#### 4. CLIL AS AN ALTERNATIVE

By definition, in CLIL the teaching-learning of content is integrated with the teaching-learning of language. This allows the weaknesses of traditional teaching to be overcome in that CLIL a) provides plenty of input beyond the limits of the language class, b) provides real and relevant input for the learner, that is input with reference to the content that the teacher and materials are presenting and explaining as well as the language for classroom management necessary to ensure that learning takes place, and c) motivates the processing of meaning, because it is interesting in itself, given that it is required in order to understand a History lesson, or Maths, or to carry out the required activities in a P.E. class.

CLIL classes are also a very appropriate framework for the integration of a focus on form and a focus on meaning. In fact, in the same way as immersion classes owed much to the communicative movement, which represented the avant-garde pedagogy of the time, these days CLIL classes are influenced by the move towards a focus on form, which represents the most significant contribution from research in the field of second language acquisition to the field of language teaching (see Tragant and Muñoz 2004; Perez Vidal this volume). The need to focus on form arose from the evidence that a large amount of exposure to comprehensible input and the processing of that input for communicative purposes is not enough to guarantee complete learning as far as accuracy is concerned. Therefore, although the integration of a focus on form is not a defining characteristic of CLIL teaching, it is viewed as a highly desirable characteristic of all communicative lessons, including CLIL.

The integration of a focus on form in a communicative lesson may follow students' requests arising from a specific need while completing a task, as Long (1991) proposes, or it could be the subject of planning by teachers anticipating a real need; for example, when certain forms are necessary to deal with a particular theme or when it is known beforehand which forms are going to inevitably cause problems (e.g. see Ellis 2003)

The inclusion of a focus on form in second language lessons leads easily to the processing of form and the correction of errors. According to the *Noticing Hypothesis*, for input to be transformed into intake, which can be incorporated and learnt, learners must pay a certain amount of attention to it, such as when they notice that their pronunciation of a specific vowel is different to that of an expert user, or when the focus is on a specific word which can be used to name an object (scissors, for example) that is needed to complete a pedagogical task. As discussed previously, a lesson in which content is taught through the medium of a second language does not always guarantee a focus on form. The learners are more likely to focus on lexical items which



are highly frequent and phonologically significant, and on syntactic constructions which are similar to constructions in the mother tongue (Harley 1994) but not on other linguistic elements. Because of this, although this kind of learning, with a mainly lexical focus, fits in well with the demands of classroom tasks facilitating the understanding of the global message, at the same time it ignores morphosyntactic elements which are less necessary for understanding or do not reflect any parallels with the mother tongue.

In CLIL with the attention of teachers focused not only on content but also on the linguistic elements that convey that content, it is much easier for teachers to adapt their linguistic production and model the type of input that they provide the learners so as to avoid giving inconsistent models, as in the example earlier (see also Moore this volume). In CLIL it is possible to have great variety and diversity of functions by means of the organisation of tasks and projects, as well as to guarantee that learners work on certain linguistic forms by setting up activities in which the targeted features are necessary. This would be the case with tasks or activities with *content-obligatory* language objectives, where learners cannot master the content without learning the language as well. For example, to explain how to add or subtract in a class in which the integrated language is English, the learners need to know the words *add* and *subtract* (Snow, Met and Genesee 1989).

Collaboration between the content teacher, who incorporates a second language in the content lessons, and the language teacher can be particularly fruitful since the latter can provide the linguistic explanations and suitable practice in their lessons, so that they will not be empty of content or lacking in purpose. On the other hand, the challenge of working on the oral production of learners can be easily taken on in CLIL by including tasks that require oral presentations that have been prepared by individual learners or in a group, paying attention to accuracy and appropriateness, with the aim of being understood by the audience.

To finish, it seems appropriate to remember the three lessons that Genesee (1994) drew from research findings on second language immersion programmes, and which are important for second language instruction in other types of programmes: 1) second language instruction that is integrated with instruction in academic or other content matter is a more effective approach than methods that teach the second language in isolation; 2) second language instruction should provide opportunities for extended student discourse and promote interaction between participants in the classroom; and 3) second language instruction should include systematic attention to the language development of students. Along the same lines, Met (1994) highlights the need to plan the lessons in which language and content are integrated, sequencing objectives and choosing the most appropriate material for each group of learners. In brief, the author recommends that teachers should consider every content lesson as a language lesson.



## 5. CONCLUSION

This paper has argued that CLIL can provide relevant and plentiful comprehensible input, it can facilitate the processing of meaning and form, and provide justification and motivation for language production in the target language. Furthermore, CLIL presents the most enriching characteristics of the communicative approach, for example, the use of the language in an appropriate context, the exchange of important information, or involving learners in cognitive processes which are relevant for acquisition (see Richards and Rogers 2001). It is hoped that the solid foundations of CLIL will contribute to the improvement of the processes of teaching-learning languages that our multilingual aspirations require.

## NOTES

1. Although the implementation of CLIL in most European countries involves foreign languages (see the recent overview of CLIL in Europe in Maljers, Marsh and Wolff 2007), the term is seen sometimes as an 'umbrella' term by which to capture all educational approaches in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language (Maljers, Marsh and Wolff 2007: 8).

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## THE SOCIOLINGUISTICS OF CLIL: LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE CHANGE IN 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY EUROPE

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*ABSTRACT. This paper focuses on the ways and the reasons that make CLIL a unique approach in L2 teaching now. The main tenet of the article is that CLIL is not just a new expression of educational bilingualism. The time when it has appeared, the places where it has been adopted and the learning theory behind it turns CLIL into a successful attempt at language and social change in 21st century Europe. The article attempts to draw attention to the conception of language and language learning that lies under the CLIL movement within the larger scope of 20th. c. theories of Second Language Acquisition and Theoretical Linguistics. Finally, the article looks at CLIL as a sociolinguistic venture: one that plans language change according to a clear ideology of language that has been laid down for social change.*

KEY WORDS: *Language planning, European language policies, Content-based teaching, Bilingual Education.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Changes in education as all attempts at social transformation are politically dependent, language policy tells us. Immersion education was an attempt to promote understanding in the charged debate of a linguistically divided Canada in the mid-sixties (Blommaert 1999). Two way bilingual programs in the United States were partly a bid to bring language diversity into schools in a diverse ethnical and cultural context (Brisk 1998; Faltis and Huddelsonn 1998). Both initiatives were fully responsive to the needs perceived by society. Much in the same way, CLIL is something more than an educational need. The European supranational state in the making since the mid twentieth century has been built upon ideals like mobility, economic cohesion, maintenance of cultural diversity and other principles that would be hard to make real without efficient language learning schemes. It is in this regard that CLIL is a “European solution to a European need” (Marsh 2002: 5).



As all approaches to language learning, CLIL has both overt and covert visions of language. For CLIL, as for other contemporary movements such as *Language Across the Curriculum* or *Languages for Specific Purposes*, discourse is the true dimension of language use and sentence-bound linguistic theory is seen as limited in scope. Through CLIL, the focus changes from language as a vehicle of culture to language as a means of communication in academic settings. True communication prevails and with it language programs that pursue cohesion, coherence and text completion as the natural framework of language learning. That means that a functional systemic view of language is fully compatible if not essential for CLIL language teaching programs.

A new vision of language called for a new vision of learning. CLIL is linked to experiential views of second language acquisition and consequently a new methodology of language teaching. In the nineties doubts had been cast on new methods being too elusive tools as prisms to view classrooms and reflect on teaching quality. CLIL has breathed new life into experiential methods like the task based approach and made them more authentic. By combining meaningful activities and meaningful academic content, authenticity has made itself present and students have found a reason to struggle with new languages in the classroom.

What has been said above puts forward a vision of CLIL as an L2 approach that grows out of a certain language epistemology: a vision of what language is and a vision of how languages are learned. This should provide the foundations for a language change of continental dimensions that rests ultimately upon an overall aim: shifting from a monoglot to a multilingual ideology and sowing the seeds for a language change to become real through education in Europe. The scope of the aspects mentioned –the where (Europe), the what (language) and the how (learning)– will be seen in turn in the following section.

## 2. EUROPE AS THEATRE OF OPERATION

Although relations between CLIL and bilingualism are intricate (see Muñoz, this volume), CLIL is now a European label for bilingual education. It is hardly known outside Europe and was hardly ever used –if at all– before the late nineties. However, multilingual education has usually been present in the continent. Studies in the European Sociology of Language show bilingual education as a permanent feature of educational systems across the centuries (Braunmüller and Ferraresi 2003; Burke 2004). Along the 20th c. Canadian, American and Israeli content-based programs using L2s and L3s as a means of instruction had provided patterns for incorporating minority languages in education (Cenoz and Jessner 2000; Cenoz and Genessee 2003). Another source for multilingualism before CLIL came into existence was the multiple *ad-hoc* solutions for efficient teaching of international languages in formal schooling that found inspiration in bilingual education (see for an early and worthy instance, Scott-Tennent 1995; 1997). For one reason or another, if not the norm, multilingual education has been rather



frequent in Europe. This being the case, there is nothing in CLIL that makes it brand-new nor especially groundbreaking in the larger picture of multilingual education.

However, its scope and spread makes this approach noteworthy. It came as a fully articulated response to the needs of the Council of Europe and the European Union. Language policies in Europe are not old. On 15 April 1958 –some fifty years ago now– the very first regulation of the Council of the European Community established French, German, Italian and Dutch as the official languages. This level of multilingualism was already labelled the *language problem* (Booker and North 2003: 109). Now, with 25 members that incorporate not only their respective state official languages but minority and regional languages that try to find a place of their own and new domains of use in education, the amount of languages has done nothing but escalate. Immigrant languages have also claimed a right to be present at school (Extra and Yagmur 2004; Edwards 1998). Multilingualism is seizing schools and the CLIL scheme has grown stronger as a solution. CLIL as such is a broad concept, where languages of all sorts can be embraced. By using them for the purpose of communication only, languages lose their overtones as culture-bound artefacts, as expressions of some vision of the world or any other label Whorfian folk theories one may want to attach to them. All languages are efficient as teaching tools and all can fit into school schemes as languages of instruction, hence CLIL.

Incidentally CLIL also strives to be useful in some other way. The attested inefficiency of language learning in many European contexts has been calling for an overall solution. The demolinguistics of Europe have shown time and again that all resources and school time invested in language learning have not delivered the goods in many contexts. Eurobarometers (European Commission 2000; 2006) showed facts like that less than half of students taking languages ended school with some competence and –a less echoed conclusion– that if languages are not learnt at school, they are rarely learnt later in life. That being the case, as an offshoot of bilingual teaching CLIL brought better language education to the European arena.

It is against this backdrop that one can appreciate CLIL serving the purpose of the new Europe in the making and for this reason it has had official support since its inception as a new method. Council resolutions and official journal communications have swamped European legislation since the early nineties (see for a selection of official statements, Eurydice 2006). In them, CLIL is very often referred to as a response to multilingualism at the same time that multilingualism is mentioned as being at the core of the European project. To put it in the words of the recently appointed Commissioner Responsible for Multilingualism, Orban (2007): “Multilingualism touches the very substance of European identity, its values and challenges ahead: Integration, competitiveness, inclusiveness, cohesion, mobility, transparency and democracy are intimately linked to multilingualism”.

What lies behind this proclamation is a number of key features that shape the European ideology of languages. Insofar as CLIL stems from or at least is compatible with such principles, CLIL is officially supported as the adequate approach to language teaching. Via CLIL, it seems feasible to strengthen the three main pillars of European language ideology:



- A European identity should surpass ethnical and national identities, traditionally linked to national language use and national language competence. Accepted as they are, these identities are thought insufficient for full participation in the European scene. Multiple transnational identities are to be developed and this should start with the accomplishment of the *1+2 principle*, one stating that every individual should add at least two new languages to their mother tongue. These points have been clearly made both institutionally (Declaration of European Identity of December 1973 in Copenhagen) and theoretically (Byram and Tost 1999; Lorenzo 2005). Multilingualism must be an early experience in life providing a third socialization process that students go through at school whereby they encounter different tongues in operation to the exclusion of no languages and no participants.
- The ideal of a mutual search for understanding and a willingness to communicate should preside over all European relations. Learners will try to make the most of their partial language competences. Languages, even if not totally mastered, are conduits for intercultural communication, a trait Europeans will have to develop for full participation in Europe. The European craze for mobility demands that the cooperative principle rules in all intercultural communication. If language learners themselves, citizens will be more willing to surrender the privileges that using one's mother tongue brings in intercultural communication. Native speakers should reject their roles as dominant speakers in communication and no authenticity should be claimed nor language mystified on account of nativeness. All these behaviours mean that attitudes to language learning and language use should change and all archaising, reformist or xenophobic interpretations of languages - the components of language purism - should go (see Lippi Green 1997; Ager 2001). European leaders have always set their hopes on bilingual programs building this mindset. The effects of bilingual schemes were thought to provide not only the learning of other languages, but the inculcation of attitudes of mutual understanding between the European nations historically at war. In fact, some of the initial formulations of bilingual programs were conceived as a way to overcome the breach between France and Germany following World War II.
- Although extreme language diversity can be costly to the point of being economically impractical, zero language diversity policies are from an economically standpoint similarly ill-advised. Studies in the Economy of Language show that investment in language teaching involves a high rate of return. Bilingual education, which usually amount to little more than an increase of 5% of total education spending, is a wise move for economic reasons too. European multilingualism is not just a way to ensure language diversity for cultural reasons, it is a strategy that will produce important revenues, even more if the Union envisages itself as a *Knowledge Society* (Grin 2002).



### 3. CLIL AND LINGUISTIC THEORY

Although institutional support has always been clear, one of the main strengths of CLIL is that it has been a grassroots initiative. Innovation in education is normally successful if top-down and bottom-up initiatives share the same goals in such a way that teachers and decision makers coordinate their actions in the same direction (Markee 1997). If teachers cannot come to terms with decisions coming from above or find them impractical, innovation is bound to fail. This does not seem to be the case with CLIL. However, since many of the CLIL developments came from schools and actual practitioners, doubts have arisen as to whether the CLIL approach was too pragmatic in nature, a risk that could render the approach hollow from lack of theory.

Although some attempts have been made to link CLIL with linguistic theory, this approach does not boast a theory of language of its own (see Van de Craen 2002). One, however, could be clearly envisaged if considered side by side with another outcome of the European Language initiatives emerging at the same time: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). If both initiatives have had the backing of institutions –the former as the recommended approach in compulsory language education and the latter as the road-map of language learning, teaching and assessment– the reason is that both of them share the same approach to what language and language learning is.

This is less visible for CLIL, as it is normally the case that methods hardly ever state their epistemology. However, when the CEFR had to take a stand on the general view of language behind it, it put forward the following principles: language use is action oriented and language users –including learners– social agents. More broadly language was defined as follows (Council of Europe 2003:9):

*Language use, embracing language learning, comprises actions performed by persons who, as individuals and as social agents develop a range of competences, both general and in particular communicative language competences. They draw upon the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out their tasks to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.*

Key aspects of language theory are to be found here: learners are agents and therefore full members of the language community. They form a community of practice in its own right. Communicative competences represent a layer that stands out from the other linguistic levels. Furthermore, students' lack of competence is not seen as an absolute but as depending on constraints and contexts, i.e. students can do things through their L2 however limited their L2 knowledge is, hence the can-do abilities lists. Disinclined as the CEFR claims to be to choose among different methodological options,



language learning activities when mentioned are referred to as tasks, which might be hinting if not clearly embracing a task-based approach. Last but no less crucial here is that students interact with language as a means for text production and reception.

In short, the approach to language follows, in the most orthodox possible way, a systemic functional approach to language, one that holds that language is a resource for meaning rather than a system of rules (Halliday 1994). A whole tradition of linguistic formalism collapses when confronted with this perspective on language, one which has been going on for years but that had failed to be fully accepted in Europe. Much in the same vein, the CLIL response to formalism is prompt and sharp: if explicit knowledge of language rules is unnecessary for language acquisition, so are language experts. These can be replaced by efficient language users who will stand in authority in the classroom context for their expertise in subject area content.

The connection between SFL and CLIL (or content based teaching) is being identified in a growing number of studies (Mohan and Beckett 2003; Mohan and Slater 2005; Dalton-Puffer and Nikula 2006a; Dalton-Puffer and Nikula 2006b). Among their many contributions, they have revised classroom language to identify the following main features:

- Classroom interaction in CLIL contexts is less concerned with well formedness than with reconstructing meaning to the mutual satisfaction of speakers. Language and content work in an intertwined manner, subject matters provide food for thought and thoughts are instrumentalized through language –through an L2. The role CLIL leaves for language– in the strictest Vygotskian tradition –is to reflect on experience and to achieve understanding (see Jappinen 2005). The traditional debate in Applied Linguistics as to whether communication is the cause or effect of L2 learning, has a clear answer in bilingual settings: it is communicate to learn and not learn to communicate.
- Language items are not easily foreseeable in the CLIL classroom. Although there are certain structures which are likely to come up for certain topics, these are not sentence-bound elements but rather micro and macrofunctions consisting of syntactic categories, stretches of discourse and rhetorical aspects. Studies looking into the grammar of content-based approaches find that the language items focused in content-based language courses pay only passing attention to the morphology of the L2 or to the particular systems of the different parts of speech (the auxiliary and negation system, the determiner system, the object system, etc.) (Master 2000). It is on the syntactic and wider rhetorical levels that structures are considered (fronting and adverbial phrases, embedded questions, existential constructions, and so on). See however Muñoz (this volume) and Pérez-Vidal (this volume).
- A language syllabus for CLIL classrooms will have to take as a reference, the knowledge structures of academic contexts (hypothesizing, recasting, expressing causes and effect, etc) and their discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical



components. This means that conversational L2, which forms the basis for mainstream functional courses, even in academic contexts, is thought to be secondary. The academic language is the language to be learnt. Language learning is bound to environments and classrooms as academic environments determine that the language most likely to be learnt is of an academic nature. The old debate between BICS and CALP rages here again. (see for a recent proposal of academic language functions around which CLIL language syllabi could be formed, Dalton-Puffer and Tikula 2006b)

#### 4. CLIL AND LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY

The theory that explicit language teaching is redundant and immaterial for language learning calls for a theory of language acquisition that will presumably differ from traditional *focus on forms* trends.

Language processing in bilingual settings has established that a distinguishing feature unique to L2 acquisition in immersion education –CLIL included– is language inhibition (Bialystok 2005; Gassner and Maillar 2006). By this, what is meant is a total forgetting of language as a code and engagement in language use for the sake of having things done with language, that is, for its instrumental use. Oblivious to the fact that the language in use is constrained by their limited language resources, students struggle to get their messages across. Their engagement in the communicative act is total, participation high and communication more likely to be achieved. Such behaviours, which are not unknown to cognitive psychology, have been used in language acquisition studies to describe learners' commitment in language use: attention is always on task, more effort is deployed, there is an increase of persistence if difficulties arise and as a result there is in-depth language processing. All these behaviours are known as *flow* - a psycholinguistic umbrella category that encompasses cognitive features like high activity levels with conative elements like positive attitudes to the language and strong motivation (see Csikszentmihalyi 1996, for the original formulation and Schumann 1998, for an application to L2 learning).

This language processing mode is more typical in CLIL and other (semi)immersion contexts than otherwise. Although descriptive studies abound, an instance could help illustrate such language behaviour. A student in third grade aged eight in a CLIL environment in the Spanish Educational System with less than a quarter of his school time in English produced the following written utterances in school tasks

- In response to a question on how to keep eyesight and skin healthy in a Science lesson on Healthy Living, the student wrote: “We should a daily bath and use sunscreen. We shouldn’t spend to much time watching TV”.
- Months later, on the occasion of Father’s Day, the student wrote the following dedication on the reverse of a cardboard bookmark that the English Arts and



Craft teacher had tasked students to produce and present their parents with: “This for you because you have been a child and feeled the same that me now”.

The examples are no doubt faulty if judgement rests on accuracy only. In fact, such is the level of accuracy inconsistency that the child appears to have intentionally broken all the rules as they appear in language syllabi. In just one single line the student has produced faulty *copula + adverb structures*, *irregular verb forms* and *comparative linkers*. This happens in sheer contrast to the feeling of communicative completeness that readers gain from the utterance produced.

The example above meant to exemplify that a CLIL theory of language learning has to make sense of apparent imbalances in language competence: students can be communicatively competent and grammatically inaccurate at one and the same time. The answer is that a theory of L2 acquisition in CLIL contexts cannot be cognitive alone but has to be social in nature. As seen above, language behaviour oozes sociolinguistic normalcy: there is full attention to meaning and the disregard for form that characterizes language use in non instructional settings (Preston 1989). Other typical features of discourse interaction in authentic settings - fighting for talking time, overlappings - are also featured in CLIL and other similar acquisition-rich environments (Dornyei 2001; Leung 2005). It is this achievement behaviour that over time makes grammar grow. Longitudinal immersion studies report that content-based teaching develops L2 grammar accuracy in all skills (production and reception) as measured by different test types (cloze, composition and oral production tests) (Zuengler and Brinton 1997; Rodgers 2006). That being the case, a sociolinguistic theory of L2 acquisition in CLIL contexts would rest on the following principles:

- Language forms can only be learnt within a powerful functional mapping. Content and language learning are so closely intertwined that no line can be drawn between content learning and language development. Subject area content provides the cognitive schemata through which language makes sense. No content learning, no language growth. (Zuengler and Brinton 1997).
- CLIL also takes a strong stand on the focus on form /focus on meaning debate in SLA. Unsurprisingly, CLIL is almost exclusively focus on meaning oriented. It is not that meaning goes first with respect to form learning, it is that without meaning orientation a linguistic scaffolding interaction is impossible. For this reason, form orientated language practice should be present in the slightest possible form. Learning is basically incidental and although language awareness is essential for the proper integration of language and content, typical language awareness activities have little bearing with accuracy. No language practice is to appear and no assessment is based on error only (Stoller 2004; Lorenzo 2007).
- A sociolinguistic theory of second language acquisition holds that it is message delivery that triggers language use in natural settings. Attention to form is normally related to power relations always present in language (see Kramsch 2002). CLIL empowers students to use L2, face L2 difficulties and overcome them through



meaning negotiation. Finetuning L2 input will be necessary for success in language use but this does not demand attention to forms - much in the same way as it does not exist in motherese or any other natural language use environment (Lorenzo forthcoming). A new insight that CLIL brings to the *grammar as power* debate is that in second language classrooms focus on forms may have not as its *raison d'être* being a better instrumental element for L2 learning.

## 5. CONCLUSION

Bilingual education is not a disinterested attempt at educational renovation. Apart from the technicalities it no doubt implies like curricular change, new teaching procedures, different task types, it is ultimately ingrained in the values and aspirations that society sets for itself. CLIL is bilingual education at a time when teaching through one single language is seen as second rate education. CLIL has provided the methodological turn required, bringing new expectations to language policies that asked for responses. In a way, CLIL at the turn of the century may be compared to the communicative revolution in language teaching in the 1970's. If the European initiative that resulted in Wilkin's *Notional Syllabuses* brought life to language education, the CLIL move may bring authenticity by using languages for the instrumental uses they are most appreciated for in an academic context: learning subject area content. This is in exact alignment with a new European language ideology: one that highlights the instrumental values of tongues as a means to succeed in intercultural communication even with partial language competences, and to develop multiple identities.

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## THE NEED FOR FOCUS ON FORM (FoF) IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED APPROACHES: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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**ABSTRACT.** *Following an overall revision of the social circumstances and the philosophy behind a European integrated approach to education, that is an approach in which a non-vernacular language is used as the medium of instruction, this chapter focuses on a key question concerning language acquisition in formal instruction contexts: the role of Focus-on-Form (FoF) in otherwise communicative contexts when implementing educational approaches integrating content and language. On the basis of reported research findings with Canadian immersion programmes, the chapter analyses multilingual lessons in Catalonia, to find that virtually no focus-on-form can be found in teachers' input addressed to learners while interacting in CLIL classrooms.*

**KEY WORDS:** *Europe, Content and Language Approach, Focus-on-Form, Acquisition, Input, Interaction.*

### 1. THE GROWTH OF EUROPEAN “BILINGUAL EDUCATION” OR MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION

#### 1.1. EUROPEAN INTEGRATED PROGRAMMES: A DESCRIPTION

Within the background of similar experiences in Canada (immersion) and the USA (content-based language teaching) European applied linguists and agencies in the 90s started to employ *bilingual education* as the umbrella term for a new approach to education, which today I would rather label a multilingual approach<sup>1</sup> (see Cummins and Swain 1986 for the Canadian perspective; Brinton *et.al.* 1989 for the US perspective). Within such an approach, content subjects such as History or Physics are taught through the medium of a second/foreign language, other than the main language of the learners, the teachers, or the language used in the rest of the school curriculum. The construct was later labelled Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in primary and



secondary education, whereas the term Integrated Content and Language (ICL) was also used to refer to the same multilingual modality yet in tertiary education<sup>2</sup>.

The rationale for the approach rests on four main ideas corresponding to a socio-cultural dimension, an educational dimension, a content dimension and a linguistic dimension (see Pérez-Vidal 2004a). The socio-cultural dimension, dealt with in greater detail in the following section, is related to the role of multilingualism and multiculturalism in the construction of an ethos of European citizenship, and the key role that linguistic and cultural diversity play in the construction of Europe, embodied in the already popular motto *Europe will be multilingual or it will not be*.

The educational and content dimensions can be considered together. Firstly they can be presented on the basis of socio-constructivist ideas in what has been described as *the four Cs* curriculum –the four Cs standing for Culture, Content, Cognition and Communication. This suggests that: “it is through *progression* in the knowledge, skills and understanding of the content, *engagement* in associated cognitive processing and *interaction* in the communicative context that learning takes place” (Coyle 1998: 7; Coyle 2000). As for the linguistic dimension, the focus of this chapter, from the point of view of language pedagogy the concept can be characterized as an extension of the United Kingdom’s educational formula ‘*Language across the curriculum*’ into ‘*Languages across the curriculum*’ (see for example Wolff 1998: 26). ‘*Language across the curriculum*’ incorporates a concern for the development of mother tongue linguistic skills in all subjects of a school curriculum. In contrast, ‘*Languages across the curriculum*’ sets out to include languages other than the mother tongue with the goal of promoting multilingualism using a transdisciplinary view of language development in the school system. Hence, the term encompasses different forms of learning in which languages carry a special role alongside the learning of any specific subject or content. From the point of view of language acquisition, it is claimed that not only exposure but *intensity* of exposure, that is an increase in the number of hours over shorter periods of time, may benefit language achievement more than longer periods of instruction with a lower number of hours (see García-Mayo and García-Lecumberri 2003; Muñoz 2006), something which CLIL programmes can guarantee, as they are generally organised in parallel to conventional language teaching.

## 1.2. EUROPEAN PROGRAMMES: THE STORY SO FAR

It has been contended that the growth of multilingual education in Europe is perhaps the result of economic factors, the impetus of the Bologna declaration requiring European transparency and harmonization of qualifications irrespective of the language of instruction, and mobility policies (Van Leeuwen 2006: 26). What is undeniable is that the concern for languages as an asset to be preserved and promoted within the construction of Europe has led European institutions to herald change in the domain of education in general and languages in particular.



The recent European Commission's (2003) Action Plan stating recommendations of multilingual policies had been preceded by The White Paper on Education and Learning (1995), whereby citizens should be functionally proficient in their mother tongue and two other European languages. The paper framed a whole strategy towards multilingualism which included the factors mentioned above, "interdisciplinarity" alongside "intensity of exposure", as two key factors in the strategy and strongly recommended policies to member states. Thereafter, a specific European interdisciplinary approach represented by CLIL began to take shape, it was then handed over to the community to be refined and served as the background to a number of varied experiments being carried out in different European countries not unfamiliar with the wealth of good practice and research carried out in Canada and the United States. Accordingly the CLIL concept emerged, under the auspices of the European Council, but also within a large number of Commission funded projects. Indeed, the BILD and the DIESeLL projects, the ELC and the Thematic network in Bilingual Education, the CLIL Compendium, the ALPME project, the TIE-CLIL, the TICCAL and the CDI-BIT represent just a small sample of the work undertaken through the 1990s up until today, which has resulted in a construct, a European construct, around which shared knowledge and expertise is already an asset to European language acquisition and language pedagogy research<sup>3</sup> (see Pérez-Vidal 1997 and Marsh and Marsland 1999 on Spain; Van de Craen and Wolff 1997 for a complete European technical report; Nikula 1997 and finally Nikula and Marsh 1997 on terminological considerations).

Many programmes around Europe have been set up throughout these years of industrious innovation and practice, at primary, secondary and tertiary level, following recommendations from European institutions. Finland, Germany, Italy and Holland, France and Spain, Hungary, and other newly arrived countries to the European Union have witnessed the spread of initiatives in this direction taken either by schools, parents associations or the administration (see Baetens Beadsmore 1993; Klapper 1996 as an example of a German report; Baetens Beadsmore 1998; Van de Craen and Pérez-Vidal 2001, for primary and secondary level accounts; the survey in Marsh *et al.* 2001, and Pérez-Vidal 2001a, as a survey with a Europe wide scope; Grenfell 2002; Van Leeuwen *et al.* 2003; Wilkinson, Zegers and Leeuwen 2006, for tertiary level). As Pérez-Vidal (2001b) stresses, in the Catalan and Basque autonomous communities of Spain, those programmes benefited from the accumulated experience of the highly successful CLIL programmes for the normalization of their official languages, Catalan and Basque which, in a background of societal bilingualism, since the 1980s have set up different educational models geared to ensure additive bilingualism. (see Artigal 1993 for a general presentation of programmes; Sierra 1994 on the Basque model).

### 1.3. EUROPEAN PROGRAMMES: EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

With such a wealth of groundbreaking practical experiences, the evaluation of the programmes in terms of actual outcomes is still to come, and research still pressing; however, the social and educational benefits of multilingual programmes seem to be



unquestionable, and the very existence of integrated programmes can be equated with success. Bilingual acquisition in the United States was heralded by Krashen as (1985: 57): “the most successful language teaching program ever recorded in professional language teaching literature.” Nonetheless, actual content and language outcomes, in tandem with the pedagogical intricacies involved in their actual development, need to be investigated. Today, little is known of the variables and the teaching and learning *processes* to which success or failure of the bilingual/CLIL programmes can be attributed, both educationally and linguistically. Similarly, the real *product* or benefits and gains need to be quantified. Researchers seem to be working in two directions. One reflects on general policy issues, programme design, teacher education, teachers’, students’ and programme evaluation for CLIL (see, for example, Räsänen 1993; Escobar 2002, 2004, 2006, forthcoming; Pérez-Vidal and Escobar 2002; Escobar and Pérez Vidal 2004; Wilkinson 2004 on higher education). The second explores language acquisition, while also attending to content acquisition, with special attention given to exploring the impact on proficiency of different CLIL task designs (Escobar 2006, forthcoming). In this vein, studies on the contrasting impact of teachers’ native-like speech on 5-year-old children’s linguistic development put the case for methodologically sound teaching, whether or not with native teachers, as a predictor of greater learner achievement. In Spain, against a background of societal bilingualism in several Autonomous communities where, since the 1980s different educational models geared to ensure additive bilingualism have been set up, namely Catalonia, the Basque country and Galicia, there exists a wealth of research tapping into results at a linguistic level. In Catalonia see Arnau *et al.* (1993), Vila (1994), Roquet (2003) and Sanz (forthcoming); in the Basque country Sierra (1994), Lasagabaster (1997), Cenoz (2002) and Cenoz and Genesee (2002). They report on mainstream education outcomes either focusing on bilingual development, or its beneficial effects for L3 acquisition.

## 2. THE LESSONS FROM IMMERSION PROGRAMMES IN CANADA

### 2.1. IMMERSION PROGRAMMES IN CANADA: THE NARRATIVE

If the growth of European multilingual education has been socially driven, as described above, it would seem as if the growth of Canadian immersion programmes went through a similar development only earlier in time. In Canada, in the 60s, the need by English speaking children to learn French, the official language in Quebec, prompted a group of parents to lobby their school board for improvements to the teaching of French. Upon consultation with McGill university scholars in bilingualism, an immersion programme was proposed to the schools’ education board (Wesche 2001). From the first day of school in kindergarten children would be instructed entirely in French and would learn to read in this language. Only later in grade 2-7 years of age –would they start with their L1s, until little by little, by grade 6-12 years of age– half the curriculum would be taught in French and half in English. Variations to this model were then introduced



(partial immersion: half and half day since kindergarten; mid-immersion: programme starting at grade 4/5; late immersion: programme starts at 6/7, and other very flexible and imaginative formulae of different sorts), while it was spreading widely and rapidly in Canada during the 70s and the 80s, and involved other languages such as English for French speaking children. It is estimated that 8% of the student population in Canada had followed an immersion programme (300,000 students). Funds were given for research and dissemination of the idea. Swain (1984) noted that nearly every new programme generated its own research group. Consequently, bilingual acquisition in formal settings has had a strong record of research in Canada that compares favourably with any other innovation in education (Swain 1997: 13) if only for the well-known Interdependence and Threshold models put forward by Cummins (1984, 1991) describing the nature of bilingual development in learners with different levels of proficiency in their L1.

## 2.2. CANADIAN PROGRAMMES: EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

Similar to the trend in Europe, two main domains have been in focus in the research analysing immersion programmes in Canada. In the first place, as Genesee puts it, the *product* or *summative* aspects of programmes (Genesee 1987: 184). The work has concentrated on the investigation of the *language and content dimension* of different types of programmes. Analyses include extensive enquiries into the quality of language learned as well as its relationship to academic and social skills in the native language, through measurements of receptive and productive skills, with the objective of identifying strengths and weaknesses in programmes, and the effects of programme variables on student achievement. On the other hand, research has focused on the *qualitative study of bilingual education* through the analysis of different programmes, such as Johnson and Swain (1997) or Bernhardt (1992). This is *process* research, oriented to probing immersion teachers' beliefs, behaviours and strategies used in bilingual programmes, alongside students' behaviours. The relative scarcity of research in this second strand has been noted by Genesee who expressed his concern over: "The virtual absence of information concerning the *pedagogical and linguistic strategies* used by immersion teachers" (1987: 18). Lacking such information, we are poorly prepared to train teachers in the most effective instructional strategies, a programme of research to investigate how teachers integrate academic and language instruction is called for.

In the first strand of research, and since the days of the initial programmes, several studies have given a comprehensive evaluative picture of the outcomes of their programmes. Lambert and Tucker (1972) evaluated the first model with a high success rate. In subsequent publications Canale and Swain (1980), then Cummins and Swain (1986), Genesee (1987), Harley *et al.* (1990) and Bialystok (1991) in several synthesis reports have come to an overall conclusion that indicates the need for introducing specific changes to the programmes. Immersion students seem to acquire remarkable proficiency, near-native, in the language in which they are taught and simultaneously perform in academic areas such as reading and writing at equal or superior levels to peers educated in



monolingual settings, yet there is a weakness in their productive skills, spoken and written, in grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, which remains from grade 6 to grade 12, as Pellerin and Hammerley (1986) and Lyster (1987) studies revealed. The proposals for change have been in the direction of suggesting the overall general experiential approach to learning be balanced with more analytical approaches, that is, introducing approaches that focus on form (see Harley *et al.* 1990).

### 2.3. INTEGRATED PROGRAMMES: THE DESIRABLE FUTURE

The findings of Canadian research are extremely revealing for the design and implementation of programmes in Europe. A word of advice should be taken under consideration in the sense that an additional explicit analytic component in otherwise communicative modes of instruction, as CLIL approaches are, can only prove beneficial. Indeed, second language acquisition research has shown the limitations of implicit instruction unless in substantial amounts, particularly as far as adult learners, who can already benefit from an explicit focus on form, are concerned (DeKeyser 2002, 2007). That meaning and form oriented instruction is simply superior to either one of the two individually seems undeniable nowadays (Hulstijn 1989; Robinson 1995). Communicative modes of instruction are characterised by a focus on meaning and communication, which is established by genuine interaction between the teacher and the learners generally through pair/group work interaction, a creative non-restrictive use of language, and via opportunities for the negotiation of task topics. In turn, focus-on-form is characterised by the fact that attention is drawn towards language forms in order to develop linguistic *awareness* which may result in *uptake* and subsequently *intake* (DeKeyser 2002). The four dimensions or principles of the European construct of integrated approaches presented in the first section of this chapter only add further support to the argument for an integration of a focus on form in an otherwise communicative mode of instruction.

It is this issue that the study presented in the following section seeks to address, in order to throw some light on the nature of CLIL classroom approaches to form. With the purpose of identifying the extent to which current experiments with CLIL are missing out on the opportunity of modelling themselves on the results of research indicating the need for attending to form, it analyses teachers' input and interaction strategies and the relative presence of episodes where the focus of teaching/learning is the content of the lesson, and those whose focus is the language itself.

### 3. A PILOT STUDY ON TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN CLIL CLASSROOMS AND FOCUS-ON-FORM

On the basis of the evidence so far, the question stated above led to the design of a preliminary exploratory study conducted within the ALPME project. A representative sample of integrated lessons conducted in the Autonomous community of Catalonia, Spain



are analysed with the objective of exploring teachers' input and interaction strategies in relation to the communicative nature of teaching and the presence of focus-on-form episodes<sup>4</sup>. The study aims to address the following questions:

1. Are the CLIL lessons analysed Communicative?
2. Do lessons contain the desirable amount of input in the target language and of high quality?
3. Do they also include instances of focus-on-form?

### 3.1. THE DATA

The study was conducted on a small sample of primary and secondary education content lessons in 3 different school programmes in Catalonia, selected so as to include content lessons taught through the medium of English –as opposed to English lessons with some content in them– from different geographical locations and including both primary and secondary levels. English is used almost exclusively as the medium of instruction by teachers. In the case of the secondary classrooms, the lessons meant that learners received additional hours of exposure to the hours of the conventional language programme in the school curriculum. This was not the case of the primary classroom, where, in contrast to the other classes, there is not a conventional language teaching component in the curriculum. As Table 1 shows, the corpus included 3 videotaped lessons, in 3 different state-run schools, in 2 different provinces in Catalonia (Barcelona and Lleida). They involved 2 secondary schools and 1 primary school, and dealt with Science subjects: Physics, Biology and Geometry, respectively. The column on the right states the number of hours in the multilingual school programme. The second column on the right the number of hours added to the conventional language programme, additionally, ages, grades and subjects are also displayed in the rest of the columns to the left respectively.

TABLE 1. *Corpus analysed*

Lessons	Grade	Age and Number of students	English instruction	CLIL instruction
Geometry (Land C)	6 Pr.*	11/12 (20)	-	1020 hours
Physics (C )	4 ESO*	15 (18)	500	+150
Biology (C )	4 ESO	15 (12)	500	+60

Note: \* = Mandatory subjects, the rest are eligible.  
+ = Hours of exposure added to English instruction.



A professional technician videotaped the lessons in the presence of this researcher, who acted as an observer. Recordings were then transcribed and analysed as explained below.

### 3.2. THE ANALYSIS

For the purpose of the analysis, an adaptation of the categorization used by Bernhardt's (1992) study of Canadian immersion programmes was used. Bernhardt's study was found to be simple, comprehensive, and tapping on teachers' focus-on-form moves as opposed to meaning, the objective of this study. Once the selected samples of CLIL instruction were orthographically transcribed, they were segmented into internal moves or strategies following the resulting categorisation shown in table 2. Thirteen different teachers' strategies are grouped in the table as either "Language input or language output" strategies, "Managing strategies" or "Other strategies". The first group includes techniques used to make oneself understood, techniques to adapt meaning to learners' features, both implicit and explicit, techniques to adapt language, as in language addressed to babies or foreigners (that is modified input as conventionally found in teacher-talk, baby-talk or foreigner-talk), techniques to check comprehension on the part of learners, techniques to ask for clarification in relation to content, explicit focus-on-form moves, explicit moves to encourage students' output production, and code-switching into the L1 for better understanding of meaning on the part of learners. The second group of "Managing strategies" includes references to content, to lessons or parts of lessons, or to materials. "Other strategies" include references to other subjects in the curriculum.

TABLE 2. *CLIL teachers' strategies. Adapted from Bernhardt (1992:4)*

<i>LANGUAGE INPUT AND OUTPUT STRATEGIES</i>	
1. MEANING	Content comprehension input: Techniques to convey the meaning for comprehension.
2. ADAPTATION OF MEANING	Learner-cued instruction: teacher's adaptation to the learners' abilities, styles, interests or needs, involving the learner, implicit or explicit.
3. ADAPTATION OF LANGUAGE	L2 input techniques used to help understanding: simplified teacher-talk, repetition; reading; reading and writing; games and songs; non-verbal cues.
4. COMPREHENSION CHECKS	Visual, physical or verbal, in the L1 or L2.



5. CLARIFICATION REQUESTS CONTENT	Clarification request for content.
6. CLARIFICATION REQUESTS FORM	Clarification request for form.
7. FOCUS ON FORM	Explicit out-of-content teaching of the L2. Sentences generated to focus on a grammar point, reference to phonics, presentation of lexis, negative feedback.
8. OUTPUT	L2 output encouragement: scaffolding, translation of L1 to L2 words, expectations of comprehension before speech.
9. CODE-SWITCHING	Into L1 to improve understanding.
<i>MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES</i>	
10. SYLLABUS	Reference to content taught, or to be taught.
11. LESSON	Instructions for activities. Mention of the lesson's structure, boundary markers between activities and subactivities.
12. MATERIALS	Mention of materials production or evidence of it.
<i>OTHER STRATEGIES</i>	
13. INTERDISCIPLINARY	More than one subject is taught.

Percentages of moves within each category for the whole selected corpus were drawn in order to establish the number of instances (tokens) of each different strategy for all samples grouped together.

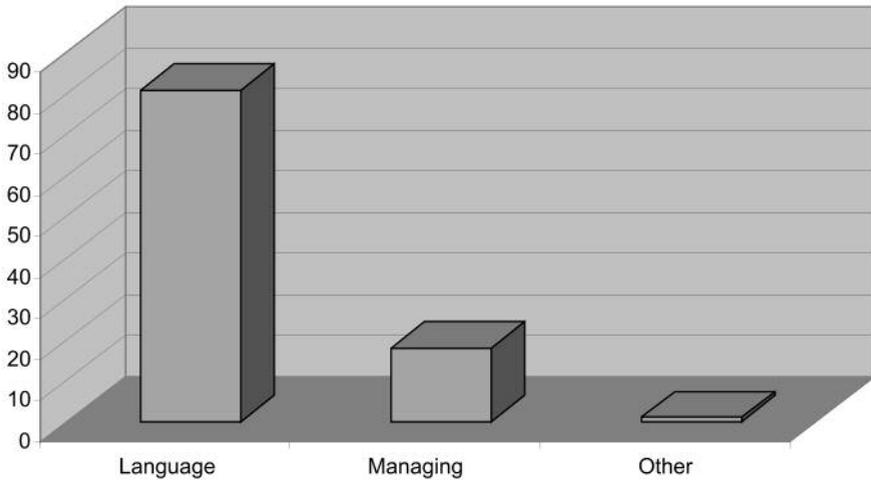
#### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results are summarised first by categories, then by strategies. Hence, firstly, figure 1 shows the percentage of moves within each of the three categories, that of “Language input and output”, “Managing strategies” and “Other strategies”: 81%, 18% and 1%, respectively.

As can be seen in the graph, most teacher talk is devoted to the first category, “Meaning”, an expected result as in fact it is the one with a larger number of strategies included. It would seem as if teachers’ strategies concentrate on the interactional level of the classroom, rather than on the managerial level. This in turn suggests that lessons have a well-established routine, which is followed with little explicit verbalisation on the part of the teachers.

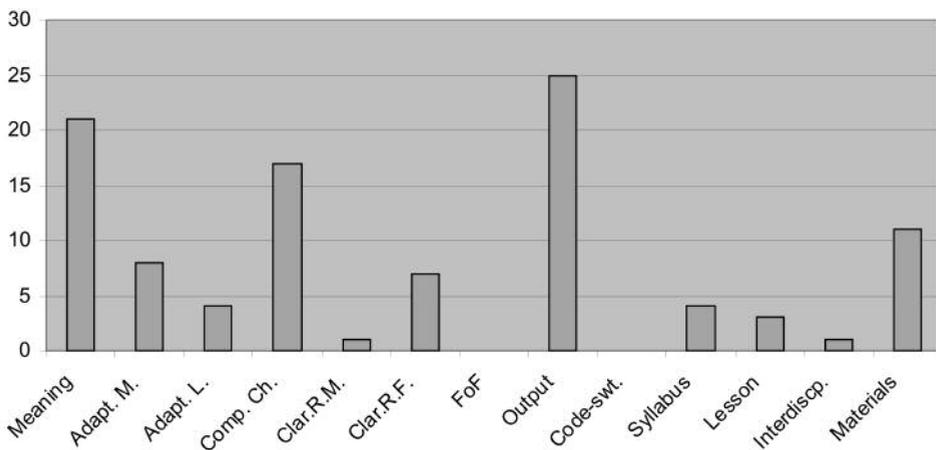


FIGURE 1. *Distribution of Language and Management strategies in percentages*



Secondly, figure 2 below shows the results for each of the 13 strategies. A group of 4 strategies has the highest number of instances, above 10%, namely OUTPUT, (25% of tokens out of the total number in the sample) used to encourage learners’ oral production, MEANING (21%), used to refer to content, and COMPREHENSION CHECKS (17%), used to check and help learners’ understanding. These are in the “Language input and output category”.

FIGURE 2. *Distribution of strategy types in percentages*



One strategy MATERIALS (11%) within the “Managing strategies” category is also higher than 10%. Following this, the remaining strategies are present in much lower numbers. Some within a range of between 10 and 5: ADAPTATION OF MEANING to the learners’ level, needs, styles and interests (8%) and CLARIFICATION REQUEST FORM (7%). Then ADAPTATION OF LANGUAGE and references to SYLLABUS and LESSON appear in the lower range, of between 5 and 1 (4 and 3% respectively), where the strategy with a minimal presence of a 1%, CLARIFICATION REQUESTS MEANING is to be found. There are no instances of CODE-SWITCHING or FOCUS ON FORM or of interdisciplinary reference.

To summarise, what the previous figures indicate is that teachers’ moves are devoted in the first place to encouraging students’ output, and to referring to the content matter of the lessons, and, only in second position, to a somewhat lesser yet still high degree, to checking understanding of that content. In third position come mentions of materials and further adaptations of the difficulty of the content to the students’ level. In a fourth position and last in the row come references to other parts of the lesson or syllabus, focus on form, and an interdisciplinary approach and requests for clarification.

If we now try to address the questions stated at the beginning of this section, the results in relation to the first question indicate that the lessons are rather communicative as features of communicative teaching are present. Indeed, they are: a) highly focused on meaning, b) genuine questions are asked, c) there is opportunity to use language in non-restrictive ways; d) there is opportunity for negotiation. The video recordings and classroom observations allow us to certify that pair and group work are an integral part of the lessons.

In relation to the second question, it can also be stated that the quality and amount of both the teachers’ input and the learners’ output are high as a result of the communicative nature of the lessons: 21% of the strategies are explanations of the content matter of the lesson, hence are focused on meaning. The amount of output is also high, in fact the highest in percentages (25%). Consequently, it can also be assumed that teachers are encouraging learners to speak. No CODE-SWITCHING is found which means that input is only given in English. The high number of times that teachers check students’ understanding, the third strategy in percentages (17%), would also suggest that negotiation of meaning in communication is enhanced. The fact that there are 7% REQUESTS FOR CLARIFICATION in relation with content adds evidence to topic negotiation. The frequent reference to materials seems to indicate a practical approach in the explanations given. Finally and most importantly, in relation to the third question, no FoF strategies are used: language is seen as the means to communicate, not an end in itself.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

The growth of multilingual programmes in Europe, reflecting both social policies and an increasing social interest in languages has only begun. No matter how well the rationale for those programmes is established, and how carefully programmes are



designed and implemented, there is a need to turn to previous experience in other contexts to learn the lessons they can teach us. Extensive research carried out in the Canadian immersion programmes shows the key role played by focus-on-form in the communicative interaction taking place in integrated pedagogy. The CLIL lessons analysed show significant concern for meaning, but not for form. If our small sample is representative of more extensive practices, there seems to be a need for introducing FoF approaches to complement current practices in CLIL teaching, as Lyster (2007) has emphasised. Further empirically driven research evidence is necessary in this domain not only to restate the benefits of multilingual approaches, but also to help find the adequate paths and pedagogical strategies for the best possible learning outcomes and returns of an extremely innovative, yet equally challenging approach to education which is gaining ground in the European Bologna era.

## NOTES

1. This is the term we used in 1997 in the European Language Council's Thematic Network Project on the Area of Languages N. 9 (BILINGUAL EDUCATION) DG XXII in those years.
2. We would like to mention the Biannual Conference on ICL organised in Maastricht (Maastricht University Language Center) in its last two editions as an example of tertiary education research on the matter.
3. I would also like to refer to a series of projects locally funded: the ARTICLE project, funded by the Catalan Government.
4. The data collection for this exploratory study was conducted and funded with the support of the Advanced Level Programme in Multilingual Education (ALPME) a CDA European Commission project coordinated by this author ([www.upf.es/dtf/recerca/allencam/alpme](http://www.upf.es/dtf/recerca/allencam/alpme)). I thank the ALPME partners for their support and collaboration. I would also like to acknowledge and express my gratitude to the Foreign Language Resource Center in the City of Barcelona run by the Catalan Government for allowing me to contact the different programmes involved in the Orator Scheme at the time of data collection. Last but not least the schools' headmasters and mistresses, teachers and learners in the classes analysed whose names remain undisclosed for the purpose of anonymity and without whom this study would not have been possible.

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## THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM, CLIL AND CONSTRUCTIVISM

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**ABSTRACT.** *This chapter explores the interplay between two elements increasingly present in teaching and learning: the integrated curriculum and CLIL. Common underpinnings are taken to be the integration of knowledge, meaningful cognitive connections and the design of tasks that may be useful in students' life outside school. The paper suggests that the connection between the integrated curriculum and CLIL is precisely their shared conception of learning, where the three above mentioned elements fit: constructivism. The chapter provides an overview of constructivist theory, underlining the idea that it is essential for practitioners to be familiar with its tenets in order to successfully implement the integrated curriculum and CLIL.*

**KEY WORDS:** *Integrated Curriculum, CLIL, Constructivism, L2 Classroom.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The integrated curriculum, also named interdisciplinary teaching, thematic teaching or synergistic teaching (Lake 1994)<sup>1</sup>, can be defined as being “organized in such a way that it cuts across subject-matter lines, bringing together various aspects of the curriculum into meaningful association to focus upon broad areas of study” (Shoemaker 1989: 5). Unlike most courses of study at present, the integrated curriculum searches for themes or issues (‘broad areas of study’ in the above definition) that provide a general framework where more than one curricular area can take part with its own lessons and activities.

The various areas that constitute the integrated curriculum study the same theme from different but interrelated angles of specialization. In an integrated curriculum, the different fields of knowledge do not stand in isolation but overlap in such a way that knowledge and skills learnt in one subject can be transferred to others. (Lorenzo *et al.* 2005: 28). This interconnection allows students to activate knowledge already acquired,



building logical associations between processes, data, experiments, facts, etc. covered in class, which become more meaningful for their learning. In a second sense of ‘meaningfulness’, the tasks in which learners are engaged within an integrated curriculum are meaningful in the sense that they should be useful for learners’ lives outside school. As Lake (1994) states, “schools must look at education as a process for developing abilities required by life in the twenty-first century.” This is in accordance with what Skehan (1998: 269) stated about the two main features tasks should comply with: meaningfulness and connection with real-world activities. In an integrated curriculum, tasks foster intellectual curiosity and are aimed at a more comprehensive view of matters dealt with at school.

National (as in the United States) and regional governments have been promoting the integrated curriculum as a remedy against poor academic results or low language proficiency levels. In Spain (where documents such as the *Eurobarometer* (2006) have proved that 56% of the population does not speak any language apart from their mother tongue), moves towards developing higher L2 competence have been initiated. In Andalusia (the largest region in Spain), the education regional ministry has strongly recommended the design of a language integrated curriculum which would cater for similarities (and, therefore, integration) between L1 and L2, so that awareness and strategies developed in one language may be ‘recycled’ while learning the other. (Lorenzo *et al.* 2005: 7).

Meanwhile, CLIL has become a powerful vehicle for L2 competence and proficiency levels. Scholars (see Marsh 2002) argue that an L2 is better acquired through –as in the case of the integrated curriculum– integration: the integration, in this case, of content and language that CLIL promotes. While students are discussing and studying a variety of chosen topics (derived from academic disciplines or from the target language culture), they are using the L2 as a vehicle. The final aim of this content and language integration is the development of a “plurilingual and pluricultural competence” (*Common European Framework*: 169) which will form the basis for communication in the European context, fostering linguistic tolerance and diversity (see also Lorenzo this volume).

The ‘meaningful associations’ described in relation with the integrated curriculum are also present in CLIL. L2 teaching and learning in CLIL settings takes place in a rich and meaningful communicative context where learners are offered the opportunity to practise L2, naturally inferred from a variety of topics (Met 1999). The fact that learners deal with topics in a language different from their own, “allows better association of different concepts and helps the learner go towards a more sophisticated level of learning in general.” (Marsh 2003: 8)

Finally, the integrated curriculum and CLIL share a concern with connecting tasks in the classroom with real-life events (*savoir-faire* in the *Common European Framework*). Coonrod and Hughes (1994: 319) argue that projects may be an effective device to introduce real events in CLIL. Projects connect life inside and outside school “so that they may extend and refine these competences and use them effectively in particular domains.”(*Common European Framework*: 174).



The integration of otherwise unconnected areas, relevant cognitive associations and meaningful tasks as well as a connection between life inside and outside school in CLIL could be summarised in Genesee's words as a "creative construction", glossed as a context "in which learners are encouraged to experiment with linguistic forms in order to communicate with one another and with their teachers about academic and social matters." (Genesee 1994: 2). This 'creative construction' Genesee mentions is at the core of constructivism, defined by Donato and Terry (1995: 98) in the following terms:

*Constructivism is a theory of learning which emphasizes the importance of the learner's active construction of knowledge and the interplay between new knowledge and the learner's prior knowledge. The key tenet of constructivism theory is that people learn by actively constructing knowledge, weighing new information against their previous understanding, thinking about and working through discrepancies and coming to a new understanding.*

By combining subject areas (or content) and language, the integrated curriculum and CLIL envisage the construction of knowledge in a comprehensive way, connecting the old information with the new and analyzing the same topic from different angles. From a constructivist perspective, students are idealised as active, intuitive and reflective participants (Cubero 2005: 111). If they are to perceive some progress in learning, the curriculum should be related to the learners' interests and their previous knowledge. Teaching cannot consist of simply delivering new and unconnected information. Although the integrated curriculum and CLIL can work separately, it is interesting to combine them in school contexts because constructivism gives both elements the necessary foundation: to understand how an integrated curriculum should be designed, and how CLIL should be implemented in the classroom.

## 2. CONSTRUCTIVISM

Although the work of personalities such as John Dewey (1859-1952) in the United States show that constructivism has been in the pedagogical arena for some time now, usual practices in the classroom have generally presented information to be absorbed with no modification, since the group of students has been viewed as a *tabula rasa*, passive assembly. The teacher, for their part, has had the knowledge to be poured on students and has generally decided what and how they should learn. Students have hardly ever had the chance of looking for information to be analysed and discussed or of creating relationships with ideas already explored. (Hertz-Lazarowitz 1995: 71).

This chapter aims to explore constructivism, with its emphasis on the active construction of knowledge, as the *raison d'être* for the presence of integrated learning in CLIL's implementation. The definition by Donato and Terry above pinpoints the three aspects that affect the design of the integrated curriculum and the implementation of CLIL to be dealt with throughout the paper: the learner's active construction of knowledge, the cognitive controversy (*discrepancy*) that leads to the understanding of a new notion and



finally, the negotiation of meaning by means of dialogue that learners have to undertake in order to understand each other, reaching a higher level of cognitive and linguistic competence. Given the number of CLIL programmes being adopted, it is important for practitioners to know the principles of this theory of learning so that the implementation of CLIL through the integrated curriculum is successfully accomplished.

### 2.1. THE ACTIVE CONSTRUCTION OF KNOWLEDGE

From a constructivist perspective, learning is the result of the mental activity carried out by the learner, consisting in building and incorporating the new explanations to their already structured web of meanings. Abercrombie (1979: 26-27) argues that learning any new element necessarily implies *unlearning*, since our knowledge tends to be built around an integrated whole and there are parts within this whole which will be modified if new information is to be taken into consideration. That is why previous experiences and knowledge are considered key factors influencing learning: they do not only allow the learner to make initial contact with the new content but they are also the bases for constructing new meanings (Slavin 1995: 163). Any learning will be long lasting if the student is able to establish meaningful connections between their previous knowledge and the new item presented as the learning objective. An important element of the constructive activity on the students' part consists in modifying and updating their previous understanding so that they can grasp the connection with the new meaning.

But, what techniques do students use to remember information or how do they integrate the new learnt elements with the old ones? The answer brings forward Vygotsky's works (1978; 1992), which highlight the essential bond that links language and thought, explained by the function language has as the mediator of human knowledge. If this is true of the first language, it obviously also holds for subsequent languages. This mediation suggests that language offers an open window into the students' processes of constructing knowledge. Three main strategies are suggested so that CLIL teachers may know what is occurring in their students' minds: a) designing tasks based on meaning rather than on form; b) asking students to explain ideas or reasons to their peers (peer tutoring); c) asking students to give and provide help.

Regarding tasks based on meaning rather than form, scholars such as Hertz-Lazarowitz (1995: 81), recommend progressing from tasks that simply require remembering information to more complex tasks demanding more critical and elaborated thought such as identifying the important information, summarising an opinion, explaining a mindset or combining different sources of information. Tasks in the classroom should promote, according to Hertz-Lazarowitz, activities such as the identification of problems, the organization of a possible list of answers/solutions, the gathering of relevant information and the presentation of reports. Such tasks do not just describe a process of memorising new data but of building meaningful connections with the existent cognitive structure in students' minds.



An interesting aspect in the implementation of tasks that ask for critical thinking is that when not engaged in discourse with others, students may be engaged in internal discourse: they may be talking aloud to themselves about the difficulty of a concept, how to carry out the task, what steps to follow. These self-directed utterances are important because they have the added value of making students take control of the task through the language, being able to internalise the notions presented in the task. McCafferty's investigations (1992; 1994) have consistently revealed that it is important that students speak aloud to themselves, as a means of self-regulation.

Asking students to explain ideas or reasons for these thoughts to their peers (peer tutoring, where a student –usually more expert– teaches a classmate) is often quoted as an excellent opportunity for sharing resources and knowledge, benefiting both the teacher and the learner (Oxford 1997: 443). Clarifying, reasoning, as well as giving explanations to peers in the CLIL classroom may facilitate understanding and the incorporation of new information. When individuals are asked to put thoughts into words, they become aware of what they know, what they need to know and what they are wrong about. By verbalising their thoughts, the teacher also has the opportunity of clarifying concepts that may have stayed unclear (Webb 1995: 102-103)

Finally, providing and receiving help from other classmates may also be very effective in order to actively construct knowledge in educational contexts. Webb (1989: 2) discusses the elements needed for help to be efficient: 1) help must be relevant; 2) the helper must stay at the same cognitive level as the student needing help; 3) help must be offered soon after the student has asked a question or made a mistake; 4) the student being helped needs to really understand the explanation; 5) the student in need of help must be willing to accept this help. While providing and receiving help in the CLIL classroom, students are using L2 in the social context of the classroom. Not only do they have opportunities for extended discourse, but chances of improving their oral fluency also become higher (Lynch 1996: 121).

Designing tasks that activate students' previous knowledge and based on meaning rather than form; asking students to explain ideas or reasons to their peers (peer tutoring) and asking students to give and provide help have been suggested in this paper as strategies directed to actively construct knowledge in CLIL contexts. These may lead to contradictions with the already existing notions, provoking cognitive controversy, the focus of the next section.

## 2.2. COGNITIVE CONFLICT

Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1990: 200) define cognitive conflict as “the conflict that arises when one person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, and opinions are incompatible with those of another, and the two seek to reach an agreement”. Contrasting points of view from different individuals may provoke an imbalance which forces the restructuring of 'old' information. But it is also possible that this imbalance occurs inside the same individual's mind, as a by-product of an internal contradiction between new and



previous conceptions. In constructivist terms, cognitive controversy is not seen as a problem to be avoided but as a necessary step in constructing knowledge at two levels: a) at an intrapersonal level, as the required antithesis that leads to the final integration of ideas (the active construction of knowledge analyzed in the previous section) and b) at an interpersonal level, as part of decision making and a necessary stage to find a common standpoint (by means of negotiation, which will be dealt with in the next section).

Theoreticians of cognitive development (Flavell, Kohlberg, Piaget) maintain that disagreements between peers where one of them (or both) is forced to understand matters through their peer's eyes are essential steps towards full cognitive development and what is more, towards a positive moral growth. Tjosvold and Johnson (1977: 679) go on to state that adopting someone's perspective challenges this person's mental structure, forcing them to restructure their mindset by looking for more appropriate cognitive structures.

However, Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1990: 207) underline the fact that controversy should be carefully planned so that it results in positive, not negative interaction. The problem arises when situations of disagreement are more frequent than those of agreement and when a group of disagreeing students goes against a single student; when the context is competitive or when the student feels negatively challenged. These conditions make conceptual conflict stronger and may cause a lack of confidence in students, who will be closing their minds to any new reasoning or ideas coming from the outside. Onrubia (1999: 119) mentions that it is important for students not to attribute peers' points of view to their incompetence or their lack of information and to be able to see ideas with a minimum of relativism.

In order for controversy to be constructive, certain conditions are needed. Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1990: 218-219) state that in constructive controversy a) information needs to be accurately communicated; b) a supportive atmosphere where team members feel at ease to challenge their peers' ideas is essential; c) controversy must be valued as an advantage and not as a drawback; d) peers' feelings must also be taken into account so that nobody feels hurt and e) the ultimate aim is not agreement at all times but also showing respect towards divergent standpoints. Results of experiments carried out by these authors reveal that the context where constructive controversy best develops should be one of cooperation and not competition, where a favourable atmosphere towards exchanging feelings apart from thoughts was fostered. In other words, educational contexts should encourage an atmosphere of respect rather than of competition.

In some cases, pairs or groups tend to avoid conflict and this may result in low-quality decisions: the different viewpoints are not discussed and the group may decide to take the majority standpoint, without justifying the reasons for this choice. Since opposite opinions tend to appear as confidence builds up, some time is needed for the group to get to a real understanding, that is, a decision every member is committed to, but keeping at the same time everyone's individuality (McKinley 1983: 14). Reaching a common standpoint by means of reasoning is perhaps one of the most important skills to be developed in students and the way to do it may be through dialogue and interaction, as the following section discusses.



### 2.3. NEGOTIATION OF MEANING

This chapter has defended the idea that knowledge is actively constructed in each person's mind by establishing meaningful connections between old and new information. These correlations may result in cognitive conflict, which is the route to true learning. However, this active cognitive construction, however individualised it may be in the end, is achieved in a real social context (the classroom) where learners use language (normally the L1 or L2 in the case of CLIL) to deal with topics, concepts and tasks. By means of discourse, learners in educational settings are active builders of their linguistic and their content knowledge. This dialogic exchange is named interaction and is defined as "the process by which the partners in a conversation reach an agreement." (Lynch 1996: 3). The agreement reached at a cognitive level by means of controversy discussed in the previous section is modelled at a verbal, social level. As Vygotsky puts it:

*Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice, on two levels. First, on the social, and later on the psychological level; first between people as an interpsychological category, and then inside the child, as an intrapsychological category (Vygotsky 1978: 128).*

This principle works for L2 learning as well. Functions at a social level are regulated by language, which is the mediator of thought (see 2.1.). L2 Learning is a social function that grows between individuals by means of language and is later internalized. Learning using language gives the latter a prominent role in education and in L2 learning. The more possibilities students have of interacting through language, the better they will assimilate content and the language itself. This is precisely the aim of CLIL: learning about academic matters and being able to communicate ideas effectively by using language.

The conversational process mentioned by Lynch, where students reach an agreement, differs from traditional teacher-learner interaction and is not necessarily one deprived of difficulties and misunderstandings. Collaboration from both sides is essential: speakers will have to restate their ideas, provide synonyms, repeat the same information with other words, ask questions and simplify statements, if they want their interaction to be successful. This restructuring of dialogic exchanges plays a major role in real conversations in general and specifically in L2 teaching and learning and is called negotiation: "a process in which a listener requests message clarification and confirmation and a speaker follows up these requests, often through repeating, elaborating, or simplifying the original message" (Pica 1994: 497)<sup>2</sup>.

Negotiation opportunities in learner-learner interactions should make the comprehension of messages in CLIL more accessible to both interlocutors: learners who are having communication problems can negotiate solutions, acquiring new cognitive structures and meaning. On the other hand, students who are uttering their messages need to pay attention to the necessary means of expression to communicate what they want to (Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki 1994: 449). Negotiation can draw the learner's



attention to aspects of language learning which would have gone unnoticed in a different situation, improving comprehension.

Different authors associate negotiation with input comprehension, which inevitably leads to Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis: only when learners have access to comprehensible input, can language acquisition happen. Lynch (1996: 15), for example, highlights that, through negotiation, input is made understandable not only because it is being simplified but because it is being clarified throughout the interaction. Input modifications in learners' conversations aim at understanding the message, essential in progressing in L2. Gass and Varonis (1994 quoted in Gass, Mackey and Pica 1998), for their part, observed that both negotiated and modified input affected comprehension in a positive way. Also, they noticed that previous negotiation affected later productions. The conclusion they reached is that interaction, together with the chance students have of modifying their messages, can influence the use of the language in a positive way.

Other authors, such as White (1987 quoted in Gass, Mackey and Pica 1998) suggest that it is not comprehensible input that is important in L2 learning but rather, INcomprehensible input. Modifications in language discourse driven by something incomprehensible trigger the students' acknowledgement of how inadequate their system of rules is.

Finally, a third set of scholars have underlined the importance of output over input. Swain's output hypothesis argues that advances in a foreign language depend on explicit attention to productive language skills (speaking and writing). Swain (2000:99) holds that producing output, the learner controls the situation, discovering what they can do and what they cannot. Another important role of output in L2 learning is the fact that students see their mistakes. Research carried out by Swain (2000) shows that students become conscious of their mistakes through output. With the aim of filling these gaps in knowledge when speaking or writing, students utilise dictionaries and reference books or they ask classmates or teachers about what they do not know.

Negotiation of meaning through dialogic interaction has proved to be crucial in order to acquire knowledge from the constructivist perspective held by CLIL, since language serves a double purpose: as a vehicle between students and their thoughts (communicating) and as a means of dealing with cognitive conflict and restructuring cognitive structures (learning).

### 3. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper started by pointing out three features involved in both the integrated curriculum and CLIL: integration of fields of knowledge, relevant cognitive associations and connection between life inside and outside school. These three elements have been used as a springboard to justify the presence of a theory of learning that gives shape to both educational components: constructivism.

The chapter has analysed three main components of constructivism relevant to this theoretical research: the learner's active construction of knowledge; cognitive conflict



and negotiation of meaning. Practitioners involved in implementing CLIL / integrated curriculum programmes should be aware that learners are active constructors of their knowledge by building correlations between areas of knowledge as well as between old and new information; that cognitive conflict allows students to reach a higher level of understanding and finally, that dialogue and negotiation among students do not only promote a higher competence at a linguistic level, but also at a cognitive one.

Tasks such as brainstorming, mind maps, note taking or flashcards presenting content may be introduced to link old and new information; observation sheets, experiments, hands-on or problem-solving activities in pairs or small groups may promote cognitive conflict while dictagloss, corrective feedback or correction discussion may draw students' attention to linguistic reflection. All in all, practitioners should have in mind the famous native American saying: "Tell me and I'll forget. Show me and I may not remember. Involve me and I'll understand."

## NOTES

1. For the purposes of this chapter, these terms are considered synonyms.
2. As Pica (1994: 447) explains, components of negotiation have been given different names: 'clarification requests', 'comprehension checks', 'confirmation checks', 'strategies', 'tactics' and 'indicators'.

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## ON CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF UNIVERSITY LECTURES

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**ABSTRACT.** *This paper reports on the analysis of the spoken production of academic lecturers in a Spanish university context where teaching is conducted through a foreign language (English). Adopting a Systemic Functional Approach (Halliday 1994; 2004) as the theoretical framework, this study explores the discourse that non-native speakers use in their engineering lectures as well as the structure that they follow in the delivery of the subject content. The preliminary results show that university lectures are complex genres that do not only transmit factual information (i.e. Halliday's ideational function) but encode multifaceted interpersonal relations which play a vital part in the construction of knowledge and in the conceptualisation of lecturers' and students' roles. A persistent use of the personal pronoun we in conjunction with modal verbs of possibility, specifically can, help to establish common ground between participants while meeting the typical problem-solving structure of scientific discourse. Following previous research (Llinares, Dafouz and Whittaker 2007) this study also views Systemic Functional Grammar as a powerful tool in the analysis of university lectures in particular and CLIL classrooms in general.*

**KEY WORDS:** *Academic Lectures, Modality, Phases, Pronoun System, Systemic Functional Grammar, University Education.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH AIMS

For decades now, English has been used as the language of international professional life in virtually all the spheres; however, only recently has it become the most widespread instructional language in higher education (Wilkinson 2004; Seidlhofer 2004). The rapid implementation of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms across Europe responds to universities' pressing need to attract international students, promote teacher-student exchanges and ultimately adapt higher education institutions to the new demands of the job market (Graddol 2006). In the specific case of Spain, universities are



gradually incorporating English as the vehicular language mainly in postgraduate programmes (Master and Doctoral courses) as well as in some bilingual degrees in an attempt to face the challenges of today's rapidly changing globalized world. So far, initiatives to implement a CLIL approach at university level are rather dispersed and experimental with practically no empirical research being conducted to assess its efficacy.

It is in the new CLIL university context that the in-progress research<sup>1</sup> described here operates, pursuing various objectives which have been articulated at both macro- and micro-levels of analysis. At the macro-level, a needs analysis was carried out using a questionnaire in order to a) examine the attitudes that both content teachers and students in the *Universidad Complutense de Madrid* and the *Universidad Politécnica de Madrid* display towards the potential implementation of a CLIL approach, and, b) identify the major linguistic and methodological adjustments that these two populations believe they would need to make in order to succeed in this new context.

At the micro-level of analysis, the project has focused on the actual teaching of content subjects through English, by observation of content classes and concentrating on some of the most salient linguistic features of university instructors' discourse. Ultimately, this study aims to assist non-native lecturers (specifically Spanish) in their delivery of content classes through a foreign language (English), while, concurrently, facilitating the comprehension and processing of lectures to non-native students who wish to enrol in programmes where English is the language of instruction.

Given that the general findings regarding the macro-level of analysis can be found in Dafouz *et al.* (2007), here I will only summarise here the most revealing results.

Regarding teachers' responses (n=70) to methodological adjustments in a CLIL context, three main changes were considered essential: material adaptation, slow down of classroom rhythm and slight reduction of content. Interestingly, teachers did not feel that there should be prominent modifications in the evaluation style, a finding that undoubtedly needs further investigation. Concerning students (n=85), the responses reported substantial improvement in the areas of subject-specific vocabulary, pronunciation and listening, whilst grammatical development ranked the lowest. Finally, as regards attitudes to a more extensive implementation of CLIL in a university context, both teachers and students show a positive stance but differ in their level of willingness. Thus, while the former group demands more administrative recognition as well as financial and methodological support as indispensable conditions, the latter consider subject content complexity and foreign language competence (teachers' and students') as key factors for successful CLIL. By and large, this survey has served as a gateway into the university classrooms where more qualitative, ethnographic and micro-oriented analysis can be conducted, as the following section describes.

## 2. THE MICRO-LEVEL: LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF UNIVERSITY LECTURES

The micro-level of analysis of this research has focused on the type of language lecturers use when teaching content through a foreign language. Of the different teaching



styles that university contexts offer, lecturing is still the predominant teaching mode, and both students and instructors report that over 3/4 of class time is usually taken by teacher talk (see Saroyan and Snell 1997; Morell 2004 *inter alia*). Several studies have analysed the language of lectures, focusing mostly on the comprehension process (Chaudron and Richards 1986; DeCarrico and Nattinger 1988; Benson 1989; Flowerdew 1994). More recently, Crawford Camiciotolli (2004; 2005) compared the different resources activated by an English native speaker in a lecture addressed to an international audience and discovered that, by and large, the speaker used a slower speech rate, was more redundant and incorporated a higher number of interpersonal features (i.e. elicitation, inclusive pronouns, etc) in his discourse. In line with this study, this work analyses the features that predominate in international lectures but, unlike Crawford Camiciotolli's work, it will focus on the language of non-native speakers of English.

### 3. MODEL OF ANALYSIS

For the analysis of the data, this study follows closely Young's (1994) model which, in turn, is based on Systemic Functional Grammar (Halliday 2004). Systemic Functional Grammar (hereafter SFG) has proved to be very useful in the analysis of language since it is oriented to the description of language as a *resource for meaning* rather than a system of rules (see Llinares and Whittaker this volume). Moreover, this model has been used extensively in classroom contexts and educational research since it "explicitly indicates the connection between situational factors, or contextual constructs, and language choices. (...) [and] allows a researcher not only to identify the macro-structure of a language variety, but also, to greater or lesser degrees of detail, to identify the micro-features that make up this structure" (1994: 161). The micro-features to be analysed are based on Halliday's (2004) view of the use of language to convey three main macro-functions, namely, the ideational function, which represents reality; the interpersonal function, which is used to enact social relationships through the text, and the textual function, which helps to connect the ideas in a text. In Halliday's model, different areas of the grammar of English are used to convey these three functions<sup>2</sup>.

For the study of the ideational function (clause as representation), Halliday concentrates on the analysis of processes. A process is the verbal resource for sorting out our experience of all kinds of events into a small number of types. The system discriminates six different subtypes of process, namely: material, mental and relational (which are the three main types of process in the English transitivity system), and another three, that are behavioural, verbal and existential processes (Halliday 1994:107). Briefly, material processes are defined as processes of doing (e.g. *run, paint, construct, read...*), mental processes are processes of experiencing or sensing (e.g. *see, hear, know, feel, believe...*), and relational processes are processes of being or becoming, in which a participant is characterised or identified, or situated circumstantially (e.g. *be, seem, become, stand, get...*)<sup>3</sup>.



For the realisation of the interpersonal function (clause as exchange), SFG mainly focuses on mood and modality. While mood examines indicative, interrogative and imperative clauses (Martin, Mathiessen and Painter 1997:11), modality covers such notions as probability, usuality, obligation and readiness, notions which are realised by modal verbs (e.g. *must, should, can, may, might, could...*) as well as modality adjuncts (*probably, usually, absolutely, readily, certainly...*).

Finally, for the realisation of the textual function (clause as message) attention is paid to the different resources concerned “with the organization of information within individual clauses and, through this, with the organization of the larger text” (Martin, Mathiessen and Painter 1997: 21). Linguistically, this function is realised by connectors (*and, but, therefore...*) and other cohesive features such as collocation, reference, ellipsis, etc.

Concerning the internal organization of lectures, previous works have identified different models. For instance, the classical study by Goffman (1981) distinguished three modes of lectures: memorization, aloud reading and fresh talk. Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981), in turn, also identify three lecturing styles named: reading style, conversational style and rhetorical style, styles that gradually move from more formal and controlled discourse to more informal. A recent study by Sander, Stevenson, King and Coates (2000: 313) on students’ expectations of university teaching simply distinguishes between formal and interactive lectures. In formal lectures the teacher delivers a set presentation while students listen and take notes or are given a set of notes to follow, whereas in interactive lectures the teacher delivers the presentation but, at the same time, invites students to ask and respond to questions. Additionally, Sander *et al.* (2000) point out that in interactive lectures students may be required to undertake exercises to check their own progress. Although there is little evidence about the type of lecture that currently predominates in university contexts, (and admittedly, lectures and lecturers are rather idiosyncratic) there seems to be tacit agreement that a more interactive lecturing style is becoming the norm across universities (see Lynch 1994; Morell 2004; Fortanet and Bellés 2005; Dafouz, Núñez and Sancho in press)

In order to overcome this idiosyncrasy regarding lecturing styles and lecture organisation, this study decided to follow as well a Systemic Functional approach for the analysis of the internal structure of university lectures. Based on Young’s work (1994: 164) the concept of *phase* was introduced, since, in her view, the notion of phase offers a more realistic account of the structure of the lecture than the traditional beginning, middle and end pattern. Phases, then, are defined as “strands of discourse that recur discontinuously throughout a particular language event and, taken together, structure that event. These strands recur and are interspersed with other resulting in an interweaving of threads as the discourse progresses” (1994: 165).

In the seven lectures Young analysed, she distinguished six strands or phases, three which she called metadiscoursal, that is “strands which comment on the discourse itself” (1994: 166) and three which she referred to as “the other three” and for research purposes will be identified here as non-metadiscoursal. The metadiscoursal phases are the 1) *Discourse Structuring phase*, in which the speaker announces the different parts



or directions of the lecture, 2) the *Conclusion phase*, in which the main points covered are summarised, and 3) the *Evaluation phase*, where “the lecturer reinforces each other of the strands by evaluating information which is about to be, or has already been transmitted” (1994: 167). According to Young, these metadiscourse phases occur across disciplines and levels, indicating that the relationship between addressors and addressees in this situation follows a particularly consistent macro-structure. The non-metadiscourse phases are 4) the *Interaction phase*, which refers to the interpersonal strategies that the lecturer implements to establish contact with the students and to ensure comprehensibility; 5) the *Theory or Content phase*, where the theories, models and definitions of the subject are presented; and 6) the *Examples phase*, where lecturers illustrate theoretical concepts through concrete examples so that students are able to follow the ideas successfully.

Once the general theoretical framework has been presented, the next sections will cover the teaching/learning context, the method of analysis and, finally, the major findings of this study.

#### 4. THE DATA AND METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The data of this in-progress study currently contain the transcriptions of three university lectures given in English by non-native content teachers from the Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, as part of an engineering course entitled *What goes on behind Formula One Engines*<sup>4</sup>. These three lectures are a subset of a larger set of data that covers twelve hours and included a fourth lecturer<sup>5</sup>. The overall objective of the course, according to the organisers, was to combine theory and practice in an attractive setting (the city of Madrid) and supplement the academic formation with cultural activities. The topics of these three lectures included the technical constraints and regulations in Formula One cars, theories of composite materials and general principles of aerodynamics. The three lecturers recorded had volunteered to give the course and regarded the experience as a means to enhance the international profile of their faculty. As for the learners, a total of twenty-six students from fourteen different nationalities took part in the programme. By and large, students agreed that learning content through a foreign language generally entailed the need to have more visual aids (e.g. handouts, power point presentations, supplementary readings, etc), a clearer structure of the content covered in the lecture and more exemplification. Less uniformly, students reported to appreciate a slower pace on the teacher’s discourse, as well as more repetition and recapitulation of main ideas (for a more detailed account see Dafouz, Núñez and Sancho forthcoming).

In order to mitigate the problem of subjectivity in the analysis, a sample of one lecture was analysed by three different researchers, and where necessary changes were made until agreement between raters was achieved. For example, it was decided that when there was constant repetition of one item as a result of hesitation (as in *I...I...I think...*) this item would count as one single token. For analytical purposes, the lectures



have been coded EngL1 (Engineering Lecture 1), Eng L2, Eng L3 and will be referred to by these codes throughout the rest of the article.

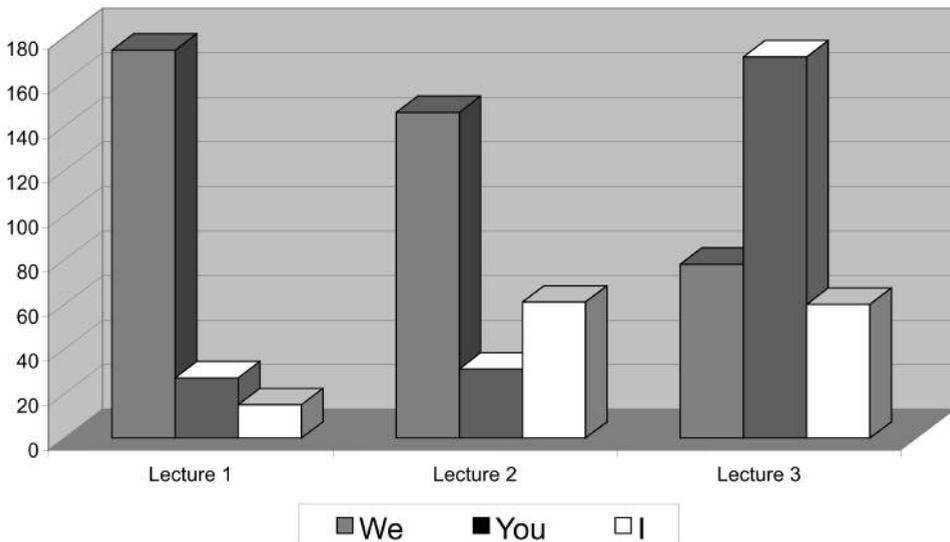
The project is at present collecting other lectures from the disciplines of Physics, Economics and Literature. It is our intention to investigate whether lecturing styles correlate with different disciplines, as some authors advocate (Dudley-Evans 1994; Saroyan and Snell 1997), or whether there may be a macro-model that is able to encompass both technical and non-technical fields (Young 1994).

## 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Given the broad scope that the SFG adopts, a limited account of the most significant findings will be presented here. Focusing on the different phases presented above, this study will highlight those aspects, which quantitatively speaking have more prominence<sup>6</sup>.

In the first stage of the analysis, what was noticed was the high proportion of personal pronouns used by the three lecturers, in detriment of other impersonal forms. Specifically, the pronoun *we* was the most common personal pronoun used, with 398 occurrences; pronoun *you* was used in 229 occasions, and pronoun *I* was found in 136 instances, as figure 1 displays.

FIGURE 1. *Pronoun use by lecture*



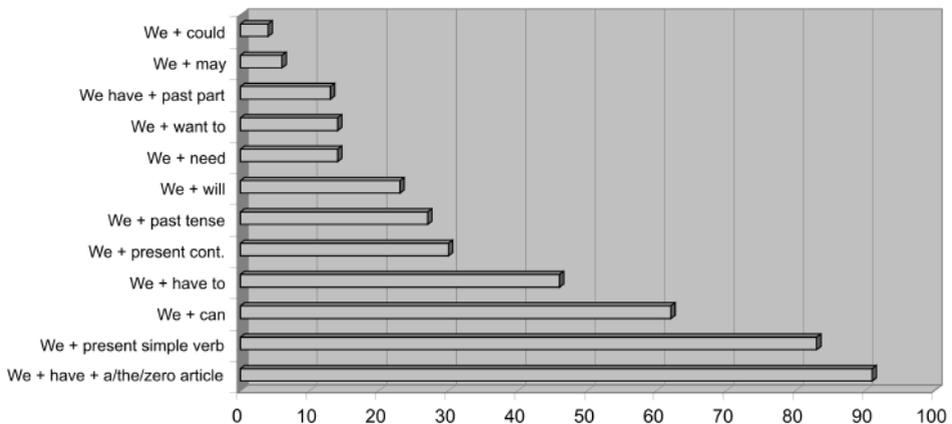
By sections all pronouns appear discontinuously in the six phases identified by Young with different discursive functions. In the case of *we*, the lecturers in this study use it as a common resource in the *Discourse Structuring* phase to anticipate the different stages in their talk, to guide the listeners through them and to set the objectives. More precisely, both lecturers 1 and 2 employ *we* as an opening device as if they were about to initiate a journey with their students into the various sections of their talk:

EngL1: Do you think Formula One engines are complex? (...) Today *we will* talk about Formula One engines, (...) *we will* offer some definitions about the geometry and volumetric efficiency (...) and *we will* see some examples.

EngL2: What *we will* do during this day is concentrate on composite materials. Then *we* look into for about twenty minutes, *we will* look at the basic knowledge of composite materials (. . .) *we will* see an example of composite material and *we will* follow the whole process.

Interestingly, in addition to the presence of *we* all three lectures coincide in the use of modality in the *Discourse Structuring* phase. The second step in this analysis was to identify the presence of clusters associated with the pervasive *we*. Figure 2 shows the 12 clusters found in the data:

FIGURE 2. *Distribution by clusters of we in lectures*



Specifically, the form *will* to announce future directions in the talk seems to predominate since the speaker is helping the audience to set up a lecture framework by “making predictions about where the lecture is going, seeing where one component fits with another and within the whole lecture, and assessing the relative significance of each



aspect of the lecture” (Thompson 1994: 176). It is worth noting, that other studies which analysed L1 lecturers (Thompson 1994; Fortanet 2004) found the use of *I* pronoun dominating in this phase since the rhetorical function of this section is to focus on the lecturer’s role as actor. These findings do not match entirely our data where pronoun *we* is preferred by lecturers 1 and 2 as a means to include both speaker and listener through the lecture. Obviously, this preliminary analysis needs to be subjected to further investigation in a larger-scale study before more definite conclusions could be safely drawn regarding lecturing styles in CLIL contexts.

Examples of pronoun *we* are also found in the *Conclusion* phase, when the lecturer summarises the main topic or idea to be extracted from the talk and, sometimes, announces the content of a prospective lecture:

EngL2: *I will finish* with this. If *we* put in three directions *we* get something very different in stiffness to the standard. This is what *we* all have to remember.

EngL1: Tomorrow *we are going to* talk about the history of Formula One.

In this *Conclusion phase* it seems that modals do not usually play an important role since there is little evaluation. It is rather a factual strand which focuses on key aspects of the lecture and favours repetition and recapitulation.

In the *Evaluation* phase, lecturers also employ the pronoun *we* as a way to accompany students in the discovery of the key terms and ideas. The instructor presents himself as part of the class when he underlines what he considers to be the main concepts, and makes explicit judgements regarding the validity, appropriateness or relevance of the theories presented. By and large, attributive relations are the ones dominating this phase, rather than modals or other attitudinal devices, with lecturers revisiting the main points touched upon in the *Conclusion phase* but evaluating them openly so that students will know how to weigh each of them.

EngL2: Now, this is what *we need to remember*. *This is fundamental* in composite materials.

EngL3: *We know* that this *was a very interesting finding*, a very interesting one for the students that participated in it.

Alternatively, lecturers also use pronoun *you* to evaluate lecture content along with imperative forms as a direct address to the audience emphasising the importance of the message, as in:

EngL1: *Try, try, you* have to remember how *important this aspect is*.

EngL3: Satellite development. *This is very interesting*. I think *you-you-you* will interest in this project.

Regarding the three non-metadiscoursal phases (i.e. *Interpersonal*, *Exemplification* and *Theory* phase) and the distribution of personal pronouns within those phases, the



analysis tentatively suggests that the presence of *we* may respond to lecturers' tendency (conscious or not) to establish a bond with the learner while concurrently, using *we* as a coherence strategy to organise internally the speech event (see Fortanet 2004 for a detailed account of this function of *we*).

In the *Exemplification* phase, pronoun *we* is used together with some modals such as *can/could*, and semi-modals such as *have to*, in an attempt to help the listener follow the typical scientific reasoning style:

EngL1: Then if **we** want to increase the speed of the sound, *we have to* increase the temperature (...) It's problematic. *We have to* heat the air and perhaps we have other problems. *We could have* a loss of volumetric efficiency if we increase the temperature of the air, then the volumetric efficiency could go down.

In the case of lecturer 2, it is interesting to notice his continuous shift from pronoun *we* to *you* when he moves from the general explanatory level to the exemplification level, where he draws students' attention by providing practical and clear examples:

EngL2: If *we* try to recover the strength of the structure this is very difficult because joints are very difficult in composite structure. *You* have the normal experience with a car bumper. If *you* had a small crash it was easy to repair.

EngL2: Currently *we have* carbon fibre but in the future *we will keep* having the same? (...) *Imagine* that you have a bicycle of carbon fibre, every time that *you do* that *you may* produce small cracks that will damage the structure.

EngL3: This is only an aspect of the question *we have to* handle (...) And I don't know if *you* will follow it all.

Curiously, in these lectures, as in Young's (1994) findings, *Exemplification* strands are more numerous than theoretical strands, suggesting how important the role of illustrating and offering examples is in academic discourse, and even more specifically in scientific disciplines such as engineering where there is an unavoidable connection between experimentation and theory (Halliday 1996; Saroyan and Snell 1997).

As regards the use of personal pronoun *I*, the analysis reveals that lecturers 2 (60 instances) and 3 (61 instances) employ it more frequently than lecturer 1 (15 instances), but in all three cases, pronoun *I* plays the same discursive functions. In other words, this form is largely used by the lecturers to signal a shift from their academic or social persona (i.e. engineering university instructors) to their individual self. Self-reference uses cover functions that range from the indication of personal experience or academic background, to individual interpretations or evaluations of content, as well as including explicit apologies for the lack of linguistic skills or computer skills, as the following examples reflect:



EngL1: *We want to increase this (...) We want to increase this... Why this? Perhaps, I don't know where is the control stick. I don't have any key here. Sorry, I don't know what happens.*

EngL2: *I'm professor of Material Science (...) I have been teaching composites for over 20 years (...) I arrived here as permanent professor (...) I really thank the organization for this opportunity and, although I am no expert in Formula One engines I will do my best.*

EngL3: *I'm full professor of Aerodynamics here in this Faculty and I'm responsible for... My English is very limited (...) I hope you can understand what I want to tell you.*

From the examples above, what could be highlighted as specific to non-native lecturers in comparison to native ones is a self-deprecation strategy. In other words, the three non-native lecturers all apologised for their limited linguistic skills in the foreign language at the beginning of the lecture probably as a way to win the audience and establish a solidarity bond.

Comparing some of these findings on pronoun use with others of university discourse, Hyland (2001) observed that in Research Articles the growing tendency for scholars was to replace pronoun *we* for *I*, a tendency that Fortanet and Bellés (2005) suggest may also be extending to academic speech and that Thompson (1994) also found in her data. These results, however, do not match the results of our study, although more data is definitely needed to draw firm conclusions.

In the *Theoretical Phase* the lecturers present the concepts and definitions to be covered. Thus, this phase fulfils Halliday's ideational macro-function. The analysis of the ideational function, that is, the function responsible for the expression of content, is crucial in CLIL contexts, especially since most reservations regarding the implementation of this approach are related to a possible loss or reduction of subject content (Creese 2005). In tertiary education such concern is even more present as students have to meet the academic expectations of their universities and be prepared for a highly competitive professional market.

Within the *Theoretical* phase, the most frequent cluster was the one formed by *we + lexical verb* (91 instances) as figure 2 displays, where the verbs mostly refer to material processes. In the case of these material processes, that is, verbal forms that either entail actions (i.e. doing something) or events (i.e. something is happening) a tentative analysis revealed that the material processes that predominate in the data refer to actions (verbs such as *increase, decrease, change, put, fill, produce...*) rather than to events; a finding that is connected with the pervasive presence of personal pronouns, since it is normally animate participants the ones that carry out material processes. In addition to these, some examples of *we + lexical verb* involving mental processes were also found, most of them dealing with the subtype verbs of cognition (*think, believe*) and perception (*see*), rather



than of affection (*like*). The excerpt below offers an example of the various material and mental processes enacted by the speaker in his explanation of Formula One engines:

EngL1: If the temperature *increases* then *we have to lower* the density, then *we have to reduce* this term and *change* the formula (...) And *we have to avoid* this temperature that *we are going to introduce* into the engine (...) *We have calculated* the thermal efficiency (...) and *we have to calculate* now the volumetric efficiency (...) *we have to think* how to *reduce* (...) and *introduce* the value that *we know*.

The second most frequent cluster found in the *Theory* phase was *we+ have+ a/the/no article* (83 instances). This cluster acts as a presentational device whereby lecturers introduce new topics or subtopics, without having to increase their linguistic repertoire with other alternative topicalisers, such as *regarding, concerning, as for, as regards, turning to*, etc.

EngL1: *We have this*: the air of the density and normally...normally...we use the density of the air pressure.

EngL2: *What we have here*, as we will see later, is two special fibres. *Here we have* again the criteria for....

EngL3: *We have three possibilities* for the study of the aerodynamics...

Another interesting device which frequently appeared in the *Theory* phase as well as in the *Exemplification* phase of the lecture was the cluster *we + have to* (46 tokens). After analysing the data, it seems that this structure is mainly used by lecturers to present the steps to follow in the scientific line of reasoning, appearing at first glance to free itself from the prototypical meaning of external “obligation”. This use may also be interpreted as an attempt to redefine the authoritative role of the teacher in his/her role of content presenter, so that he/she is to be perceived as a guide showing a solution path with certainty and authority. On closer analysis, however, it was noticed that this cluster is not evenly distributed among the data and that lecturer 1 hoards most of its uses (42 instances), in comparison to the 2 instances in lecturer 2 and lecturer 3. This result turns *have to* into a feature of personal lecturing style rather than a general lecturing strategy of non-native speakers.

EngL1: If we have more fuel than air *we have to* introduce the function (...) then *we have to* put here the thermal efficiency. *We have to* multiply by the mechanical efficiency and diagram efficiency.

The fourth most frequent cluster in this analysis was *we + can* (62 tokens); a combination shared by the three lecturers, although with differences in the number of tokens. In terms of lecture distribution, the findings suggest that this structure is mostly present in the *Exemplification* and the *Theory* phase when the lecturer is illustrating the different steps that can be followed to solve a problem. By using *can*, he is suggesting a



number of possible options and, at the same time, in combination with *we*, he is encouraging the students to follow the same line of reasoning.

EngL1: And *we can* now for petrol or for gasoline ...*we can* introduce here the value 300. If we are the engineers that we are thinking about this...*we can* choose to increase (...) and then if *we can* increase the efficiency, imagine that we obtain a best material.

EngL2: *We can increase* the thickness of the skin very progressively but there are some rules about that.

In interpersonal terms, another interpretation for the high use of *can* (as in the case of *we*) could be connected with the construction of a solidarity context for learners where the unequal status between participants is somewhat balanced. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006: 258) in their analysis of classroom directives in secondary education claim that “the more equal interlocutors are, the more the power difference will be evened out so that requests from the more powerful [teachers] to the less powerful [student] participant will be progressively more indirect”. In consonance with these authors, it could also be argued that, in the particular case of many CLIL teachers, their non-native status and their specialisation in non-linguistic disciplines may drive them to adopt a more egalitarian tone than in normal teaching situations.

Apart from *can*, *have to*, and to a lesser degree *will*, there are very few instances of any other modal verbs in these lecturers. While lecturer 1, agglutinates most of his modality under the forms *can* and *have to*; lecturers 2 and 3 make a limited use of other forms, namely *need* (used 7 times both by lecturer 2 and 3), *may* and *could* (used 6 times but only by lecturer 2). This overrepresentation of *can* reveals that these lecturers do not exploit the full range of linguistic devices available for the expression of modality in English. Furthermore, some examples even reveal that certain uses of *can* and *have to* presented here are used inadequately; a finding that calls for more research in the area of modality. This result matches the one by Crawford Camiciottoli (2004) where, comparing native and non-native lecturers’ use of modality, she discovered that *can* and *will* are the most frequent verbs employed by the non-native group with all other modals underrepresented. Likewise, studies on EFL learners’ use of modals (see Neff *et al.* 2004) coincide that epistemic meanings pose particular problems for non-native speakers. In the specific case of CLIL contexts, Llinares, Dafouz and Whittaker (2007) also found that students in secondary education make a very limited use of modality and, again, that *can* is almost their only choice for the expression of ability, probability and permission. Paradoxically, modality is one of the key dimensions in academic language, both spoken and written, and interpreting and using adequately the semantic and pragmatic meaning of modal verbs is essential for both students and lecturers.

To conclude this analysis of the macro-functions and micro-features (borrowing Young’s 1994 terminology) found in academic lectures, it is essential to underline that the study of the textual macro-function, that is, the one responsible for constructing cohesive



and coherent texts has not been initiated yet. It is our intention to focus on these textual resources (e.g. connectors, reference, reiteration, collocations, topical elements...) in further research in order to identify any preferences in the discourse of university lectures.

## 6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study has attempted to identify, using a Systemic Functional approach, some of the most significant linguistic devices that appear in university lectures by non-native speakers. In doing so, it has shown that academic lectures are a complex genre that not only present factual information but also evaluate the subject matter, interpret reality and reflect the speaker's tenor with the audience. Secondly, it has suggested that Systemic Functional Grammar can be a powerful theoretical model for the analysis of lectures, since it enables researchers to obtain descriptions which cover both the macro-structure (i.e. organisation) and the micro-features of language varieties, as well as the situations which engender them. On a more detailed level, this preliminary study has revealed that lecturers' high use of pronoun *we* grants an accessible tone to the discourse and may favour student intervention. By extensively using this pronoun, avoiding modal forms with meanings of obligation and involving students in reasoning and problem-solving processes, it is believed that lecturers seek to promote an egalitarian atmosphere. Possibly, such solidarity may be due to the fact that teachers themselves are not language experts and so display a logical over-mindfulness of content verbalization. In this sense, the new teaching situation that CLIL is creating may act as a catalyst to balance the highly asymmetrical roles performed by instructors and students in some conservative university communities (Musumeci 1996; Nikula 2005; Dafouz and Sancho 2006).

Admittedly, the small-scale of this study calls for caution in the interpretation of the findings. Variables such as different personalities, teaching goals, and styles, the instructors' competence in the foreign language, as well as the role of the students, or the discipline analysed, need to be factored in and controlled for. Thus, further research in this line should contemplate these aspects.

As a final remark, and regarding CLIL considerations, it is essential that in addition to methodological concerns and questions of syllabus design and language planning, CLIL stakeholders include in their agenda the conducting of empirical research across the different education levels. Research, in addition to the different institutional decisions mentioned above, will undoubtedly help to make the CLIL approach more robust and reliable.

## NOTES

1. The present study is part of a large scale project on Content and Language Integrated Learning in Higher Education, supported by a Complutense University Research Grant in the year 2006 (PR1/06-14457-B) and currently co-financed by the UCM and Comunidad de Madrid as a Research Group (CCG06-UCM/ENE-



- 1061). The remaining members of the research group are (in alphabetical order): Diana Foran (UCM), Eusebio de Lorenzo (UCM), Ana Llinares (UAM), Begoña Núñez (UCM) and Carmen Sancho (UPF).
2. See Halliday (2004) for an updated introduction to the model.
  3. Since this is an exploratory study, a comprehensive account of behavioural, verbal and existential processes is not included here.
  4. Further information regarding the characteristics of the course, underlying principles and contents developed can be found in the official website address: [www.BEST.eu.org](http://www.BEST.eu.org) (accessed 12 July 2006).
  5. The data videorecorded from the other lectures and the fourth lecturer are currently in the process of transcription and analysis.
  6. The work presented here is based on a quantitative analysis of the two major linguistic devices found in the corpus (namely, personal pronouns and modal and semi-modal verbs) in terms of number of occurrences and frequency count per 1000 words.

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## TALKING AND WRITING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN CLIL CONTEXTS: A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL LEARNERS OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY<sup>1</sup>

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**ABSTRACT.** *This paper presents an analysis of spoken and written productions in English by early secondary school Spanish students (11-12 year olds), collected in two state schools which have just started introducing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in a number of disciplines. A topic selected from the curriculum for Geography and History was the focus of a class discussion in a revision session led by the teacher, which was recorded for the oral data. The written data consisted of a short composition on the same topic, written a few days later, in class. The analysis follows the systemic-functional model. We focus on the representation of content in the language used by the learners: types of processes, circumstances and clause complexes, and on the interventions of the speaker or writer by using expressions of modality. We also look at register differences, comparing the learners' spoken and written productions. Finally, we reflect on the learners' productions in relation to the language used in the textbook they follow. The work is a part of a larger project, a longitudinal study on language needs in the CLIL class in this discipline.*

**KEY WORDS:** *CLIL, Written Productions, Oral Productions.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In Spain, there are several CLIL projects under way, both at the primary and secondary levels. One of the pioneering projects was the result of the agreement between the British Council and the Spanish Ministry of Education for the teaching of an integrated curriculum (Spanish/English) in a number of schools ranging from nursery, through primary to secondary level, in a pilot scheme. This project started in 1996 at the pre-school level, and has recently reached the secondary level. While all the schools involved in this agreement teach social sciences (geography and history) in English, the



other subjects selected for the projects depend on the availability of specialists willing to teach their subject in English. At secondary level, as opposed to primary, while teachers who volunteer for the CLIL classes have a high level of English and are content specialists, in many cases, not being English-teaching specialists, they are not able to identify the linguistic needs of their learners in their subjects. In this situation, we think it is important for researchers to focus on specific subjects and the genres that they require and find the linguistic and rhetorical features that need work. This is all the more necessary since the preliminary secondary school curriculum for the teaching of social sciences in English does not offer much linguistic orientation apart from lists of vocabulary related to the topics.

## 2. AIM OF THE PRESENT STUDY

This study is part of a larger project aimed at providing support for secondary school CLIL teachers. In it we are trying to identify the specific linguistic needs of EFL learners in the area of social sciences (geography and history) as the subject most frequently found in the new CLIL classes. We feel this is urgent, since a large part of learning a discipline is learning the language of that discipline, and these students' success depends to a large extent on language proficiency in the subjects they are studying (Swain 1990).

In view of the teaching/learning scenario described, the purpose of this paper is twofold: first, to analyse first year secondary school learners' (11/12-year-olds) written and spoken production on a topic from the social science syllabus in two state secondary schools that follow an integrated curriculum (Spanish/English) in order to produce a first description of student achievement and difficulties. And, second, to compare the features of the students' productions with the language used for this topic in their textbook, as their main source of input, both in its original written form, and recontextualized in the teachers' classroom discourse. While the students are, obviously, not expected to reproduce the register of the expert, their evaluation in this subject will be based on their ability to reproduce the content of the topics studied. We wanted to describe the degree to which their spoken and written interlanguage achieved that aim.

## 3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for the study comes from genre theory developed within Systemic Functional Linguistics (see Dafouz this volume), as our approach is both rhetorical and linguistic. In this theory, a genre is a goal-oriented social process realised through register, with features appropriate for the social context (eg. Martin 1992: 505). Our approach follows studies using this model that looked for the features characteristic of different genres belonging to different educational levels. These studies continued the work in educational linguistics begun in the 1970s in the U.K. by linguists



and teachers collaborating with Halliday (see chapters in Whittaker *et al.* 2006 for the history of this research and its applications). This research developed Hasan's work on genre (eg. 1989) in a number of projects in Australian schools, led by Jim Martin (Rothery 1994; Christie and Martin 1997; Christie 2002). The studies point out the role of the changing linguistic uses in the transition from the oral to the written language (Halliday 1989), as a key factor in the study of school disciplines, and they offer a linguistic model that allows us to analyse the written and oral texts produced by the students in the classroom. Finally, in our specific discipline, the language of social science has been studied by psychologists and linguists, given the difficulty, both for comprehension and production, it represents for native learners. Working in the SFL model, we have a number of studies of the language of history and, to a lesser extent, geography (van Leeuwen and Humphrey 1996; Veel and Coffin 1996; Coffin 2000; Groom 2004). Using this framework, then, we designed our research project, some first results of which we present in this chapter.

The selection of the linguistic features to be analysed in the corpus comes from Halliday's (2004) view of the use of language to fulfil three main functions: to represent reality (ideational function), to interact with others (interpersonal function) and to build text (textual function). In Halliday's model, different areas of the grammar of English are shown to convey these three functions. In our study, we focus on the area of transitivity: processes, circumstances and clause complexes (all part of the ideational function), used to express the content the students are producing, and modality (interpersonal function), used to qualify statements from the point of view of the speaker/writer. Our purpose is to find out if our learners are able to make the appropriate choices to construct a text that belongs to a specific educational genre.

#### 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Data was collected in two classes from two Madrid schools (CA and CB) in areas with different socio-economic status (upper- and lower-middle class). The students participated in an oral activity led by the teacher in which they discussed a number of points taken from the syllabus for the topic *Natural Disasters*. In the next social science class session, the students were asked to write a short composition on the same subject. The topic of *Natural Disasters* was chosen as the teachers in both schools agreed that it was one of the most popular among their students, and we hoped it would motivate them to participate. The written data was collected from 26 students in school A and 17 from school B. The writing prompt they were given was as follows:

Choose one natural disaster that you have studied. Write a composition about it. Try to include the following ideas: Describe a natural disaster. Explain where it takes place and why. What are the consequences, and what can be done to minimise them? Can you personally do anything to prevent or mitigate natural disasters? (20 minutes).

The teachers had included the same points in the discussion.



The linguistic analysis of processes, circumstances, clause complexes and modality followed Halliday (2004) and Martin *et al.* (1997). The decision as to the level of specificity the transitivity analysis was made on the basis of the type of language required for the register of the topic. Tables 1, 2 and 3 below show the categories that were selected for analysis; with the code we gave each category in the angled brackets:

TABLE 1. *Transitivity processes and circumstances*

<i>Process Type</i>	<i>Circumstances</i>
Material <MA>	Extent place <ET-PL>
Relational –intensive-attributive <RE-IN-ATT> –intensive-identifying <RE-IN-ID> –circumstantial <RE-CIR> –possessive <RE-POS>	Extent time <ET-TM> Location place <LO-PL> Location time <LO-TM> Manner <MN> Cause <CA>
Mental <ME>	Contingency <CO>
Behavioural <BE>	Accompaniment <AO>
Verbal <VE>	Role <RO>
Existential <EXI>	Matter <MT> Angle <AN>

TABLE 2. *Clause complexes and logical connectors*

<i>Kind</i>	<i>Finite: Modal</i>	<i>Adjunct</i>
MODALIZATION –PROBABILITY <MODA-PR>	MUST/SHOULD/WILL, WOULD/MAY, MIGHT, CAN, COULD	Probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe
MODALIZATION –USUALITY <MODA-US>	MUST/SHOULD/WILL, WOULD/MAY, MIGHT, CAN, COULD	Usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely
MODULATION- OBLIGATION <MODU-OB>	MUST/SHOULD/MAY, MIGHT, CAN, COULD	Definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all costs, by all means
MODULATION READINESS- <MODU-RE> (Inclination, Ability)	MAY, MIGHT, CAN COULD; WILL, WOULD, MUST, SHALL, CAN, COULD	Willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily



TABLE 3. *Modality*

	<i>Parataxis</i>	<i>Hypotaxis</i>
Projection (Speech and thoughts) <PR>	Quoting	(that, whether, wh- Reporting (Nominal clauses)
Expansion (Elaboration) <EL>	That is, for example	who, which Non-defining relative clauses
Expansion (Extension) <EX>	And, or, but	Besides, instead of, as well as, rather than, while, whereas
Expansion (Enhancement) <EN-TM> Time <EN-PL> Place <EN-MN> Manner <EN-CAU> Cause <EN-CO> Contingency <EN-AO> Accompanient <EN-RO> Role <EN-MT> Matter	And then, for, and so, and yet	while, when, before, after, since, until, by, because, if, although, in spite of

The spoken data analysed comes from the students' performance during the half-hour whole-class discussion session<sup>2</sup>. In each class, the students produced about 2,000 words. The compositions contained between 85 and 100 words. The text book material on the topic had about 600 words. The oral and written data was coded by two experts who discussed problems of analysis and made decisions together when there were discrepancies. Students' errors were also coded for future analysis.

## 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section we present and briefly comment on the most relevant results from the analysis. In each table, in the left-hand column we identify the type of data: oral production in the discussion in the classes from the two schools (CA-DIS, CB-DIS), written compositions by the same students (CA-TEXT, CB-TEXT) and the textbook material (TEXTBOOK). Across the top of each table we find the code for the features included. First, in Table 4, we give the data for the process types, details of which appeared in Table 1 above:



TABLE 4. *Types of processes in the learners' spoken production (CA/CB-DIS), written production (CA/CB-TEXT), and in the textbook (TEXTBOOK)*

	MA	ME	RE (IN-ID)	RE (IN-ATT)	RE (CIR)	RE (POS)	BE	VE	EXI
CA-DIS	78.84	1.92	5.12	0.64	3.2	6.41	0.64	1,92	1,28
CB-DIS	60.76	4.61	5.38	10.76	4.61	6.15	6.15	0	1,53
CA-TEXT	66.47	1.37	10.05	7.82	3.35	2.79	5.02	1.39	1.67
CB-TEXT	63.15	3.94	9.64	6.57	2.63	3.94	3.94	1.75	4.38
TEXTBOOK	62.06	3.44	6.89	15.51	3.44	1.72	0	3.44	3.44

Table 4 shows that in both registers of the students' language, there is a high proportion of material processes (MA) -more than 60% of all the processes- followed by relational processes, mainly of the identifying (RE-IN-ID) and attributive (RE-IN-ATT) sub-types. Thus, students' productions respond appropriately to the task of describing, defining and explaining events or actions in the physical world. The textbook, with a very similar pattern of process types in general, contains more descriptive relational processes (attributive), while the students produce a higher proportion of definition (identifying relational processes). In the comparison between the students' written and oral performance, it is interesting that both groups use a higher proportion of possessive relational processes (RE-POS) in the discussion, showing more personal involvement than in the compositions, as in: *ST: We can help a lot if a natural disaster ever occurs ... because we have <RE-POS> aeroplanes and a lot of transport (CB-DIS)*

Next, in Table 5, we look at the circumstances the learners used to expand their clauses. The types and their codes were also shown in Table 1.

TABLE 5. *Types of circumstances in the learners' spoken production (CA/CB-DIS), written production (CA/CB-TEXT) and in the textbook (TEXTBOOK)*

	ET-TM	ET-PL	LO-TM	LO-PL	MN	CAU	AO	MT	AN	CO
CA-DIS	5.76	0	0	69.23	3.84	11.53	0	0	0	9.61
CB-DIS	4.87	0	14.63	53.65	4.87	9.75	2.43	4.87	2.43	2.43
CA-TEXT	0.9	0	11.81	55.45	25.45	3.63	1.81	0.9	0	0
CB-TEXT	0	0	6	68	14	0	2	4	6	0
TEXTBOOK	6.45	0	12.9	58.06	9.67	3.22	3.22	6.45	0	0

Table 5 shows that, as the topic requires, the majority of circumstances used are of place (LO-PL), in the learners' written and spoken productions, as well as in the textbook.



In the learners' written texts, circumstances of manner appear; these are also found to a certain extent in the textbook. Circumstances of cause are also used in the discussions, while they rarely appear in the learners' compositions (where cause is mainly expressed through clause complexes, see table 6 below). There are also a few circumstances of time, referring to when the natural disaster takes place, or stages in the event described.

Next, Table 6 shows the results of our analysis of clause complexes, which gives interesting information about register, and about the type of logical relations expressed in the data. The codes we use are explained in Table 2, above.

TABLE 6. *Types of clause complexes in the learners' spoken production (CA/CB-DIS), written production (CA/CB-TEXT), and in the textbook (TEXTBOOK)*

	PR	EL	EX	EN-CAU	EN-LO-TM	EN-LO-PL	EN-CO	EN-MN
CA-DIS	9.09	3.63	27.27	25.45	27.27	0	7.27	0
CB-DIS	1.21	3.65	51.21	31.7	6.09	0	6.09	0
CA-TEXT	0.84	3.38	51.69	26.27	9.32	1.69	4.23	2.54
CB-TEXT	0	0	49.43	34.83	8.98	1.12	5.61	0
TEXTBOOK	0	23.52	35.29	23.52	5.88	5.88	5.88	0

First, the high proportion of extension (EX) shows the frequent use of parataxis (*and*, *but*), especially in the students' production (both written and spoken), but also in the textbook. Within the category of enhancement (EN), the most frequent subordinate clause is that of cause (EN-CAU), very often expressed by "because" in both groups (written and oral productions) and in the textbook. Time clauses (EN-LO-TM) express stages in the natural event. Interestingly, elaboration (EL) ("that is...") is found in the textbook but is very rare in the students' language. This seems to indicate a difference between the genre of the textbook material, with its explanatory function, and that of the learner's speech or written text, which, in the classroom situation, has the function of displaying knowledge acquired to an expert.

Last, we show the types of modal expressions which our learners use. The codes are given in Table 3, above. Probability (MODA-PR) and usuality (MODA-US) are the only types used in the textbook, marking and qualifying generalizations, a feature of academic language. Ability (MODU-RE) is only used by the learners, who respond to the prompt's final focus on personal intervention to prevent or help others in natural disasters.

Finally, a statistical analysis (t-test;  $p < .05$ ) was carried out to compare the use of circumstances, clause complexes and modal expressions in the two schools. In all cases, the difference in frequency was not significant ( $p = 0.1$ ;  $p = 0.5$ ;  $p = 0.8$ , respectively). We feel this is an encouraging result, showing that, in the features studied, the classes produce similar results, despite the differences in the socio-economic areas where the schools are situated.



## 6. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

These results show that our students are beginning to acquire some of the register features of their discipline. Some features, such as the distribution of process types, are similar in the learners' compositions, the learners' oral performance and the textbook, all of which follow a parallel pattern for this topic. As regards clause complexes, there is also a similarity between the students' performance and the textbook: the most frequent types are paratactic extension and explanations in clauses expressing cause. On the other hand, elaboration, a feature of academic exposition, is hardly ever used by the students. An additional difference is that the students' language shows features of argumentation and personal involvement, such as more possessive relational processes (especially in the discussions) and a wider variety of modal expressions, features appropriate for face to face oral communication, which are not present in the textbook but are also used by the students in their written compositions. In general, we found few differences between the students' spoken and written registers in the features analysed.

We feel then, that a focus on these and other features of the written and spoken registers is necessary. For this, we need to offer subject teachers linguistic support based on the study of the features of the registers in the curriculum, since many teachers are unaware of the role of language in their disciplines. Explicit work on language using the SFL model has proved very effective both in primary and secondary schools (Schleppergrell 2004; Custance 2006; Polias and Dare 2006).

To sum up, then, in this chapter we have described the type of language first-year secondary school students are able to produce in the early stages of learning social science in English and considered their achievement in the light of the type of language necessary for the subject. Ultimately, we intend to analyse, using a longitudinal approach, the language of the same students throughout the four years of compulsory secondary education. At the end of this research project, we hope to elaborate a linguistic inventory which will be useful for the social sciences teacher in the CLIL classroom.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Our sincere thanks to the social sciences teachers, Marcela Fernández and Clara Mimbrera, without whom this study would not have been possible.

### NOTES

1. This study forms part of a research project (09/SHD/017105; CCG06-UAM/HUM-0544) financed by the Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid and the Universidad Autónoma, Madrid. We are grateful for their support.
2. This was preceded by the teacher's presentation of the activity and some preparatory group work. Teacher talk and the language used by the students in groups will be analysed in future studies.



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PART TWO

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CLIL IN PRACTICE



## **MODELS OF CLIL: AN EVALUATION OF ITS STATUS DRAWING ON THE GERMAN EXPERIENCE. A CRITICAL REPORT ON THE LIMITS OF REALITY AND PERSPECTIVES**

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*ABSTRACT. This article reflects on the question of the state of bilingual teaching in Germany, defining the term bilingualism through the models in vogue and the analysis of positive and negative features identified during the last forty years. It is not limited only to different school models but also covers the projects, institutions and research that have driven bilingual teaching and, therefore, represent features that should also be taken into consideration.*

*KEY WORDS: bilingual teaching, modules, CLIL, European projects, KMK.*

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Reflecting on the state of bilingual teaching in Germany, using the term CLIL (in English and German), EMILE (in French) or EICLE (in Spanish) implies discussing educational policy models alongside teacher development, curricula, certification, methodology, materials and the evaluation of the language and the subject. In the specific case of Germany we should also acknowledge the work of students, and teams of university investigators, as well as the contributions of European projects. One of the indicators of the importance that CLIL has been acquiring in the Republic is the fact that the 2005 *Europäisches Sprachensiegel* (national awards) were awarded in the field of bilingual education –that is, in the area of teaching through content at all levels, from primary school to university, and notably in the field of professional training. What has Germany done in the last 45 years to give rise to the fact that an education system which at the beginning of the sixties had no more than a scattering of bilingual schools, now has 847 bilingual programmes? How can this situation be explained in a country which invests less than the European average in education, lacks a national linguistic policy and does not have a forum of shared debate which covers all the educational levels? What was it, in a



nation with sixteen federal states, nine borders and a population of 82.5 million (nearly 7 million of whom are immigrants, of which 26% are Turkish) that led to the flourishing of bilingual programmes –primarily English (60%) and French (11%), in the nineties? It has to be said that it was largely due to the enthusiasm of teachers and the commitment of universities rather than the work of the Ministries of Education or financial investment.

Two sources, Eurydice and the KMK site<sup>1</sup> provide rich sources of information regarding bilingual education. In addition the German Ministry of Education has a very useful site (<http://www.bildungsserver.de/>) and various universities offer rich bibliographies<sup>2</sup> and as a final source of very recent information –with particular emphasis on the situation in Germany regarding English and French– see [http://lernen.bildung.hessen.de/bilingual/bildungspolitik/material\\_bipo/](http://lernen.bildung.hessen.de/bilingual/bildungspolitik/material_bipo/).

Bilingual teaching (a term which we will clearly define through models) has been around for some four decades in Germany: it started at the end of the sixties and reached its optimum stage of development at the end of the twentieth century. Its most distinctive characteristic lies in its diversity.

In mainstream secondary schools CLIL implies difficulties and methodological questions which cannot be compared to those of international schools such as the French Lycée<sup>3</sup> or the John F. Kennedy Institute; or to the European schools in Berlin (where classes are conducted in two languages and both staff and students have a non-German first language and cultural background); or the Turkish-German Institute<sup>4</sup> or the Wolfsburg Italian-German primary school (Lower Saxony). The bilingual programmes have a fundamentally different clientele. The target language is not the language of the community, and the family and the teaching body is largely German. In other words, they are teaching a foreign language and not a second language; they are not total immersion programmes.

According to Gerd Egloff (2006) the recommendations of the European Union regarding the learning of languages (plurilingualism, life-long learning, the use of new technologies and content-based learning) encounter serious resistance in Germany. He attributes this to:

- A clearly compartmentalised education system (five types of schools).
- A reluctance to stray from the traditional means and culture of evaluation.
- The refusal to evaluate products and results of learning.
- A certain discomfort when it comes to acknowledging learning in informal contexts.
- A lack of graded learning systems.

Egloff believes that many of these problems could be resolved through:

- Full days at school.
- The acceptance of new forms of certification (The Portfolio or the Europass Language Passport).
- The implementation of new forms of testing.



Nonetheless, Germany has played and continues to play an important role in CLIL given that at the beginning of the nineties there were already 150 schools with bilingual programmes, mainly sixth-form colleges, and now there are 847 schools of all types. (KMK Report: 9). It is worth pointing out at this junction that *bilingual* should not be interpreted in the traditional sense of the word, rather we interpret it as including *partial bilingualism* implying the ability to complete tasks in a subject using a language which is not the L1 or the school language. In addition, the materials employed could be in German. The case of French it is somewhat different in that it generally implies that bilingual students have also acquired a bicultural competence that allows them to function as mediators between the L1 culture and the target language culture. In this instance, the term “Partnersprache” is used to define the former and “Arbeitsprache” (Vehicular language) the latter.

## 2. FIGURES FOR ENGLISH AND FRENCH: WHAT THEY HIDE AND WHAT THEY REVEAL

The table below (adapted from Bettina Werner 2005) outlines the number of French and English bilingual schools to be found in Germany.

TABLE 1. *Bilingual Schools (French and English) in the German system in 2005*

	French Bilingual schools (2005)	English Bilingual schools (2005)
Gymnasien	84	349
Realschulen	13	70
Gesamtschulen	2	34
Grundschulen	20	5

The statistics should be read as indicators of trends. In reality a lot more is happening than the table reveals in that many schools already have bilingual *modules* that do not figure in official statistics. Basically, for economic reasons, full bilingual programmes tend to be less popular and bilingual modules are more common. The situation in Germany shows some similarity to the European situation: English 60%, French 11%, Spanish 3%, seeming to ignore predictions regarding future scenarios such as figures from the British Council which suggest that the growth of English will reach its peak in 2020 and from that moment other languages - Chinese, Hindi, Spanish and Arabic (if the political situation calms down), will start to function in parallel as *global languages of communication*<sup>5</sup>.

Turning to the content subjects, initially there was a preference for Geography, History, the Social Sciences and Biology, particularly in the case of English. Nowadays,



we see a movement towards the Natural Sciences, and a move towards other languages. However, there is nothing to stop the inclusion of Sport, Music, Drama or Art, except the limitations imposed by the lack of teachers with a knowledge of foreign languages in these subjects and, of course, the availability of materials.

### 3. WHAT LANGUAGE TO TEACH, WHEN TO INTRODUCE IT AND CERTIFICATION

In Europe the acronyms CLIL, EICLE and EMILE have been coined to refer to the teaching of a subject in a foreign language or various foreign languages. In Germany, alongside CLIL, there is a series of acronyms, encapsulated by BILI (*Bilinguales Lernen / Bilingual Learning*). The official nomenclature is *Bilingualer Fachsachunterricht* and terms such as *Arbeitsprache* (work language or vehicular language) or *Nachbarsprache* (neighbouring language or of the bordering country) are also employed. Germany has sixteen *Länder*, or federal states, and borders with nine other nations. In reality this means little: with the exception of the French border in the south the frontiers do not have much influence on the introduction of bilingual programmes. There are not many schools where they teach Danish, Czech, Sorbo, Dutch or Polish, even though Berlin is only a few kilometres from Poland. As is often said *all languages are equal but some are more equal than others*. Generally, English and French are introduced in fifth grade, when the students, on the whole, are 10/11 years old. In this model the students in fifth and sixth grade (11 and 12 years old) receive two extra hours of language (5+2). In seventh grade (12/13 years old) Geography is usually incorporated (3 hours). In eighth grade (13/14 years old) two hours of History are added and in ninth and tenth grade (14/15 or 15/16 years old respectively) two hours of Politics. In some schools (with English programmes) Biology may substitute one of the subjects (History or Politics). Sport and Art can be optional bilingual subjects from sixth grade. In eleventh through to thirteenth grade (16/17 and 18/19 years old) a *leistungskurs*, which is 6 hours of a foreign language, is compulsory. In parallel, students have to take three hours a week in either History or Geography as a bilingual subject in which they have to pass oral and written exams. This exam allows students to automatically enrol in a French university<sup>6</sup>.

The formula of the European Union (1+2), in which France played a decisive role, has been the cause of some controversy in Germany for two reasons in particular. On the one hand, because of the strong presence of a population with a history of immigration behind them and on the other, because of the debate over the changing role of English as a language for the transfer of knowledge which might come to mean L1 + English + another foreign language. In many circles the formula meets resistance, as it seems fairer to first introduce a Romance language as a foundation for subsequent foreign language learning<sup>7</sup>.

Secondary certification varies between students who have followed a bilingual programme and those who have not. In Nordrhein-Westfalen, in the case of English, an additional paragraph is added which states that the person has studied in English and German from fifth to thirteenth grade and has passed exams in History (or Geography,



etc) in English. In the case of French, however, the paragraph refers to the Agreement of 10<sup>th</sup> July 1980 between France and Germany, by which the person is exempt from the entrance exam if they decide to study at a French university.

In closing this section it should be underlined that good control of the first language, which may or may not be German, is an essential condition in the paradigm of CLIL. If we subjected the German population to an instrument of evaluation I am sure that the percentage of people who reached level C1 would not be very high. I believe this is the same for many countries. In this sense it would be necessary to have a serious debate about language in all subjects (Language across the curriculum) (Vollmer 2006). In any case, in the CLIL class Mäsch's principle of "As much as possible in the foreign language, whatever necessary in the L1" works (1993: 7).

#### 4. MODELS

From the teaching staff's perspective, two basic models exist: the Rheinfeld-Pflaz (additional) and Nordrhein-Westfalen / rest of the Republic (integrated). In the first case a native-speaking teacher works in conjunction with a German teacher. The native-speaker teaches one or two subjects in the foreign language and these bilingual classes incorporate an additional hour in German to compensate for possible deficiencies. In the integrated model only one person teaches the language and content. In the ideal scenario this person is a native-speaker but in reality this is not the case due to the limitations of the civil service system.

In Germany there are five different forms of bilingual methodology used (Hallet 2005: 12; expanded on by Memo-projekt, see below):

- The classical model (full CLIL): this is a bilingual programme which generally starts in seventh grade and continues until tenth grade, or until the end of sixth-form studies. The programme is common in the *Gymnasium* and the *Realschule*. In this model, there is a curriculum and a determined number of hours planned into the school timetable. It is characterised by its continuity. The subjects are Geography, History and Political Science. It involves the use of the foreign language to learn and work in some subjects (partial bilingualism) and its objective is to increase possibilities in the labour market and the acquisition of a bicultural competence.
- Short-term CLIL: this results when, during a specific period, certain subjects are taught in foreign languages. There is a partial curriculum for the subject taught in a foreign language. This is also known as *Languages Across the Curriculum*.
- Bilingual modules: this is a form of CLIL which involves teaching short term, theme-based content units in a foreign language. The contents and methods of study are defined according to the curriculum of the subject in question. The subjects vary. This model has multiple objectives divided between flexible bilingualism and an attempt to increase the bilingual curriculum: thereby we



encounter an attempt to merge *Languages across the curriculum* and distinct socio-cultural objectives.

- Bilingual projects: these are characterised by joint European projects employing a single language or projects in which a foreign language is used. The goals of the project and its contents are clearly delimited and its aim is the development of functional language. This model of CLIL methodology emphasises the importance of intercultural competence and the possibility of consolidating knowledge of a foreign language in real situations, for example in vocational training, is highlighted.
- The foreign language integrated model: the classes are organised in a way in which the teaching is carried out in the first language with texts and materials in the foreign language. It is generally inspired by individual didactic and methodological decisions to work with authentic texts in a subject, to foster the development of plurilingualism and to increase motivation to learn foreign languages.

## 5. PRINCIPLE METHODOLOGIES: FROM INSTRUCTION TO CONSTRUCTION

Not only do bilingual programmes represent a fresh approach to language teaching, they also provide support for new learning paradigms. CLIL implies multiple perspectives in diverse content subjects, alongside innovative language learning methodologies. The contents, the basic principles and the emphasis on cognitive processes implicit in CLIL encourage the recognition of diverse ways of interpreting the world. Cummin's model of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, which has provided the impetus for much current research, goes some way to addressing questions relating to a) the development of written and speaking skills, b) the function of academic discourse and c) the analysis of genres which need to be dealt with if CLIL is to enable learners to develop linguistic and content-based skills which take them beyond BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) (Baker 1993: 198 *et passim*).

In Germany CLIL can be defined methodologically through the six theses of Wildhagen and Otten (2003: 12-45):

- In the CLIL class the teaching of the content subject represents an overriding priority. The use of a foreign language is designed to consolidate, accelerate and deepen the learning of the contents. It is the subject syllabus which determines the contents (*Rahmenplan für die Gymnasiale Oberstufe* 2006: 26-27).
- Subject teaching is enriched through the intercultural dimension that comes from learning through two languages. Clearly the idea behind *frontiers* is not the same in English as it is in Spanish and the term *communism* has different connotations in French and German.
- The integration of contents and foreign languages implies the learning of the basic skills, the vocabulary and the grammar determined by the discussion and



genres of the content subject. In reality, among the teaching body, there is no clear idea of how to develop the necessary linguistic skills. The acquisition of vocabulary appears to take precedence (Caspari, Hallet, Wegner and Zydati 2006). Nonetheless the work of Wolfgang Zydati (2005a, 2005b and 2007) provides a good starting point in this direction.

- The integration of content and foreign languages in bilingual programmes necessitates awareness raising with regards the linguistic complexity of complicated tasks in a specific subject (Susanne Stascher-Dielmann 2006).
- The integration of content and foreign languages could form the basis of functional plurilingualism.
- There are mutual benefits for both content and language in the synergy of the two (see DEZIBEL below).

The choice of subject areas is the result of what is known as Hallet’s bilingual triangle (1997). A more detailed list of the criteria appears in Mller-Schneck (2006: 118 *et passim.*) CLIL should comprise three basic factors:

- Information and facts relating to the L1 (German) culture and society.
- Information and facts relating to the target language culture and society.
- Globally and culturally interdependent intercultural information and facts.

Bilingual programmes go beyond the acquisition of subject terminology. They imply the acquisition of what Wolfgang Zydati calls cognitive and conceptual communicative competence and becoming literate in the language of the subject. To illustrate, we can cite the example of the “chronological sequence” developed by Wolfgang Zydati (2005b) and his numerous publications related to speech functions and written genres. Wildhagen and Otten (2003) offer numerous schemas and examples on how to integrate themes, support and linguistic material in History, Geography, Biology and Sport.

## 6. EVALUATING THE LANGUAGE AND THE SUBJECT

The first study that referred to the relationship that exists between mental operations involving historiographic thought and their linguistic realization is a doctoral thesis (Susanne Stascher-Dielmann 2006). Her objective was to establish foundations for the bilingual teaching of History. One of the paradoxes of CLIL –from a German perspective– relates to the need for complex cognitive and conceptual operations in a subject despite a lack of sufficiently developed communicative or receptive skills, or when there is the belief that these are lacking. This paradoxical situation gives rise to the need for specific CLIL teaching methodologies and the development of a typology of tasks and activities which will facilitate the attainment of content and linguistic goals both in parallel and interdependently. Thus far this constitutes a ‘work in progress’. As part of the research six hours of tenth grade History lessons and a twelfth grade Political Science module dealing with The Division of Europe between 1945 and 1947 were



recorded. The students wrote an essay based on their reading of a text entitled *The Truman Doctrine* and completed a questionnaire relating to their perceptions of bilingual education. The tenth grade students had had nine weeks of bilingual classes including one of bilingual Geography. The twelfth grade students were on the verge of finishing basic secondary education (with final exams) and so were at the end of the bilingual programme. Regarding the demands of the content subjects the students were expected to demonstrate core abilities referred to in German as *reflektiertes historisches Erzählen* or *Narration von Geschichte* which means being prepared to actively participate in what is called historiographic discourse: the interpretation, analysis, methodologies and evaluation of History. For example, the formal structure of historical thinking often involves the comparison of different historical moments reflecting on significant causal and temporal relations between events.

Susanne Staschen-Dielmann presents a tree diagram comprising the interrelation between:

- Knowledge of history.
- Use of terminology.
- Use of academic register.
- Cohesion and coherence in expression.
- Use of grammatical structures which correspond to the genre of the discussion.

‘Doing history’ requires certain cognitive operations which in turn give rise to discursive functions employing the content and the language and which themselves form the basis of considered historical narration. On a macro level, the students have to manipulate conventions defined by the content and the style. This helps the evaluation of written production in so far as it can be evaluated and the quantity and quality can be compared. The thesis presents a basis for evaluation that is transferable to other languages although the question remains as to the extent to which what is referred to here as ‘doing history’ is a universal construct and not just part of German historical culture. Academic traditions in European countries are varied, as demonstrated by the authors of the *Manual of Common Franco-German History*, (*El País* 14.05.2006). However, it is a promising study and a principle which can be transferred to other languages.

## 7. TEACHER DEVELOPMENT: UNIVERSITY CERTIFICATION

It is indispensable that the current generation receive CLIL training. In Germany we are facing a generational change which means that students currently in education will constitute 25% of the teaching body in the near future.

Since the nineties, Education Departments in some German universities have introduced additional certification. This is because, in Germany, it is possible to specialise in two subjects during teacher training. In theory all combinations are possible: from Spanish and Religion to Art, French and Sport. In practice, however, the system is not



totally flexible as the ministries dictate the possible combinations of subjects thereby limiting possibilities. The University of Bremen<sup>8</sup>, for example, following the model established by the University of Wuppertal<sup>9</sup>, has a modular programme which comprises 4 blocks or modules. In the first (six hours) basic skills are taught (theories and concepts regarding the learning and acquisition of language, the basic terminology of CLIL, social and individual features of plurilingualism). The second (four hours) contains two subjects: CLIL methodology and materials development. The third module is practical in nature and includes the observation of classes and four weeks of teaching practice in a school, along with input sessions at the university. The final module (four hours) constitutes a case-study focusing on learning processes and classroom observations. Up to eight hours are also accredited by completing similar courses in the teaching of English or at the Faculty of Educational Science.

The University of Freiberg and the PH of Karlsruhe<sup>10</sup> offer *Europa Lehramt* (European Teacher Training in English and French) and a bilingual Masters (English and French). Aside from English and French, the University of Bochum<sup>11</sup>, a recent prize-winner for its bilingual Masters programme, offers German as a foreign language and Spanish. A German university (Saarland) and a French university (Metz) implemented a joint teacher-training programme in the winter term of 2001-2002<sup>12</sup>. This type of training can be considered first phase training, taking place in university.

In the second stage of German teacher-training the most recent initiative is the creation of study modules sponsored by European projects such as the “MoBiDic” Project<sup>13</sup> or Memo-Projekt. The web sites provide information relating to CLIL research and evaluation projects. Various European bilingual schemes are outlined in the former. Both projects place a heavy emphasis on the design of teaching units. Similarly the vocational scheme *Sprachenkompetenz für Europa durch bilingualen Fachunterricht an berufsbildenden Schulen* Project<sup>14</sup> makes a significant contribution to the question of teacher training and development both pre- and in-service.

## 8. CURRICULA AND MATERIALS

While not all federal states have official study plans for bilingual programmes in all languages, two exemplary models are provided by Rheinland-Pfalz and Nordrhein-Westfalen (Christ 2004: 22).

Most of the bilingual material and didactic units in Germany are published in specialist magazines. Few publishers dare to publish specific CLIL materials as the market is still very small and not economically viable. Some materials have been produced in Bavaria (Christine Felk 2004: 49) and there is a comprehensive overview of the then state-of-play in Werner Altmann (2004). One of the best examples of published materials is probably the *Manual of Common Franco-German History* (op.cit). Carmen Pérez Vidal and Nancy Campanale de Grilloni edited a collection which appeared in Spain in 2005 which provides a practical illustration of the planning of bilingual classes. Not all languages have the kind of support offered by *Centres de Documentation et*



*d'Information*<sup>15</sup> and, of course, we are a long way from competing with the editorial markets of Canada and the United States.

One possible approach which is currently popular is to use books that originate from the target language country. This has the advantage of being appropriate for the age of the learners, although sometimes they can be linguistically demanding and the academic traditions may differ. The traditional reliance on books is being superseded by a more varied type of document (posters, caricatures, photographs, diagrams, schemas, tables, graphics, etc.) from authentic sources. This, of course, means that learners often require extra linguistic help and support (Memo Projekt: 22). This may include:

- L1 and L2 lexis.
- Monolingual glosses for subject terminology.
- Theme-related terminology.
- Useful expressions for analysing the material.
- Help in understanding the instructions of the tasks.
- Exercises to reactivate the vocabulary.
- A methodological framework within which they can complete given tasks.
- Specific help in applying study techniques and techniques related to the subject.

In general the materials are pages or worksheets which outline the tasks. The term *support system* (Wildhagen and Otten 2002: 31) covers linguistic support and the relationship between the task and the material. As an example we can also cite the concept of *chronological sequence* developed by Wolfgang Zydariß (2005: 50-53).

In truth, as far as materials are concerned, the CLIL class depends on the enthusiasm of teachers. Personal and institutional web sites allow us to access materials created by those teachers<sup>16</sup>.

## 9. EVALUATION OF CLIL MODELS

DEZIBEL (*Deutsch-English Züge in Berlin*) is a four-year comparative study carried out by Wolfgang Zydariß, of the Freie Universität Berlin, to evaluate the English linguistic competence and knowledge of various subjects of students in secondary school (in mainstream and bilingual settings). It was designed to test an initial hypothesis which can be summarised as follows: it was posited that while the linguistic skills of students in the bilingual stream would be considerably higher (a difference of two years) than those of students in traditional foreign language classes (that is, in a non-bilingual context) both groups would display similar skills in and knowledge of the content materials. This research was motivated in part by the desire to challenge the myth that bilingual learning leads to poorer learning than L1 monolingual learning and in part to argue that conventional grading systems undervalue the time and effort put into CLIL learning. This puts the students at a disadvantage when it comes applying for places at



university. Zydati argues vehemently for another type of qualification, perhaps on a European level<sup>17</sup>.

DESI (*Deutsch Englisch Schlerleistungen International*) is the first large-scale study of linguistic performance and praxis in German English and German classrooms. Sponsored by KMK, it was launched in 2001 and was conducted by the German Institute for International Pedagogic Research (DIPF), led by Professor Eckhard Klieme. This study investigated the performance of approximately 11,000 ninth grade students, in all types of schools, at the beginning and end of the 2003-2004 academic year. A summary of the results can be found at [http://www.dipf.de/desi/DESI\\_Ausgewaehlte\\_Ergebnisse.pdf](http://www.dipf.de/desi/DESI_Ausgewaehlte_Ergebnisse.pdf).

This is not the place to go into detail about this educational landmark (the German answer to Pisa, for many) but it is important to underline that the study also comprises a level test in thirty eight bilingual classes. The results have given force to the argument that teaching a CLIL subject from seventh grade onwards can account for the high level of communicative competence of this particular group. Students were found to be two years ahead of their peers, particularly in what is referred to as listening comprehension, although they started at the same level. Also, regarding the ability to recognise and self-correct grammatical errors, progress is considerable ([www.dipf.de/desi](http://www.dipf.de/desi)).

## 10. CONCLUSION

To conclude: What factors can contribute to the development or the stagnation of bilingual programmes, according to the German experience?

### 10.1. POSITIVE POINTS

- The existence of agreements between countries. The agreement to cooperate signed by France and Germany in 1963 provides a case in point (The first French bilingual programme dates from 1969, Singen am Hohentwiel). This resulted in the dual language Baccalaureate. The agreement between The French Institute of Bremen and the local Ministry of Education to support the teaching of French in schools provides another prime example. The Councils of Education of the Spanish Foreign Embassy and Latin-American Embassies could play an important role in the signing of agreements.
- Public debate which reaches most people, at least in one part of society. Good examples include Zydati's articles in the *Tagesspiegel* or the public debate in April 2005 in *The Guardian Weekly* under the title *Learning English or learning in English: will we have a choice?* which was about global education and the role of English as the language of instruction. Also the article by Markus Flohr in *Die Zeit* (2006) in which he makes reference to a *ganz nebenbei* (a thing of no importance) which needs to be pin-pointed. In the evaluation of CLIL at a European level the phrase 'It's more fun' is repeated ceaselessly, especially when children are interviewed. Certainly it can be more fun but it is also undeniably more work.



- The close collaboration between school and university projects and the evaluation of projects (eg. DESI and DEZIBEL) although it must be recognised that these collaborative projects are not without their difficulties. The university prioritises a more solid theoretical approach to methodology whilst the school criticises the fact that the university is light years away from what happens in real life in the classroom (Wildhagen and Otten 2003: 22).
- Joint qualifications and the creation of a bilingual Masters.

## 10.2. LESS POSITIVE POINTS

- The political stance of the government in power, which favours the monopoly of English.
- The lack of concrete initiatives to promote plurilingualism, which, to become a reality, require the application of the CEF (Common European Framework).
- Certain prejudices. Bilingual learning has an elitist connotation: it is to be found in international schools, European schools and in the bilingual streams of certain schools, but it generally implies a select few, who are more ‘intelligent’ with a capacity to work harder than the common average student.
- The rules which decide whether it is possible to change subjects. In some federal states it is not possible to combine a foreign language with certain subjects.
- The attitude of parents who refuse to accept English as the first language.
- The poor collaboration between subject and foreign language teachers.
- The lack of linguistic expertise among teaching staff (especially in professional training schools, for example).
- Little interest on the part of teachers in subject teaching methods which integrate with language teaching methodologies.
- The fact that bilingual programmes depend more on the commitment and enthusiasm of the teaching staff than on official support. This, in itself, is not negative in that the programmes already respond to the needs and characteristics of the schools where it is in place, but it is irrefutable that official support is fundamental, especially when it comes to creating jobs.

One thing is certain: we are at a point of no return: there are practically no schools which, once having implanted bilingual programmes, have reverted to the traditional form of teaching.

## 10.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

### 10.3.1. *In the school itself*

- In-house collaboration between language and subject teachers aimed at increasing linguistic competences



- A CLIL co-ordinator in each school who can talk to and liaise between students, families and teachers.
- Encourage and recognise pilot bilingual projects.
- Extending the range of subjects (not just History, Geography and Political or Social Science, but also Art, Music, Sport and Drama) for which a full school day would also be ideal in secondary school.
- Free teachers up so that they have time to be creative, to develop materials and learn a foreign language.
- Participation in exchange programmes and periods abroad, for both teachers and students alike, to create and maintain motivation, which is the motor of learning. European Union funds (to which we contribute with our taxes) are there to be utilised.
- Facilitating possibilities for teachers who are active in CLIL to receive additional qualifications through training schemes.
- Agreement on the assessment of knowledge, perhaps with a plus or bonus for the bilingual programmes.
- Reconsider qualifications for partial skills.

#### 10.3.2. *In the university*

- More synergy between the university and the school.
- The university should give lectures in different languages and not only in English.
- Linguistic analysis of the manuals of different subjects: the compilation of lists of high frequency words, not only of terminology but also of academic vocabulary and its relationship with cognitive operations, something which every subject demands.
- Motivate students to write their theses about themes related to bilingual learning.

#### 10.3.3. *In the family*

- Work on a consensus between parents and the teaching establishment about what language to teach.
- Invite families to participate in some language classes.

#### 10.3.4. *Linguistic policies*

- Learning language is the right of all and not just a privileged few
- Recognise the need for a coherent policy for the teaching of languages from kindergarten right through the education system and beyond.
- Develop materials and study plans on a national level.
- Have an information policy which reaches families.
- Inform people of examples of good practice.
- Plan for the present without losing sight of the future.



## NOTES

1. See <http://www.eurydice.org/> and <http://www.kmk.org/index1.shtml>. KMK stands for Kultusministerkonferenz / Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs.
2. See <http://lernen.bildung.hessen.de/bilingual/Magazin/biblio>; <http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FBA/bilingu/bibliographie.htm>; <http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FB4/bilingu/bibliographie.htm>; [www.uni-marburg.de/ifs](http://www.uni-marburg.de/ifs); <http://www.ticcal.org/>; [www.bildungsportal.nrw.de](http://www.bildungsportal.nrw.de) and [http://www.englischdidaktik.ewf.unierlangen.de/did\\_seminars/downloads/bilingual/BilingualBiblio.pdf#search=%22Bilinguales%20Lehren%20und%20Lernen%20%2B%20Bibliographie%20%2BSoest%22](http://www.englischdidaktik.ewf.unierlangen.de/did_seminars/downloads/bilingual/BilingualBiblio.pdf#search=%22Bilinguales%20Lehren%20und%20Lernen%20%2B%20Bibliographie%20%2BSoest%22). See also Landesinstitut für Schule und Weiterbildung 1996; Breidbach 2000; Breidbach and Osterhage 2005.
3. On the history of the French Lycée in Germany, see <http://www.fg-berlin.cidsnet.de/histoire.htm>; <http://www.fg-berlin.cidsnet.de/pdf/Informationsbroschuref.pdf>
4. See *Tagespiegel*: 21.10.2004 and 15.03.05. *Die Welt*: 22.10.2005. *Die Tageszeitung (TAZ)*: 29.10.2004.
5. Wolfgang Zydatiř: II Jornadas CLIL, 21.09.06. For further information, see also <http://www.manythings.org/voa/wm/wm247.html>
6. Treaty agreement signed between France and Germany on 10<sup>th</sup> July 1980.
7. See for example Meißner and Reinfried 1998; Martínez and Reinfried 2006
8. See <http://www.fb10.uni-bremen.de/anglistik/bilingual/zusatzqualifikation/default.htm>
9. See <http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FB4/bilingu/uebersicht.htm>
10. See <http://zib01.zib.uni-karlsruhe.de/Hochschule/Ph/Studiphka/europe.htm>
11. See [www.ruhr-uni-bochum.de/slf/studium/sg/bili](http://www.ruhr-uni-bochum.de/slf/studium/sg/bili)
12. See [http://www.uni-saarland.de/fak5/kulturgeo/bereiche/\\_bilingual.htm](http://www.uni-saarland.de/fak5/kulturgeo/bereiche/_bilingual.htm)
13. To request a copy of the Mobidic CD Rom, contact: Dr. Graziella Auburtin /Seminar für Gymnasien /Stuttgarter Straße 18-24 / D-60329 Frankfurt am Main. ([g-auburtin@afl.hessen.de](mailto:g-auburtin@afl.hessen.de))
14. Ministry of Culture of Thuringia: <http://www.leonardo.th.schule.de>
15. Boyer-Weinmann, Martine (1997) "Informations - und Dokumentationszentren in deutsch-französischen bilingualen Zweigen nach dem Modell der Französischen CDI". *Französisch heute* 2: 175-181.
16. Sites dedicated to bilingual teaching (in German)  
<http://www.learn-line.nrw.de/angebote/netzwerkfs/medio/03-bilingual/>  
<http://www.erzwiss.uni-hamburg.de/bilunt/> (with links to various institutions)  
<http://www.schule-bw.de/unterricht/faecher/englisch/bilingual>  
<http://www.lehrer-online.de>  
<http://www.lisum.de/go?SmartLink=10477&Bereich=1> (LISUM-Berlin)  
<http://whg.work.de/bili.htm>  
[http://www.anglistik.tu-bs.de/esud/Bilingualer\\_SFU\\_Linksammlung.htm](http://www.anglistik.tu-bs.de/esud/Bilingualer_SFU_Linksammlung.htm)
17. More about the study and the reception it received from the press can be found on Zydatiř's personal website (<http://web.fu-berlin.de/engdid/bio/zydatiss.shtml>).

## APPENDIX

Regarding the circulation of information and the debate about CLIL methodology, refer to the following specialised magazines:

- *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*
- *Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachenforschung*
- [zff@uni-bielefeld.de](mailto:zff@uni-bielefeld.de)
- *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht. Englisch / Französisch / Spanisch.* (Friedrich Berlin Verlag / Postfach 100150 / D- 30917 Seelze).
- *Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht*



- [www.oldenbourg-bsv.de](http://www.oldenbourg-bsv.de)
- *Unterricht Biologie* (2004) : Heft 297-298 - Themenheft „Bilingualer Unterricht“
- *Praxis Geographie* (2001) : Heft 1, 31 - Themenheft „Bilingualer Unterricht“
- *Praxis Geschichte* (2002) : Heft 1, 15 - Themenheft „Bilingualer Unterricht“.
- *Geographie in der Schule* (2002): Heft 24, 137 - Themenheft „Bilingualer Unterricht“.

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## ANALYSING THE LANGUAGE DEMANDS OF LESSONS TAUGHT IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

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*ABSTRACT. Teaching subjects in a second language to learners who are not yet fluent in the language of learning increases the cognitive demands which lessons make on them. Effective programmes therefore require a pedagogy which compensates for these increased learning demands. Without it, learning may be less effective and programmes may exclude learners who cannot meet these demands. The key feature of this pedagogy is language support. To provide it, teachers need to be able to analyse the language demands of lessons. This paper describes categories which can be used for the analysis of language demands in L2-medium subject lessons. It also discusses the degree to which subject teachers working in L2 can be expected to perform this analysis.*

KEY WORDS: *Language Demands, Support, Academic Proficiency, CLIL.*

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Two concepts at the heart of education in a second language are language demands and language support. Subject teachers need to be aware of the demands their lessons make on the L2 abilities of their learners; and where the demands exceed those abilities, they need to provide language support. When language support is required but not given, learners may learn less than they would if they were learning in their L1. These concepts are crucial in two respects. One is a matter of principle: that L2-medium education is not effective without them. The other is a matter of practice: that a lot of current L2-medium education may be less than effective because it does not take them into account. In this paper I would like to describe the concept of language demands analysis.

### 2. TEACHING UNFLUENT LEARNERS

A lot of education in L2 is done with learners who are not yet fluent in the language of learning. Thus they are learning new curricular concepts and new language at the



same time; what is more, they are learning the new concepts through the medium of the new language which is the vehicle for those new concepts. If you ask a learner to do this without support, you reduce their capacity to learn. Stakeholders in L2-medium education programmes with unfluent learners may not always understand that the tendency of these programmes is to make learning more difficult. To maintain or increase levels of subject-learning will therefore require a supportive pedagogy. In this paper, I will refer to contexts in which CLIL learners are not fluent.

Learning in L2 is difficult for learners with undeveloped L2 ability because one cannot do two things at once. School learning in general involves a lot of cognitive effort and the main tools we use for it are linguistic: we read, write, listen and speak to learn. Effective learning relies on language skills which are top-down or procedural (Anderson 1983). That is, they have become automatic: we can use them without paying attention to them. This allows us to assign as many of our attentional resources as possible to the learning of new concepts. When language skills become less reliable, they compete for the learner's attention, which is then partly diverted from new concepts to the language being used to acquire them. This happens naturally and routinely in L1-medium learning as we hone language and learning abilities. But the more often it occurs, the less effective learning becomes. When unfluent learners learn in a L2, they are often using undeveloped language abilities on which they cannot rely sufficiently. Without support, their attention is constantly drawn towards how to use L2 for learning and is thus less available for focusing on curricular concepts. Their mental resources may be stretched beyond what is accepted in L1-medium learning: pace is reduced and efficiency compromised. To maintain or increase the effectiveness of learning as compared with the L1-medium classroom, subject teachers need therefore to use a pedagogy which compensates for undeveloped L2 ability and divides attentional resources less, by supporting learners in using L2 skills within subject-learning tasks.

### 3. LANGUAGE SUPPORT

A pedagogy which reduces the cognitive demands on learners can provide support in two main ways. Firstly it can reduce the language demands of the task, allowing learners to attend more effectively to concepts. Secondly –but less commonly– it can reduce the conceptual demands of the task, allowing learners to attend to language. The main features of language-supportive pedagogy are:

- The use of a range of specific language-supportive task types to help learners when listening to teachers talking about subjects, reading subject textbooks, talking about subjects in groups and writing about subjects (Clegg 1999, Gibbons 2002).
- The use of a specific range of visuals (graphs, charts, diagrams etc) for supporting the understanding of subject concepts (Mohan 1987).
- Variation in forms of interaction: plenary, groups, individual work.



- The use of a style of teacher talk which is both extra comprehensible in the L2 (through the use of signals of organisation, summary, redundancy etc) and which also shapes the L2 talk of students (by varied question types, prompts, modelling and feedback etc) (Echevarria *et al.* 2004, Moore this volume).
- The judicious use of the L1 in the L2-medium lesson.
- The teaching of learning strategies for learning subjects in L2.
- Techniques for assessing subject knowledge which has been acquired through L2.

#### 4. LANGUAGE DEMANDS

To provide language support, a teacher working in L2 needs first to know what language demands a lesson will make on learners. The language demands of a lesson are the language abilities which the learners need in order to participate effectively in the lesson. They can be described in terms of conventional categories for describing language use, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, function, discourse, language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing). Although the language demands of lessons are the same for all learners, not all learners have the same language needs with respect to these demands. They may differ quite widely in their ability to use language to respond to the language demands of tasks. Teachers know this when they teach in the learners' L1 and can respond to a range of abilities. The same is necessary when teaching in the L2. Teachers have to provide degrees of language support. Most language support tasks, for example, are capable of being adjusted to provide more or less support. Similarly, experienced CLIL teachers are able to modulate their talking style to accommodate learners who understand less or more, or who need more or less prompting to respond. Thus language demands and language needs are two sides of the same coin: if you ask yourself where in a lesson the language demands may be too high, you also have to ask how learners may differ in their need for support in order to meet those demands.

Analysing the language demands of lessons is crucial to lesson-planning in CLIL. If you do not do it, you cannot predict at which points in the lesson the learners will need help. And without that, you cannot provide the language support they need to carry out the required learning tasks. At least some learners with lower L2 abilities will then fall short of what they would have been able to achieve if they had been working in their L1: their work will be a little less effective or a little slower; and their level of achievement in the subject will be that little bit lower. In particular, certain groups of learners may be disadvantaged. It is possible that learners from less educated backgrounds and with low socio-economic status (SES) may find learning in L2 more difficult than their more privileged peers (Baker 2001). Inadequate language support in CLIL may affect them more than others. The same is true of the specific category of children of recent immigrants to Europe who combine low SES with undeveloped ability in the language of learning. In the long run, failure to provide adequate language support can mean lower levels of subject achievement for the learner and disappointing results for the programme; both of which, with normal, appropriately supportive teaching, are avoidable.



## 5. A LESSON

Let us look at an example of a L2-medium lesson which makes definable language demands on learners. In the lesson shown in table 1 the teacher will teach the topic of *melting* to children of, say age 8-9, perhaps in their 3<sup>rd</sup> year of learning English as a foreign language. How the teacher plans the lesson is shown in table 1. Column 1 shows the stages of the lesson, columns 2 and 3 show what the teacher and learners do. Column 4 shows the form of interaction. The language demands of the lesson are shown in column 5 in three categories. The skills are the classical four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The aspects of language are to do with vocabulary, such as *melt*, items of grammar such as the present simple, and text-level items such as connectors and markers of language functions such as *will* for predicting. The functions column shows the types of function normally involved in school language use, namely cognitive functions or thinking processes. The final column shows the kinds of language support the teacher can use to help their learners meet these demands.

TABLE 1. *Melting: the language demands of a science lesson on learners*  
(Harrison and Moorcroft, 1996)

Stage	What the teacher does	What the learners do	Inter-action	Language demands (learner)			Forms of support
				skills	language system	functions	
1.	Introduces topic and items in picture/classroom	Listen to teacher introducing the lesson and the materials.	whole-class	listen	vocabulary	describing	visuals, objects
2.	Gets learners to predict	Talk in groups and predict. Report predictions	groups whole-class	talk	grammar vocabulary	predicting	chart use L1 substitution table (table 2)
3.	Give instructions for the experiment	Listen to teacher giving instructions	whole-class	listen	vocabulary connectors instructions	instructions	visuals, objects, list of instructions



4.	Monitors groupwork	Carry out the experiment Record observations	groups	talk talk, write	grammar phrases	observing	chart use L1
5.	Gets learners to report, compare predictions with observations and draw conclusions	Report observations Compare observations with predictions Draw conclusions/ summarise	whole-class	talk	grammar phrases	reporting comparing concluding	chart substitution table (table 2)
6.	Introduces writing task and monitors writing	Write report	solo	write	grammar connectors vocabulary	reporting	writing frame (table 3)

In this lesson, the teacher wants to get the learners to find out that things melt at different temperatures. To do this they conduct an experiment by putting a variety of things that will melt into a plastic bag, lowering the bag into water at 5 different temperatures and recording the melting temperature. First the teacher introduces the topic and the task. The students work in groups and predict; they write their predictions using the chart in table 2; then they report their predictions to the whole class. Then they do the experiment and record their findings using the chart in table 2. After that they report their observations to the whole class and the teacher gets them to compare what they found with what they predicted. Finally the teacher gets them to draw conclusions. After that –and probably in the next lesson– they write about what they did.

Let us analyse the language demands of this task sequence and consider the kinds of support the teacher may need to offer. The lesson involves some careful listening, especially in stage 3: the children have to understand what they have to do (especially the safety issues). The main language demands here are vocabulary and following a sequence of instructions, especially noticing time connectors and instruction verbs. To support the children with the vocabulary, the teacher uses the visuals in the book and objects in the classroom. To help with instructions the teacher might put them on the board and emphasise the time connectors (*first, then* etc) as they go through them.

Another key language demand is that at certain points in the lesson, children have to talk in English. Not, it is important to emphasise, during the group work: their language ability is not adequate for this and it is both natural and cognitively more effective for them to work in their L1. They can use L2, however, in step 2 when they report their predictions



to the whole class and in step 5 when they report their observations, compare them with the predictions and draw conclusions. There are several reasons for this: firstly these points are key learning moments in the class; secondly, L2 is appropriate for the public nature of whole-class work; and finally, it is easy for the teacher to provide language support for this public learning talk.

The substitution tables in table 2 are one way of doing this. The language demands of these talking events are limited. They involve engaging in certain scientific thinking processes –predicting, reporting, comparing predictions with observations and generalising– which require the use of a limited number of sentences all with a similar structure, but differing grammatically: *will* for prediction, past simple for reporting, present simple for generalising. They also make vocabulary demands: words for temperature and materials. Once the teacher has thought about these specific language demands, simple substitution tables spring to mind as one means of providing support. Such substitution tables were, of course, popular during the audio-lingual era but in those days the tables tended to be virtually meaningless from a communicative perspective. The content of learner production was secondary to the production itself. Now the reverse is true. Contrary to their use in audio-lingual FL methodology, their purpose is in CLIL to support learners linguistically, providing the necessary scaffolding and allowing learners to focus on the conceptual question at hand. In addition, the charts used for predicting and reporting (see table 2) are very supportive in enabling the learners to make sentences: the rows and columns virtually generate each sentence: *Margarine will melt in cool water; butter melted in hot water*. As with all support for talk in CLIL lessons, the crucial question to ask when analysing language demands is: what do I want the learners to say?

TABLE 2. Substitution tables for ‘Melting’

1. Predicting

We think	candles butter margarine ice cheese chocolate	will melt	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
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2. Reporting

Candles Butter Margarine Ice Cheese Chocolate	melted	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
--	--------	----	--	-------



3. Comparing

We thought	candles butter margarine ice cheese chocolate	would melt	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
But it/they melted					

4. Generalising

Candles Butter Margarine Ice Cheese Chocolate	melt(s)	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
--	---------	----	--	-------

After the experiment the teacher asks the children to write and will need to provide help with this. Again, a form of support can be chosen after analysing the language demands of the kind of writing the teacher wants them to produce. So again the question is: what do I want them to write? The writing makes demands at the text level: the teacher wants them to organise the text so that it shows sections: *objective, procedure, results, conclusion*; and to join their sentences together using simple connectors: *first, then, next, finally* etc. The teacher also wants them to write a few key sentences within each section, which makes grammatical demands on the learners. Finally the work makes lexical demands: they have to use the right words. At all these levels, they will need support. A writing frame, as shown in table 3, combined with the chart, should provide this.

TABLE 3. *Writing frame for 'Melting'*

*Objective*

We wanted to find out the melting temperatures of different materials

*Procedure*

First

Next

Then

After that

Finally

We predicted that...

We measured...

These words will help you:	
melting temperature	cold
melt	cool
	warm
candles	hot
butter	
cheese	
ice	
chocolate	



*Results*

Material	Write P for prediction, R for results				
	Cold water	Cool water	Warm water	Hot water	Boiling water
candles					
butter					
margarine					
ice					
cheese					
chocolate					

*Conclusion*

We found that...melts in...

Different materials melt at different temperatures

## 6. ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

The language demands of the lesson as shown in table 1 are defined in terms of academic language competence –what Cummins (1984, 2000) has called Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). When we analyse the language demands of CLIL programmes, it is in terms of this specialist variety of school language competence that we have to think. CALP is a concept which is widely discussed, but not well defined either in the literature or in practical debate. It is also, we should note in passing, not a concept which language teachers have been conventionally trained to use. Conventionally trained L2 teachers working in CLIL programmes often come fairly new to the idea of language for learning, as opposed to language for social intercourse. They have tended to focus on something slightly akin to Cummins's other related concept of basic interpersonal communication skills or BICS. In non FL L2 teaching, such as the immersion programmes in Canada teachers might not have to worry so much about BICS as learners may well acquire it outside the classroom. European CLIL teachers, however, will need to be aware of both concepts and of their learners' needs and to take these needs into consideration when planning. While BICS may develop as a result of general classroom discourse, CALP will need specific attention. Table 4 shows a list of categories describing the academic L2 abilities which learners in CLIL programmes have to develop and which these programmes have to teach them. We will look at these categories in more detail.



TABLE 4. *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency: the language of learning*

- a) Language skills
  - Academic forms of listening, speaking, reading, writing
- b) Concepts/vocabulary, e.g.:
  - Subject-specific concepts
  - General academic concepts
- c) Grammar, e.g.:
  - Complex sentence structure
  - Verb phrases
- d) The language of thinking processes, e.g.:
  - Definition, classification, describing processes/objects/properties etc, cause and effect, time sequence, hypothesis
- e) The structure of texts, e.g.:
  - Headings, numbering systems, paragraph organisation, connectors
- f) Learning skills, e.g.:
  - Using the internet; using a library; note-taking; using graphs/charts; planning, drafting and revising writing, etc.

### 6.1. LANGUAGE SKILLS

School language use requires learners to use the academic forms and combinations of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills which they need to use language for learning: reading textbooks, following teacher presentations, producing academic writing, engaging in learning talk, etc. The literature on language for academic and specific purposes (e.g. Jordan 1997) describes these uses for the adult sector, as well as some of the tasks available to L2-medium subject teachers for providing support. Primary and secondary school language skills, and the task repertoire available for this age range, are less well described, though there are some useful studies e.g. Cameron (2003).

### 6.2. VOCABULARY

The vocabulary needed by learners learning subjects in L2 falls into two categories: firstly words which are specific to subjects and secondly words which are not specific to subjects, but which are used across the curriculum and are specific to school learning. Let us look at some examples of these two types.

Table 5 shows some subject-specific vocabulary used by a physics teacher in a lesson on the parallelogram of forces. The items in italics are high-frequency, narrow-range items, used largely in dealing with this academic topic only; typically for science, they contain a few items with both general and specific meanings. Table 6 shows lists of



phrases used in a science textbook to describe cells and tissues (Keith Kelly, personal communication). These are broad semantic notions which are not specific to this topic, but which are necessary for talking about it: you cannot talk about types, location, function and structure of cells without them; they are the lexical tools which we use to handle the subject-specific vocabulary of cells.

TABLE 5. *Subject-specific vocabulary*

<i>FORCE</i>	<i>VECTOR</i>
A force <i>acts on...</i>	
Forces <i>acting in ... direction</i>	<i>Equilibrium</i>
A force <i>acting against ...</i>	The forces <i>balance each other</i>
A <i>given force</i>	<i>Newton</i>
<i>Parallelogram of forces</i>	<i>Vertical component</i>
<i>Triangle of forces</i>	<i>Horizontal component</i>
Two forces <i>make up a third force</i>	<i>Force-meter</i>
<i>Resultant</i>	<i>Spring balance</i>
The <i>sum</i> of all the forces	<i>Value</i>
Force G <i>acts on a body</i>	<i>Magnitude</i>
You <i>resolve</i> the force <i>into its</i>	<i>Mass</i>
<i>components</i>	<i>Constant</i>

Both these classes of words contain items which are less frequent, more formal and specific to academic contexts. Subject-specific vocabulary, however, is well-described, available in dictionaries, known to the subject teacher and explicitly taught in lessons. General academic vocabulary, by contrast, is often poorly described, difficult to locate in reference works, not consciously familiar to the subject (or language) teacher and rarely explicitly taught. Both, however, are needed by learners in CLIL programmes, the latter –because of its frequent cross-curricular use– arguably more than the former. Teachers in CLIL programmes therefore need routinely to teach these vocabularies.



TABLE 6. *General academic vocabulary: talking about cells*

Structure:	Types:	... is most abundant under... ... is common in... ... is found mainly in...
... are made up of...	... there are ...	
... are organized in...	... have various shapes...	Function:
... is a self-contained unit	... are divided into...	... have parts which...
... contains...	... are arranged in...	... builds up...
... feels/looks like...	... resembles...	... lines...
... are separated from... by...		... exhibits ...
... are small...	Location:	... release...
... tend to be...	... is found in...	... connects...
... can take other shapes...	... surrounded by...	... has the function of...
... includes...	... form...	... provides...
... have...	... includes...	... builds up...
... consist of...	... is located...	
... are joined together... (to...)		

### 6.3. GRAMMAR

In contrast to vocabulary, grammar in academic language use is not different enough from social use to warrant further comment here, except that more complex forms may occur in school writing and that the verb phrase tends to be salient in general academic language –as seen in table 6. Cameron (2002) has usefully described the grammatical features of lower secondary school writers of English as an additional language (EAL) in the UK. In addition, from the pedagogical viewpoint, subject teachers are less likely to provide support for grammar than for, say, vocabulary; though they do need to be able to offer simple sentence-level support for talk and writing such as the substitution tables in table 2.

### 6.4. THINKING PROCESSES

In contrast to conventional foreign language syllabuses, L2-medium subject teaching highlights academic rather than social language functions. School learning routinely requires learners to use a limited number of thinking processes, including: defining, classifying, illustrating/exemplifying, contrasting, comparing, giving reasons, predicting, summarising, hypothesising, time sequence/process, listing, adding, apposition, drawing conclusions/deducing. Both learners and teachers in CLIL programmes need to know explicitly which thinking processes subjects regularly require learners to engage in and how to express them in L2. Table 7 illustrates for two of these processes –defining and classifying– the kinds of questions which teachers often use to



stimulate the thinking process and the kinds of statements which learners and teachers make when engaging in it.

In L1-medium education it is uncommon for subject teachers to teach explicitly the thinking skills which their subject requires and the forms of words which are used to express them. As with general academic vocabulary, these skills and their language exponents are poorly described and not easy to find in reference works. But it is precisely these sets of phrases which routinely constitute the language demands made on learners especially in oral and written tasks, from the lowest age groups upwards as seen in the lesson above. We may get away with not teaching them in L1, but in CLIL programmes, teachers providing language support for talk and writing will need to have continuous recourse to lists of thinking process and their language exponents, of the kind shown in table 7.

TABLE 7. *Thinking processes (Defining, Classifying) and their language exponents*

DEFINING					
Teacher questions:					
What is a...?					
Give me a definition of a...					
How would you define a...?					
Who can define/give me a definition of...?					
Can anyone give me a definition of...?					
What do we call this?					
What is the name/(technical) term for this?					
Statements					
(A)	.....	is a	(generic term) place person thing concept entity device instrument tool etc.	where who which that  for...	.....  -ing ...
... is called/said to be ...					
The term/name for this is...					
We call this...					



**CLASSIFYING**

Teacher questions:  
 How would you classify...?  
 How many kinds of ...are there?  
 Who can classify...?

Statements

There are	two three (etc.)	kinds types forms classes categories	of	.....
.....	fall	into	two three (etc.)	kinds types classes categories
	can be divided classified			

We/you/one can classify ... according to ...criteria  
 This class has...characteristics/features

6.5. THE STRUCTURE OF TEXTS

Discourse structure is both a crucial feature of school language use and the surface reflection of the forms of thinking which academic disciplines require. Learners in both L1 and L2 need to attend to genres and text-type characteristics which are typical of subjects, both in order to understand and produce texts, and in order to learn the thinking processes which are peculiar to subjects. In CLIL programmes, where language demands are high, it is thus especially important to support learners in developing familiarity with discourse structure when reading textbooks, following teacher-presentations, making oral reports and producing academic writing. Indeed one could claim that support at the level of discourse is more important than sentence-level support in L2-medium subject lessons, both because learners achieve clarity of thought more effectively at the discourse level, and because subject teachers can provide discourse support more readily than support for grammar.

6.6. LEARNING/STUDY SKILLS

This category refers to the array of learning strategies which underpin school learning, but which, again, only a minority of schools teach explicitly in the L1. It is a large



category including strategies to do with access to and retrieval of information, the production of oral and written texts, reading and listening in academic contexts, recording data, using visual forms of information, learning through oral interaction. With regard to learning in L2, the main point to make is that the higher the language demands of lessons, the more necessary it is for learners to be able to deploy these strategies. We may, as already mentioned, get away with not teaching them in the L1, but in CLIL classrooms, learners who cannot use L2, for example to take notes from teacher-presentations, plan and revise their writing, interpret graphs or report the outcomes of group work risk achieving reduced levels of subject knowledge.

## 7. THE DEMANDS ON SUBJECT TEACHERS

The purpose of this chapter is to set out the concept of language demands analysis within subject teaching in L2 and to present it as an obligatory process in the planning and delivery of lessons using the language-supportive pedagogy which L2-medium education requires. When you look in detail at the nature of L2-medium school language demands, they can look daunting. School language use is complex. In addition, we have been looking only at the language demands on learners; those which lessons make on teachers are equally complex. We have also excluded the detail of language-supportive pedagogy: teachers need not only to be able to predict the language demands of lessons but to deploy the array of teaching strategies which will help learners develop the language abilities with which to meet these demands.

However, all professional skills look complex when analysed. Language demands analysis is routinely practised expertly by trained CLIL teachers; it is done almost on the hoof and even partly unconsciously as part of lesson planning and integrated seamlessly with the provision of language support. The same is true of teachers doing similar work, for example in the education of language minority students for learning in the majority language in industrialised countries, such as teachers of ES/AL in the USA or UK (Clegg 1996). It is to the untrained teacher of a subject in L2 that skilled work of this kind can look daunting. That is one consequence of CLIL programmes which do not use formally trained teachers: INSET is not usually sufficient to equip a conventional subject teacher to work in L2; whereas initially-trained CLIL teachers take it in their stride.

L2-medium subject teachers can also look to other sources for help with language demands and language support. They should be able to look to materials: published materials present language support as a *fait accompli*: demands have been analysed and support provided. However, in Europe, we have few published materials. Teachers normally construct their own. As long as we ask them to do this, we are requiring them not only to spend much more time preparing lessons in the L2 than they spend for lessons in the L1; we are also expecting them to build into these lessons forms of support which many have not been trained to provide.

Language teachers in CLIL programmes can also provide some help to L2-medium subject teachers: they can develop the learners' grammar, thinking, discourse and study



skills, and to a lesser degree their vocabulary skills. But it is a misapprehension to believe that language skills are separable from subject teaching and can be hived off for someone else to teach. Teaching subject concepts and the skills of acquiring and handling them is the responsibility of the subject teacher and language is at the heart of that process. In CLIL programmes, subject teachers cannot maintain high levels of subject achievement without becoming familiar with language-supportive methods.

One other source of support for CLIL teachers, however, should be mentioned. Most of the language abilities which we have described are not peculiar to L2: they are used by all learners throughout the L1-medium curriculum. Much of academic literacy, when developed in L1, transfers to L2 (Cummins 2000). In addition, L2-medium programmes work best when learners have already acquired strong L1-medium language and learning skills, especially in courses which highlight L1 CALP (Cummins 2000). This means that a school which offers CLIL would benefit from developing cross-curricular language policy for the use of L1 in learning. Some schools in Europe already do this: the UK National Literacy Strategy (DfES 2007) for the lower secondary school encourages subject teachers to teach the L1 language and thinking skills which their subject requires. These policies are good not only for L1-medium learning but for L2-medium programmes too.

In education in L2, the analysis of school language demands and the provision of language support enable learners working with language abilities which are less effective than their L1 skills to maintain or even increase the levels of subject knowledge they can attain. CLIL programmes which fail to use these procedures may under-perform and their learners may under-achieve. They need, therefore, to be at the heart of CLIL training.

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## **STT: STUDENT TALKING TIME. HOW CAN TEACHERS DEVELOP LEARNERS' COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL CLIL PROGRAMME?**

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*ABSTRACT. CLIL has two general aims: firstly, to ensure that pupils acquire knowledge of curricular subject matter and secondly, to develop their competence in a language other than the normal language of instruction. However, there is also an important secondary aim, a linguistic aim which states that pupils should be enabled to develop language skills which 'emphasise effective communication'. It is this aim which may be ignored by busy subject teachers. In this paper ideas will be presented to maximise student talking time (STT) within subject lessons. In addition, consideration of the effect of first language interference in spoken English will be discussed using examples from Spanish teachers and learners. Finally, a model for raising learners' awareness of language transfer, or L1 interference will be suggested.*

**KEY WORDS:** *Student Talking Time (STT), Communication Skills, Visual Tools, Interference, Learner Awareness.*

### **1. THE IMPORTANCE OF TALK**

A recent survey by the European Commission for Education and Culture includes the statement that content and language integrated learning (CLIL) should “enable pupils to develop language skills which emphasise effective communication [...] for real purposes” (Eurydice Survey 2006). Combined with theoretical support: “Interaction in the learning process is fundamental to learning” (Coyle 1999) and Vygotsky’s findings that social interaction is the key to success in learning (see Casal this volume), it is clear that teachers working in CLIL programmes need to address the development of student talk in the target language.

The aim of this paper is therefore twofold: to raise teachers’ awareness of the importance of talking to learn, and to suggest practical, task based ideas and practical visual ideas as a stimulus for using language to talk about content. In addition to



knowledge of how to develop talk, and knowledge of the pedagogy for managing student talking time (STT) in CLIL, how to evaluate talk and how to alert learners to the effect of first language interference will be discussed.

In research on pupils learning languages, it was noted that children’s early language development takes place very largely through talk. Very often by the time they leave primary school, however, much of pupils’ learning depends on their ability to cope with written language. This finding is echoed by Bruton in his research conducted in Seville language classrooms (2004). He noted that typical state secondary instruction revolves around “written grammar and vocabulary exercises, along with communal reading tasks completed individually and with the class as a whole”. In first language talk, most children establish the ‘major linguistic systems’ before the age of five and from this point forward

what is learned and the order in which it is learned becomes progressively more dependent on experience –on having opportunities to hear the relevant functions, meanings and structures used appropriately and to use them oneself (Wells 1986).

CLIL can present this ‘opportunity’ for learners to use language in contexts which are both appropriate and communicative.

In order to find out how teacher talking time and student talking time in CLIL Secondary school classrooms are used, I observed many subject teachers over a one year period in The Netherlands. The subjects included Science, Mathematics, History, Economics and Physical Education. Teachers tended to speak in the target language most of the time. Exceptions were when a pupil had a problem which was unconnected with the content of the lesson. Students, however, used L1 and L2 interchangeably, sometimes ‘on task’ and sometimes ‘off task’. The general pattern of classroom talk was as follows:

Teacher Talk	Student Talk
Instructing	Responding ( L2)
Questioning	Questioning (L2 + L1)
Giving opinions	Giving opinions (L2 + L1)
Explaining	Reporting Back (L2)
Eliciting	Asking for clarification (L1 + L2)
Checking	Collaborative talk (L1 + L2)
Correcting	Repeating Language (L2)
Prompting	Reading aloud (L2)
Scaffolding	Socialising (L1 + L2)
Reading aloud	Comments to peers (L1 + L2)
Summarising	
Giving feedback - praising/reprimanding	
Telling anecdotes	



Two issues appeared to need addressing if one of the aims of CLIL is to be met i.e. developing language skills for communication. The questions were: How can teachers enable students to develop talk without impinging on the delivery of the curriculum, and how can teachers use content materials so that students experience a language rich environment while collaborating with peers?

### 1.1. HOW CAN LEARNERS DEVELOP TALK?

In order to move learners forward linguistically, from everyday conversational talk towards academic talk, they need opportunities in school not only to be exposed to specialised content vocabulary and structures, but also to practise them. Fisher (2005) described classroom talk as either *lower order* or *higher order* and identified features of the two types: lower order talk was used for recall, for checking understanding and for revising learning while higher order talk was used to develop cognitive skills, to express opinions and to stimulate discussion. Both levels of talk need to be heard and practised but his research led to the conclusion that many teachers tend to use lower order talk more frequently, especially when students are questioned on knowledge and comprehension. To develop students' cognitive skills, they need to hear language which challenges them to analyse and evaluate content too.

To enable students to develop lower and higher order talk for CLIL contexts, teachers need to consider adopting a task based learning (TBL) approach. Tasks, in a language teaching context, are both language and skill-focused because they enable students to revisit content and practise talking. Willis (2005) defines the characteristics of tasks as:

- A principal focus on exchanging and understanding meanings
- Some kind of goal set for the task so learners know what they are expected to achieve
- Some language focused study

In a CLIL context, however, a third characteristic of tasks needs to be considered: the use of content language. For lower order talk, which uses concrete, information processing skills, a grid containing key subject vocabulary and some questions can be adapted for any curricular subject. Vocabulary must have been previously taught. The following is an example from a 4 by 6 grid for Mathematics:

FIGURE 1. A 4 by 6 grid for Mathematics

1 What is an equilateral triangle?	2 What is it? 	3 Name 3 quadrilaterals.	4 A hexagon
---------------------------------------	--	-----------------------------	----------------



Students work in small groups of three or four. They throw two dice, decide whether to add, subtract or multiply the two numbers shown. They then respond to the question / command in the appropriate box or they ask a question which has the content word as the answer e.g. for number 4 above: What 2-D shape has 6 sides?

An example of a task which develops creative thinking across the curriculum while also revisiting content language and concepts, involves the use of two dice and a worksheet with statements from 2-12 such as:

I'd rather be.....because...

2. A heart or a brain (Science)
3. A pound or a euro (Economics)
4. A river or a sea (Geography)
5. An ancient Egyptian or an ancient Roman (History)

Students throw the two dice, add them then respond to that number. This type of task gives students the opportunity to be imaginative and to scaffold one another's talk during their responses, should they need help to explain why they would like to be the object or person.

For developing higher order, hypothetical and analytical talk, tasks can be created from a grid similar to the one explained above:

FIGURE 2. A 4 by 6 grid for Science

1	2	3	4
Why is the spine made up of small bones?	Why are birds' eggs speckled?	A spider isn't an insect. Why?	Where can you see water evaporate?

Tasks such as these help learners develop the ability to make complex meanings explicit by using content language orally in a collaborative context. Groups of learners work together to define and explain both language and content. This in turn, helps them acquire new content vocabulary and concepts in a learner friendly context where there is group support and accountability. After having completed the tasks, learners appreciate feedback so teachers should respond to any language difficulties encountered or to any breakdown in understanding. Tasks therefore provide an ideal opportunity for consolidation of learning.

## 1.2. MANAGING AND EVALUATING TALKING TIME IN CLIL CONTEXTS

A Task-Based Learning (TBL) approach requires consideration of several aspects, both procedural and linguistic. For successful collaboration in TBL, teachers need to make



the learners aware of the purpose and outcome of the tasks. When learners understand why they are participating in talk and what they have to achieve, they are more likely to remain focused. Teachers should also establish rules and timing for tasks. Clear guidelines such as, 'one person speaks at a time', encourage learners to listen as well as to talk. A time limit is necessary because it is preferable to allow short 7- 10 minute periods for collaborative talk, rather than a longer period which may result in more use of first language.

In addition to these considerations, assigning roles to group members can help students learn to take responsibility for managing and evaluating what happens during the task and can also promote positive group dynamics. Roles might include student A taking responsibility for resources, B noting any difficulties, C ensuring the group speaks in the target language and D reporting back to the teacher once the task has been completed. Building in time for feedback in a plenary at the end of TBL is important too. Questions to be addressed include: how did we do and how can we improve? Finally, teachers need to be aware of cognitive as well as linguistic progression in the tasks they use: from closed talk to exploratory, extended discussion.

As a result of the need for assessment in most areas of a European curriculum, teachers should reflect on how they can evaluate talking time. In recognition of the CEF (Common European Framework) of 'can do' statements, TBL might include the following:

Can:	<u>Date</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Date</u>
Respond to questions				
Ask questions				
Introduce new ideas				
Clarify own points				
Express support for others				
Build on another student's ideas				
Respond to peers by challenging ideas				
Respond to peer talk by offering opposing ideas				
Use evidence to support ideas				
Identify points of similarity and difference				
Identify and report back main ideas of discussion				
Personalise the issue through relevant information				

Teachers need only record the data three or four times over an academic year but they should ensure all pupils are working towards extended talk. By using statements such as these, talk has a value, and teachers and learners have evidence of progress made over a term or a year. Without 'can do' statements, very often talk in a CLIL context can become the skill which is forgotten or ignored. Effective teaching in bilingual contexts has in fact, been defined as



the degree to which a teacher is able to successfully communicate his or her intentions, maintain students' engagement in instructional tasks, and monitor students' performance in completing assigned tasks' (Tikunoff in Richards 2001).

## 2. MATERIALS FOR DEVELOPING A LANGUAGE RICH CLIL ENVIRONMENT

In the European CLIL contexts I have been involved in, the reality of a school day is that learners use first language in the playground, in the lunch queue, in the corridor and as they enter the classroom. What is noticeable is that it is unusual for learners to encounter the second or target language until the teacher starts to speak in the classroom. One way of helping learners to think in English before the lesson starts, is to have the target language obviously on display at pupil eye level. For example, teachers can write a 'word for the day or question for the day' on the board. If there are posters or pupils' work on display, teachers can pin up questions or statements for learners to read, think about and perhaps respond to at a later stage. Poster questions can be graded from lower order, concrete language, to higher order, creative and analytical language too. A poster of a volcano might have the following:

What features of a volcano can you see?

What is inside the volcano?

Is there a volcano near Seville? Why? Why not?

Where are there volcanoes?

How does the picture make you feel?

With appropriate questions on display, learners are more likely to think and talk in the target language. In some CLIL contexts, background music with target language lyrics can also be used to stimulate talk.

The need for a language rich, yet also cognitive challenging environment was recognised by Cummins. He described the progression of learners' development from BICS (basic interpersonal and communication skills), which have low cognitive demand and are context embedded, to CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency), which has high cognitive demand and is context reduced (2001). If the learners have the opportunity to use the target language outside the classroom, such as is the case with immigrant children or those in bilingual communities, BICS can be achieved in the first two years of language learning. If the language being learnt is a foreign language, the process will take longer. CALP, however, takes considerably longer: from five to seven or eight years. Teachers therefore need to support learners in activities and tasks which bring them towards CALP. The further away from a concrete i.e. 'embedded' context a speaker is, the greater the demands on their linguistic resources. It is important that learners move beyond everyday conversational skills towards mastery of language that is more complex and coherent for educational purposes. Support for language and academic development is needed to enable learners to express ideas in a CLIL



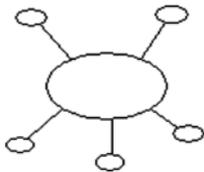
environment. It can be argued that the Cummins model therefore supports the use of tasks which help learners talk about cognitively challenging content material. Academic talk, "is likely to require at least as much cognitive processing as writing an essay on the same topic" (Cummins 2001: 68).

In addition to the use of posters to encourage learners to talk about content material, the use of other visuals such as diagrams, graphs and charts from school subject course books can help develop academic discourse. The advantage is that the materials are familiar to the learners as they have seen them in their course books. An example is taken from a biology text: a diagram of the human body with labelled parts of the digestive system provides an opportunity for learners to use the passive voice to explain the process shown in the diagram from start to finish. Learners have the key content vocabulary on the book page so they can then put into practise appropriate academic language, which is "virtually never used in casual conversational interactions" (Cummins 2001: 68). Using course book diagrams is a practical and time-saving way of extending material so that learners can revisit the content language orally and in a supportive context.

## 2.1. HOW CAN VISUAL TOOLS BE ADAPTED FOR STUDENT TALKING TIME?

Visual tools have a variety of names: concept maps, cognitive maps, spidergrams, word webs and graphic organisers. Their main aim is to make learning more effective by instructing students in how to use graphic organisers to understand content. They are frequently used for note-taking, for studying or revising content and language. They provide a clear method for representing relationships and linking thoughts, then later remembering key words and concepts. However, visual graphic organisers can also help learners to develop speaking skills because they provide a frame or an *aide memoir* to help structure and scaffold thinking and talking. At the simplest level, a mind map can act as an activator of prior knowledge at the start of a lesson or as a summary of content information to be explained to the class, group or to a peer. The visuals act as frames for learners to think, to add and to build on their knowledge collaboratively. Five examples (adapted from Marzano, Pickering and Pollock 2001) of graphic organisers and their use in different subjects are:

### 1. *Description Pattern*



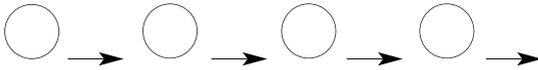
Useful language: and / also / as well as / in addition

Geography: used in small groups. Learners are allocated different capital cities and brainstorm their knowledge about them. The group makes decisions, selects and rejects



information then organises and plots five facts about the capital city. The graphic and the connectives associated with it are then used as a frame to report back the information orally to the rest of the class.

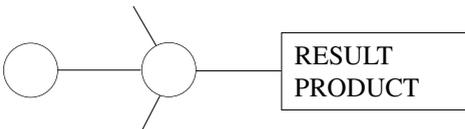
### 2. *Time Sequence Pattern*



Useful language: first / then / next / after that / finally

History: used for recording facts that led up to an historical event. Learners then talk about them using time connectives. It encourages learners to see time in a horizontal plane rather than as a list of events written vertically. It can be just as effectively used to describe the stages in the setting up of a scientific experiment.

### 3. *Cause / Effect Pattern*

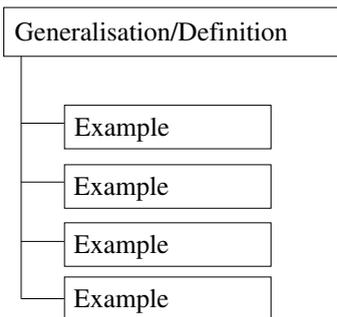


Useful language: because, as a result, because of

This organiser helps learners explain an outcome or effect by using a pattern of circles that relates cause and effect. Learners can use the information recorded in it by linking the content with the language of cause and effect.

Science and Economics: learners record the causes which lead to climate change or record the causes that lead to inflation.

### 4. *Definition Pattern:*

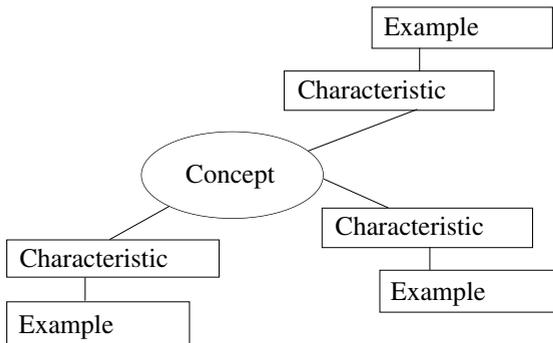


Useful language: to illustrate, in addition, furthermore



Mathematics: An example is: 'A prime number is only divisible by one and itself'. Learners, in groups or pairs, decide which definitions they can map onto the visual, then using connectives of addition, share their information with other groups.

### 5. Concept Pattern



Useful language: for example / for instance / to illustrate the point

Language: the concept of a fable. Three characteristics include an indefinite time in the past, the use of animals as protagonists and the incorporation of a moral. Learners find their own examples to record, then using the language of exemplification, share their ideas with the class.

All the graphic organisers provide clear frames for collaborative talk among learners. They help focus the talk on content with specific language support required to discuss the content. They are flexible; develop creative thinking and enable learners to feel confident when presenting information to their peers.

### 3. HOW CAN KNOWLEDGE OF L1 FEATURES HELP IMPROVE TALK?

As a result of work done with Chinese pupils who were having difficulty talking about content and language, I discovered that learners over the age of ten, and who have had two years of English language teaching, are able to understand and, more importantly, want to understand why some of their mistakes are related to features of their first language. By showing and displaying on the wall common mistakes (L1 interference) made by many Spanish speaking learners of English, learners feel reassured that these are not individual difficulties, but are quite universal. For Spanish learners, therefore, I display the following charts on the wall or put copies of them in learners' books as a reference guide. The mistakes highlighted in the table below were all made by Spanish teachers while on CLIL training courses in Norwich.



TABLE 1. *Spanish L1 Typical Mistakes (adapted from Swan and Smith 1991)*

	Spanish	English
Verb forms: (perfect tenses)	How long <i>are you</i> working? It's a long time <i>that I do</i> this	How long <i>have you been</i> working? <i>I've been doing</i> this for a long time
(future)	<i>Do</i> I write this tomorrow?	<i>Will</i> I write this tomorrow?
(be + adj)	<i>I have interesting</i> to know	<i>I am interested</i> to know
(infinitives / gerunds)	<i>To text</i> is good	<i>Texting</i> is good
Conditionals:	If I <i>will finish</i> , I will log off	If I <i>finish</i> , I'll log off
Adjectives (concord)	Teacher <i>resources</i> books	Teachers' <i>resource</i> books
Adverbs: (position)	<i>Often she</i> asked us	She <i>has often</i> asked us
Pronouns: (3rd person omitted)	It isn't mine. <i>Is hers</i> Was raining.	It isn't mine. <i>It's hers...</i> <i>It was</i> raining.
(relative)	My friend <i>which left...</i>	<i>My friend who</i> left...
Prepositions:	When we arrive <i>to</i> school... It consists <i>on</i> a projector We copy them <i>on</i> our notebooks I'm interested <i>on</i> the project	When we arrive <i>at</i> school... It consists <i>of</i> a projector  We copy them <i>in</i> our notebooks I'm interested <i>in</i> the project
Vocabulary:	In our lesson <i>plannings</i> We did some writing <i>works</i> Have you any <i>informations</i> ?	In our lesson <i>plans</i> We did some writing <i>exercises</i> Have you any <i>information</i> ?
Word order:	I <i>only can</i> make a suggestion We've <i>got also</i> many questions It makes <i>easier the work</i> I like <i>very much</i> Science	I <i>can only</i> make a suggestion We've <i>also got</i> many questions It makes <i>the work easier</i> I like Science <i>very much</i>
Others:	Can you <i>explain us</i> ?	Can you <i>explain it to us</i> ?

#### 4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

To summarise, learners in CLIL programmes should be empowered to talk in the target language beyond the conversational level of basic daily transactions. They need teacher support to collaborate with peers in order to explain course book diagrams and graphs, to participate in task based learning, and to use graphic organisers for developing cognitive, academic language. With knowledge of why some of their language mistakes are the result of L1 transfer, learners will be able to interact in the learning process and move forward using academic, communication skills with confidence.



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## ENHANCING CLASSROOM DISCOURSE: A MODELLING POTENTIAL FOR CONTENT TEACHERS

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*ABSTRACT. All teachers, irrespective of their 'subject', contribute to the development of their pupils' language and languages. Although not primarily responsible for language 'teaching', content teachers in CLIL will not only be producing much of the raw data from which learners will formulate hypotheses regarding use, they will also be spontaneously responding to that use. This is a practical discussion, illustrated with examples from the spoken component of the British National Corpus, examining ways in which content teachers, via the modelling implicit in classroom discourse, can enhance the linguistic input and feedback which they provide and encourage students to use a wider range of meaning-making, negotiation and politeness strategies.*

KEY WORDS: Classroom Discourse, Modelling, Discourse Markers, Negotiating Meaning, Politeness Strategies.

### 1. INTRODUCTION: CONTENT TEACHERS, LANGUAGE TEACHERS

CLIL implies the integration of content and language. One of the challenges facing many current CLIL programmes in their day to day implementation lies in the assigning of pedagogic responsibilities. The departmental mergers and cross-curricular collaboration implicit in CLIL can be expected to lead content teachers and language teachers to reassess their roles and responsibilities. Language teachers, primarily responsible for the “nuts and bolts” (Marsh and Langé 2000: 3) will quite possibly be feeling relieved that the task of providing authentic, communicative opportunities –generally accepted to be of vital importance, will now be shared. Language teachers are probably used to dealing with content (albeit in a haphazard way). Content teachers, however, may not necessarily be used to having to think so much about language, and will likely be asking themselves how they can aid their students' L2 development (see for example the results of a survey conducted with content teachers in the Netherlands in Wilkinson 2005). In this chapter we



will suggest that by becoming more aware of the unscripted spoken language of the classroom and deliberately using and encouraging a wider lexical range, content teachers can provide an enriched linguistic environment for learners.

The discussion uses three ‘little’ English words *OK*, *What?* and *Please*, and examples from the spoken component of the British National Corpus, to examine aspects of three key areas of communication: the organisation of discourse, the negotiation of meaning and the establishment of power relationships, and to discuss ways in which content teachers can enhance the linguistic input and feedback which they provide and encourage students to use a wider range of meaning-making, negotiation and politeness strategies. Although English words are used, this discussion is not restricted to ELT; the suggestions are relevant to any language teaching situation, even L1.

It is herein assumed that content teachers are implicit language teachers (Stein 1999). While the content implies specific vocabulary and specific skills (see for example Cocking and Chipman 1998 or Barwell, Leung, Morgan, and Street 2005 on the language of maths, or Lemke 1990 on talking science) and while the primary focus is on these aspects, content teachers are also constantly modelling natural language (thus providing input) and responding to students output (thus providing feedback). This is actually as true of L1 content teachers as it is of L2 content teachers. All teachers deal with language, and to a certain extent all teachers teach language (Rosen 1969; Bullock 1975; Britton 1992 (1970); Coyle 1999; Clair 2000; Fillmore and Snow 2000; Adger, Snow and Christian 2003; Cameron 2007).

## 2. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

### 2.1. SPOKEN LANGUAGE

This discussion will centre on the unscripted spoken language of classroom discourse. We will suggest that if teachers can become more aware of certain features of discourse, they will be able to provide enhanced input through the use of a wider and thence more meaningful lexical range. Before going any further, we should pause and reflect upon the nature of spoken language. Extracts from the British National Corpus spoken component are used in the present discussion for illustrative purposes. They were all recorded in educational contexts<sup>1</sup>. Something which corpus-based studies of language have demonstrated quite clearly is that spoken language is very different from written language. Consider the extract below:

so it's more, it's more, oh right Yeah but sometimes actually it's a more, you know, kind of it's, it's, it's not really because they've got problems but it's just because they, they're, they're, they're sort of more diligent and more, you know, more motivated but erm yeah (JYN).

This extract serves to illustrate the on-line processing aspect of unplanned speech. We make it up as we go along –quite literally. In genuine communicative speech, we are



concentrating on the content of our message and on getting it across. Its actual form, from any kind of formal grammatical perspective is secondary. We do not speak in the same way that we write: we repeat, reformulate, hedge and acknowledge our interlocutors as we construct, manipulate and negotiate meaning. We do not speak in sentences.

## 2.2. LEXICAL COMPETENCE

Recognising that formal, structural, sentence-based grammar is not so important in spoken language leads us to reassess priorities. We can make two observations regarding the speaker above: (1) they seem comfortably fluent with the language, using a wide range of discourse markers to mould their message and (2) they appear to employ a fairly sophisticated vocabulary as evidenced in their use of a word like *diligent*. Both of these factors are lexical. Although it is difficult to measure, lexical competence is fundamental to linguistic competence (Meara 1996). The positive implications both within and outside of the educational system of a wider lexical range are many and obvious. It thus follows that teachers, in their role as model, should be attempting to use as wide a range as possible.

In the current discussion, rather than ‘big’ words, like *diligent* (which are likely to come later on in the process) we are going to consider ‘little’ words. Words which slip in, almost unnoticed, and which have a tendency to be perhaps too frequent if we are going to adopt a diversity-in-modelling stance. When writing, we (or our proofreaders) usually spot words which we have overused and insert alternatives but the nature of speech requires pre-emptive action in order to avoid undesired repetition. In the first instance this implies becoming more conscious of what we are saying. This is a task for the ‘reflective practitioner’ (Waters 2006).

## 3. ORGANISATION, NEGOTIATION AND TONALITY: MOULDING MEANING

Three ‘little’ yet frequent words *Okay*, *What?* and *Please* are here employed to explore aspects of three key areas of communicative competence: the organisation of meaning, the negotiation of meaning and the tonality of meaning. *Ok* is an example, perhaps the example par excellence, of a discourse marker: the tools employed in production to organise and manage meaning and in reception, via backchannelling to signal (in)comprehension and (dis)agreement. *What?* is here taken to represent a stereotypical response to incomprehension and will allow us to reflect upon breakdowns in meaning and how they are dealt with. Finally *Please* may be said to set the tone –superficially as an indicator of formality, although we will see that the concept is a touch euphemistic. At each stage we will begin with a rapid sketch of the communicative concept itself before looking at evidence from the corpus. We will then reflect upon how the language in question could be enriched and what the potential benefits for the learners might be. In the final section we will explore ways in which practitioners can incorporate these ideas into their teaching.



## 3.1. THE ORGANISATION OF DISCOURSE: MAKING MEANING

What we are here calling discourse markers can be defined as the sounds, words and chunks we use to check and signal comprehension and agreement, to clarify our intentions, to interrupt or cede, to resume or to close or to announce new or unexpected information, to edit or soften our message or to stall while we formulate. They correspond to the textual (within the clause) and logical (clause complex) metafunctions (Halliday 1994). Given such a wide range of functions, there are of course many examples (the commentaries in Carter and McCarthy 1997, provide rich insights into discourse markers in speech; see also Schrifflin 1987). Nonetheless, there is also a tendency for some speakers to over-rely on certain markers. The discourse marker which is probably most often over-employed is *OK*<sup>2</sup> and it is for that reason that it has been chosen to illustrate the present discussion. *OK* has become a quasi-universal marker, in itself a linguistic sign of globalisation. That it is recognised as a significant word can be seen in it having its own etymological myths. This also means that it is not a word which the vast majority of learners need to learn, as they likely already know and use it.

Consider the following extract of teacher talk:

No? Okay. Say so, I mean you don't have to do this. Er, when oh well, okay. Everybody got an idea of all this is going? Ooh dear! Okay. Johnson, just debating, we're getting on to the whole idea of Johnson's world and the link though it worked out the same I'd say. Okay. The link is satire. Okay. Now this is a simplified construction, somewhat. Two basic definitions. One the oldest which comes from pre-Roman times, okay? Means, basically, thespian merrymaking. With any sort of thespian celebration and this is pre-Roman okay? (KPV).

At the outset we must acknowledge that this example does contain a healthy selection of discourse markers: *I mean, Er, oh well, Ooh dear! I'd say, Now, somewhat and basically* can all be interpreted as contributing to the making of meaning. Yet it also contains seven occurrences of *OK* in a stretch of ninety three words. Admittedly, if we had recourse to the actual recording, there would be prosodic differences which would go some way to distinguishing functional intent. If it were normal conversation, this could pass without comment; but we have stated that in the classroom the teacher is a model and our aim is to enhance input. The extract includes, on average, one *OK* every thirteen words. The average production rate, for public speaking is taken to be 100-120 words a minute. If this teacher were to talk for thirty minutes in a lesson, smattering *OKs* at the same rate, we can expostulate somewhere in the region of 250 occurrences. The basic contention here is that that represents a sorely wasted opportunity.

Consider this modified version of the same extract:

No? *No problem*. Say so, I mean you don't have to do this. Er, when oh well, *okey dokey*. Everybody got an idea of all this is going? Ooh dear! *So*. Johnson, just debating, we're getting on to the whole idea of Johnson's world and the link though it worked out the same I'd say. *Right*. The link is satire. *Is that clear?* Now this is a



simplified construction, somewhat. Two basic definitions. One the oldest which comes from pre-Roman times, *you see?* Means, basically, thespian merrymaking. With any sort of thespian celebration and this is pre-Roman *isn't it*

The second version is not only lexically richer –if we consider discourse markers as lexical items, it is also more meaningful in that it makes things more explicit: we can posit face-saving with *No problem*; checking and reformulation introduced with *So*; new information prefaced by *Right*; checking again with *Is that clear?*; the marking of new information with *you see?* (as distinct from the affirmation of shared information with *you know*) and the reaffirmation of information with the final tag *isn't it*. It incorporates and thus models and offers a wider range of meaning making devices than the original.

The underlying belief here is that if exposed regularly to a more diverse selection of meaning-making tools, learners will benefit. It will help them to hone their receptive skills: research by Jung (2003) has shown that an increased use of what she calls ‘discourse cues’ can improve aural comprehension, even in passive listening exercises. The supposition here is that learners will also incorporate at least some of this language into their own active, productive repertoire making them more efficient communicators<sup>3</sup>.

Modern classrooms are idealised as learner-centred environments where everyone is actively involved in negotiating and making meaning. Indeed, the more learner-centred a classroom is, the more negotiation is likely (Antón 1999). This has positive L2 learning corollaries: a speaker with partial competences is going to need negotiation skills therefore giving learners the opportunity to practise and refine them should be a priority<sup>4</sup>. From a production/reception perspective, this takes us beyond comprehensible input or output and into the realms of “participatory” input (Coyle 1999: 51). The listener too has a crucial role to play: ‘lubricating’ discourse and keeping it going (Van Lier, in Clifton 2006: 144). Backchannelling refers to signals used to show a speaker that the listener is following and open to more –*OK, Uhuh, I see, No Way!*– a wide range of discourse markers come into play here as well. Yet it is also the listener’s responsibility to signal (or sometimes to mask) incomprehension: a breakdown in meaning and thus the need for negotiation.

### 3.2. THE NEGOTIATION OF DISCOURSE: MENDING MEANING

This brings us onto *What?* our second illustrative word. We should perhaps emphasise the illustrative nature of *What?* here; we could perhaps have chosen *Huh?*, a more international version (or even *Repeat please*, a classroom favourite –to which we will return later on). The point is that the words represent a reductionist expression of incomprehension without clarifying cause, thereby leaving the speaker at a loss as to the actual reason for the breakdown and impeding smooth repair.



There are at least four primary factors involved in listening comprehension:

- 1) Audibility: By audibility we mean the actual fact of being able to hear. This incorporates both the appropriacy of the volume of production and non-obtrusive levels of background noise.
- 2) Attention: This relates to the willingness of the listener to hear. We might gloss it as the volume of reception and non-obtrusive levels of internal noise. Factors relating to motivation and interest also come into play here, particularly in the classroom: a listener's attention may be diverted by positive as well as ('educationally' speaking) negative factors. They may be day-dreaming, yet they may also be engrossed in pair or group work or self-directed discourse (on the latter, see Casal, this volume).
- 3) Recognition: Comprehension also implies recognizing what we hear: the sounds in conjunction, and the words they form and, to some degree at least, knowing what the words represent. This implies accessing the mental lexicon.
- 4) Perception: The final step involves making sense of the words in particular combinations: cognitively perceiving the meaning in the message. Extra-linguistic factors such as world knowledge and kinaesthetics will come into play here.

Once comprehension has 'happened', there is a next step: acceptance. This implies evaluating the message. Reliability and truth assessment come into play, often affected by previous expectations. If the message is shocking or believed to be untrustworthy, it may also provoke a *What* though perhaps a *What!* rather than a *What?* This will involve negotiation on a different, arguably higher, level.

Teachers, in their role as listeners, can actively model enhanced negotiation strategies. We often rely on gesture –a hand cupping the ear or a facial expression to show students that there is a problem but presumably we want students to be able to develop the verbal skills necessary for dealing with these situations. Cupping a hand to an ear may not be appropriate in all situations. If so, we should make sure that we accompany the gesture with appropriate language. Students should also be encouraged to be more explicit in their signalling. The table below sets out a range of basic options for clarifying comprehension problems. There are many other possibilities and teachers should take these as no more than illustrative. The table deliberately includes ambiguous examples. In theory, lower level and younger learners could be encouraged to use these phrases as a first step, beginning by distinguishing between *I didn't hear* (audibility/attention) and *I don't understand* (recognition/perception) and more competent users could also employ them as face-saving devices.



TABLE 1. *A Range of Basic Options for Clarifying Comprehension Problems*

audibility	attention
I'm sorry...I didn't hear... I didn't catch what you said...	
I'm sorry...I couldn't hear Could you speak up please	I'm sorry...I wasn't listening I'm afraid I wasn't paying attention
recognition	perception
I don't understand. I'm lost!	
What's a X? What does X mean? I don't know what X is.	What do you mean? I didn't get what you said about... I couldn't follow the bit about...
acceptance	
Do you mean to say... You must be joking!	

Clarifying the cause of a breakdown at the same time as one signals the need for repair should contribute to the flow. Encouraging this kind of behaviour has several positive corollaries. In becoming used to recognizing and signalling the causes of breakdown, learners should begin to monitor their own listening more carefully and, in doing so, become more effective listeners and thence more effective communicators (Lynch 1996: 89). If learners become more reflective, they may well be more open to the process side of things and thence to the idea of learning to learn rather than memorising lists. As commented on above, acquiring these habits goes beyond purely linguistic competence and embraces socio-pragmatic competence in itself a pan-linguistic skill, therefore these gains are unlikely to be restricted to any one language.

### 3.3. THE TONALITY OF DISCOURSE - MASKING MEANING?

The multi-applicability factor may not be so true of our final word. We noted that *OK* has international status and that *What?* could just as well be an intonationally-inflected grunt to signal incomprehension but the same is not true of *Please*. From a purely lexical perspective, *Please* might be posited as equivalent to *Por favor*, *Bitte* or *S'il te plait*; yet different politeness strategies in different cultures, from both macro and micro perspectives, lead us to suppose that their actual uses will differ and therefore from a socio-pragmatic perspective equivalence would no longer hold. The 'please' in *S'il te plait* is arguably not the same as the *please* in *S'il vous plait*. These factors are



integral to language learning (Met 2006) although they are not without their problems. Acknowledging that politeness strategies are culture specific only forces us to admit that culture is a highly fuzzy concept. Culture, like beauty...

Nonetheless, whatever the language and whatever the culture, classroom discourse is going to have to deal with giving instructions, commands and warnings; making requests and asking for permission –all of which are highly dependent on (real and perceived) social roles, and are thus potentially face-threatening. A generalised gloss for *Please* would probably identify it as a politeness marker. If we compare the giving of commands with the making of requests, however, surely the difference rests on the distinction between power and solidarity for which ‘politeness’ is perhaps no more than a euphemism (Brown and Gilman, 1960/1972; Fox, 2004:97). In an idealised, learner-centred classroom the balance of power should be more evenly distributed than in the traditional teacher-fronted classrooms of yore; though this will not just happen; it will require a commitment and pro-active modelling. It is here suggested that we need to reflect upon the way that we actually use words, especially the little words. Examining the use of *Please* in classroom talk reveals clear patterns. Consider the extracts below:

Now, first of all No, don’t speak, just listen please listen that includes you. (JJR)

Shh! Settle down please. Quiet please. These people can stay behind when assembly’s out. People! Andrew! Listen carefully please. (KCK)

... your homework is make sure that all the work previous to this on the acid rain is complete and shh quiet please. (KP3)

Okay. So we can all answer question one Leon? Yeah flute. The answer to question one please. Flute. Flute thank you (FMC)

This is archetypical teacher talk: Full and truncated imperatives tempered with *Please*. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006: 256-8) label this an indirectness strategy, recognising that teachers tend to avoid bare imperatives. The degree to which the above can really be considered ‘polite’, nonetheless, is debatable. These are not requests; the addressees are being told, not asked, to do. We should acknowledge that there are occasions when this pattern can be highly useful. If the desired action truly is imperative, it provides an economical and effective way of expressing the need, and it is less harsh than a brusque command. It also has a logical attraction for use with younger or lower level learners, who may not possess the lexico-grammatical or pragmatic finesse necessary for more complicated language:

Dark. Well done. And your last word? Spiky. Spiky. Very good indeed. Hands down please. Now listen...(F72)

At the same time we must not forget that we are modelling. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula discuss examples of students giving truncated commands to each other and conclude that it signals a solidarity move rather than a pragmatic lack (2006: 261). If the use were restricted to peer interaction, we could count it a success; yet (harking back to



the previous section discussing negotiation of meaning) in this researcher's experience, both teaching and observing in the classroom and as an external oral examiner, students, of all ages and levels, and from a wide variety of L1 cultures, request repetition (signal a breakdown) with chunks like "Repeat please" or "Again please" which suggests that they have picked the structure up as being appropriate for stressful moments (incomprehension) without having had the opportunity to reflect upon the 'politeness perspective'. This use is not always socio-pragmatically appropriate. In line with the general hypothesis of this discussion then, the argument is that we should not ignore opportunities to model a wider range. Consider the selection below:

...erm, if there are any questions please feel free to ask. (F71)

...this morning when I give you these sheets will you please write your name and today's date at the top of the sheet... (F7R)

Would you please bring your chairs and that table over here so that we're all together round this table thank you. (FMC)

Sir, is Miss not in? No. Could you take your coats off please and come into the blue room. (F77)

Thank you for your attention. If you'd like to go into the next room, please. (F77)

Let's have a look at this finger. Gentlemen can we have a bit of quiet please? Assif, Neil, Colin. What did you do to that finger, Lisa? (FLY)

Have any of you ever seen a seal? Shh. Good. Now one or two people have got something they want to ask. So let's listen please. (F72)

If students are regularly exposed to a representative sample of possibilities, such as the one above, there are various use-based factors that they may be able to pick up osmotically. From a grammatical perspective we are adding conditional forms, modals and *let's* to the range of request formulae; we are also demonstrating that *Please* can be found at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the clause. We may also be planting the seeds which will allow students to become more aware of the importance of politeness strategies in cross-cultural communication.

#### 4. THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER

If content teachers want to help their learners' linguistic development, and CLIL explicitly assumes that they do, they need to hone monitoring skills. The first step towards enhanced classroom discourse must involve awareness-raising –in the sense of becoming aware of what is actually being said. Both what we are saying and what our learners are saying. Introspection can be a highly useful tool of professional development. It can be difficult to monitor discourse consecutively –as observed previously, we are focused on the message rather than its manifestation. Classroom observation either by trainers or peers can be a useful tool here, as can recordings and



transcriptions. If you listen to what you and your colleagues and your students are saying, you will discover patterns. You may well recognise things you have ‘taught’ without realising it<sup>5</sup>. You will be able to pick up on things which need fine-tuning. We made the point at the outset that all teachers contribute to their students’ linguistic evolution. Actively employing and encouraging the use of a wider range of ‘little’ words can contribute significantly to this goal.

## 5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Employing *Ok*, *What?* and *Please* as representative examples, we have looked at three key meaning-making tools: the organisation of discourse, the signalling of comprehension and the expression of solidarity/power. It has been suggested that use of a wider lexical range can enrich meaning and that by paying more attention to classroom language, becoming more aware of what is being said and proactively modelling and encouraging a wider range of language the content teacher can contribute to their learners’ linguistic development.

## NOTES

There are not many books on the market dealing specifically with these features from a classroom teaching perspective although two notable exceptions are Keller and Warner (1988) and Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992).

1. The code after each extract identifies the text.
2. Although there are, of course, exceptions - last summer I attended a 60 minute lecture given for EAP students in Britain by a Scottish lecturer who averaged eight *yeahs* a minute.
3. L1 users presented with extracts of L2 speech rate those with a frequent use of discourse markers more highly, considering them more fluent (Prodromou, 2007).
4. This too is true of L1 users. We would not expect a five year old to have the same L1 communicative competence as a sixteen year old. Ergo, this is something which will develop during their formative years, at school.
5. Anecdotal evidence from teacher-training workshops suggests this is always the case.

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POLÍTICA EDITORIAL, PRESENTACIÓN DE  
ORIGINALES Y HOJA DE ESTILO



## **REVISTA ESPAÑOLA DE LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA (RESLA)** **Política Editorial, Presentación de Originales y Hoja de Estilo**

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Ellis (1994: 9)

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(Sapir 1949a: 121)

(Sapir 1949b: 98)

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- Corder, S. 1983. "A role for the mother tongue". *Language Transfer in Language Learning*. Eds. S. Gass y L. Selinker. M.A.: Newbury House. 85-97.
- Tucker, G. 1990. "An overview of Applied Linguistics". *Learning, Keeping and Using Language. Selected Papers from the 8th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Sydney, 16-21 August 1987*. Eds. M. A. K. Halliday, J. Gibbons y H. Nicholas. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 1-6.

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- Langacker, R. 1991. *Foundations of cognitive grammar 2: Descriptive application*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Cuando se cite material bibliográfico disponible a través de Internet, sígase el siguiente modelo:

- Fauconnier, G. y M. Turner. 1994. "Conceptual projection and middle spaces". UCSD: Department of Cognitive Science Technical Report 9401. San Diego. [Documento de Internet disponible en <http://cogsci.ucsd.edu>].

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*RESLA* may publish collections of papers on a single subject. These volumes may be requested by any member of the Editorial Board or may stem from the proposal of the members of *AESLA*. Proponents of a monograph will be considered guest editors of the volume in question. The Editor and the authors of the monographs should be members of *AESLA* and their CV should include relevant publications within the thematic area of the manuscript.

The proposals will be anonymously evaluated by referees selected by members of the *Advisory Board* of *RESLA*. The referees will write a report on the adequacy of the



proposals and the members of *AESLA* will be informed about the selection process during the Annual Assembly.

Monographs will have to be financed by those submitting the proposal and only exceptionally will they be co-financed by *RESLA*.

## **SUBMISSION OF PROPOSALS AND STYLESHEET**

### **1. Submission of research papers, state of art reports, notes, squibs and reviews**

Please send an attached Word or RTF document to the assistant editor:

Dra. M<sup>a</sup> Sandra Peña Cervel

Assistant Editor of *RESLA*

E-mail: [secretariaderesla@gmail.com](mailto:secretariaderesla@gmail.com)

Contributions should be written in English, Spanish, or French, and manuscripts should closely follow the stylesheet guidelines below.

#### *a) Title and personal information*

The first page should contain the title of the proposal (in bold face), the name/s of the author/s (in small capitals), and institutional affiliation (in italics). Relevant correspondence information (e-mail, postal address and fax number) should also be included in this first page. In the case of multiple authorship, please state clearly which of the contributors will be in charge of the ensuing correspondence with *RESLA*.

The rest of the manuscript should not include any kind of information which might reveal the identity of the contributors.

#### *b. Formal aspects of the manuscript*

**b.1.** The main text of the proposals should be preceded by two brief abstracts (100-150 words each): the first one should be written in the same language as the proposal, while the second one should be written in a different language (either in Spanish, English, or French); both abstracts should be typed in 10-point Times or Times Roman italics, single-spaced, justified on both sides, and indented 1 cm. from the left-hand margin. Each abstract will be followed by a list of keywords in the corresponding language.

In the body of the text, all margins should be of 2.54cm.

**b.2.** Words in a language other than the one of the proposal should be italicized; italics should also be used in order to emphasize some key words. If the word that has to be emphasized is located in a paragraph which is already in italics, the key word will appear in normal characters.



**b.3.** Figures, illustrations, and tables should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals and accompanied by an explanatory foot (in 10-point Times or Times Roman); They should preferably be included on the same Word or RTF document as the main text of the proposal. If this is not possible, high-quality originals should be submitted on a separate sheet and their approximate position in the main text should be indicated.

**b.4.** The main text of the proposal should be written in 12-point Times or Times Roman and it should be justified on both sides. Quotations will be in 11-point Times or Times Roman when they appear in an independent paragraph. Abstracts, keywords, final notes, superscript numbers, tables and figures will appear in 10-point Times or Times Roman.

**b.5.** HEADINGS of sections should be typed in small capitals, numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals, and separated with two spaces from previous text and with one space from the following text. Headings of subsections should appear in italics (no bold), numbered (e.g. 1.1., 1.2., etc.), and separated with one space from both the previous and the following text. Headings of inferior levels of subsections should be avoided as much as possible. If they are included, they should also be numbered with Arabic numerals (e.g. 1.1.1., 1.1.2., etc.) and they will be typed in normal characters.

**b.6.** PARAGRAPHS should not be separated by a blank line. The first line of each paragraph will be indented 1cm. from the left-hand margin.

**b.7.** NOTES will be included at the end of the proposal, right before the references section. They will be brief and merely explanatory (references should preferably be provided only in the main text). Notes will be numbered with Arabic numerals and will be separated from the main text of the note by a full stop and a blank space.

**b.8.** PUNCTUATION. Commas, full stops, colons and semicolons will follow the inverted commas (”); and superscript numbers (²). Capital letters will keep their natural punctuation such as accents, etc. (e.g. PUNUACIÓN, LINGÜÍSTICA, etc.). Apostrophes (’) should be used for abbreviations and the saxon genitive.

#### **b.9. QUOTATIONS**

Quotations shorter than four lines should normally appear in the body of the text, enclosed in double quotation marks. Quotations longer than four lines should be set one line apart from the previous and the following text, without quotation marks. Omissions within quoted text should be indicated by means of suspension points in square brackets (e.g. [...]). Quotations should be typed in Times typeface (11 points) and should be indented 1,5 cms. from the left-hand margin.

#### **b.10. CITATION**

References in the main text should include the author’s last name and, between brackets, year of publication and page number(s). If the author’s last name also appears between brackets, it should be separated with one space from the year of publication; the year, in turn, should be separated from page number(s) with a colon and one space:



*Example 1*

Ellis (1994: 9)

*Example 2*

(Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 21)

If several authors are parenthetically cited at the same time, they should be arranged chronologically and separated with a semi-colon:

(Bybee 1973: 12; Croft 1981: 214; Burton 1992: 593)

If there are two or more works by the same author published in the same year, a lower-case letter should be added to the year, as in the example:

(Sapir 1949a: 121)

(Sapir 1949b: 98)

## **b.11. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES**

Bibliographical references will be included in alphabetical order. References to books will include: author's last name and initials; year of publication (first edition between brackets); title (in italics); place of publication; publisher's name.

Chomsky, N. 1995 (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press.

Titles of articles should be given in inverted commas. Titles of journals should appear in italics. Volume, number (between brackets) should follow. Then page numbers, separated by a colon:

Dik, S. 1986. "On the notion 'functional explanation'". *Belgian Journal of Linguistics* 1(3): 11-52.

Volumes edited by one or more authors should be referred to as follows (observe the use of abbreviations ed. and eds.):

Perlmutter, D., ed. 1983. *Studies in Relational Grammar 1*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Perlmutter, D., y C. Rosen, eds. 1987. *Studies in Relational Grammar 2*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

References to articles published in works edited by other authors or in conference proceedings should be cited as in the example:

Corder, S. 1983. "A role for the mother tongue". *Language Transfer in Language Learning*. Eds. S. Gass and L. Selinker. M.A.: Newbury House. 85-97.

Tucker, G. 1990. "An overview of Applied Linguistics". *Learning, Keeping and Using Language. Selected Papers from the 8th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Sydney*,



16-21 August 1987. Eds. M. A. K. Halliday, J. Gibbons and H. Nicholas. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 1-6.

Works by the same author should be arranged chronologically; the author's last name and initials should be repeated in all cases:

Langacker, R. 1990. *Concept, image and symbol: The cognitive basis of grammar*. Berlin: Mouton.

Langacker, R. 1991. *Foundations of cognitive grammar 2: Descriptive application*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Bibliographical references available on the Internet should be cited as in the example:

Fauconnier, G. and M. Turner. 1994. "Conceptual projection and middle spaces". UCSD: Department of Cognitive Science Technical Report 9401. San Diego. [Internet document available at <http://cogsci.ucsd.edu>].

## 2. Submission of monographs

Proposals of monographs should be sent to the Editor:

Dra. Lorena Pérez Hernández  
*RESLA*  
Departamento de Filologías Modernas  
Universidad de La Rioja  
C/ San José de Calasanz, s/n.  
26004- Logroño (La Rioja)  
Tel. 941- 299549  
Fax: 941-299419  
E-mail address: [lorena.perez@unirioja.es](mailto:lorena.perez@unirioja.es)

The following data should be included:

- a. Name/s, address and CV of the proponent/s.
- b. Title of the monograph.
- c. Names and affiliation of the potential authors of the monographs and written acceptance of their participation in the monograph, if available.
- d. Brief description of the contents/objectives of the monograph.
- e. Justification of the originality, interest, and relevance of the proposal.





