MODULE 2
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION FOR CLIL

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TIE-CLIL
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**AIM**
This module focuses on the findings of SLA research that are relevant to CLIL.

**TARGET GROUP**
Language teachers and subject teachers of secondary level involved in initial and in-service teacher training, and professional development.

**TRAINERS**
TIE-CLIL network experts with a background in SLA.

**EXPECTED OUTCOMES**
By the end of this module, the participant should be able to
- Discuss what the content teacher and the language teacher in a CLIL context can do to encourage and guide students to successfully use the L2 resources they have
- Advise content-subject and language teachers on how to deal and cope with some learners’ errors
- Discuss some of the characteristics successful CLIL experiences seem to share
- Find solutions to the CLIL situations discussed.

**SUBJECT**
Any language (although most examples are taken from English SLA) and non-language subjects.

**CONTENT**
- Learner’s language and types of errors
- Incidental and intentional learning
- Types of Input: Comprehensible, Simplified, Elaborated, etc.
- Language produced in CLIL contexts
- Learners’ individual characteristics
- Characteristics of successful CLIL programmes.

**STRUCTURE**
6 working units.

**METHODOLOGY**
Individual analysis, group dialogue, short introduction on content; task group; individual work; plenary sessions for discussion, comparison, conclusions.

**EVALUATION**
Evaluation will be conducted by means of
- Glossary of key terms
- Solutions to the problem-solving situations discussed
- List of features of incidental and intentional language learning relevant to CLIL.
Individual profile of good language learners in terms of incidental and intentional language learning
• A list of illustrations of comprehensible input provision and output sequences in the classroom
• Diagram of second language competence and communication strategies with examples taken from CLIL situations
• Summary of language learners’ individual characteristics and relevance to CLIL.

CERTIFICATION

According to local programme implementation.
Notes to the trainer

Structure

Each unit contains a core information text titled What is....? as well as some other sources of input from other readings such as articles, excerpts, abstracts, reviews, extracts, etc. as the main source of information. Whereas the former was written and designed by the authors of each unit, the second source of information comes from published materials.

The core information text could be seen as an introduction to the state of the art of each topic (input types, interlanguage, etc.). It is a summary of what participants should know about the topic by the end of each unit. It can also be seen as the trainer’s notes within contact hours teaching or as a self-study material for the end-users. Each core information text presents the main ideas from SLA field which are relevant for CLIL.

The structure of each unit can be best understood as consisting of three main steps: pre-tasks, readings and post-reading tasks. Pretasks elicit and check participants’ background knowledge to build on their previous knowledge, to raise some expectations, to allow syllabus planning and negotiation, etc. Most of those tasks involve brainstorming, initial evaluation etc. The introductory tasks are followed by the readings. Each unit offers a wide variety of post-reading tasks to ensure and check comprehension, ranging from very practice-oriented to more academic-based. Some of the post-reading tasks suggest some additional and further tasks and readings, some of which involve rethinking and self-assessment.

**Unit 1** focuses on the concept of learner’s language and types of errors. The main question is to consider how to handle learners’ errors in CLIL classes. **This unit is meant primarily for language specialists.**
**Unit 2** discusses the differences between incidental and intentional learning.
**Unit 3** analyses the different type of input: comprehensible, simplified, elaborated, etc.
**Unit 4** analyses some language produced in CLIL contexts.
**Unit 5** discusses the importance of learners’ individual characteristics.
**Unit 6** examines the characteristics of successful CLIL programmes.

Recommendations

1. **Before starting the module**
Participants may vary considerably as concerns their previous background on Second Language Acquisition. Language teachers may be already familiar with some of the ideas discussed in this module, although probably not many have seen them related to CLIL previously. On the other hand, for subject teachers this may be the first time they are presented with the ideas and findings from the field of SLA.
The trainer should take this difference into consideration when planning the sessions and choosing the tasks. While language teachers can be expected to be able to work through all the tasks and read the core information text as well as the selected readings, for subject teachers,
the trainer may decide to spend more time on the comprehension of the main core information text, the introductory tasks and a limited choice of post-tasks. In any case, it is important that at the beginning of each unit the trainer elicit the participants’ personal ideas and start building on them.

2. **Inputs**

According to the characteristics of the participants of the course, the trainer will decide on the way contents are to be presented with two main aims in mind. To facilitate comprehension by using techniques such as the use of visual aids (OHP transparencies, diagrams) and also to be coherent with the widely-used techniques and strategies inherent to CLIL programmes.

3. **Group dynamics**

Co-operative teaching methodology and group work will be most adequate for some tasks in class. Individuals will also be asked to work through the readings outside class, reflect on the implications for their practice and prepare their own contributions to the small group or the class group.

4. **Frequently used abbreviations**

L1: First Language  
L2: Second Language  
SLA: Second Language Acquisition  
IL: Interlanguage or Learner’s Language
Unit 1

Interlanguage: Learner’s Language 4 hours

OBJECTIVES
1. To identify the different characteristics of interlanguage (learners’ language)
2. To distinguish and identify different types of learners’ errors: errors which are a necessary step in the acquisition process (developmental errors) and errors that can be attributed to L1 influence
3. To reflect on the importance of developmental sequences

PROCEDURES
1. Initial activity
2. Introductory text
3. Tasks on the text for language teachers, content teachers and both; in group, pair-work text-based discussions, individual work
4. Individual reading of recommended articles; class discussion
5. Self-assessment

WORKING MATERIALS
1. “What is ‘interlanguage’?”

EXPECTED OUTCOMES
1. Glossary of key terms
2. Solutions to the problem-solving situations discussed
1. Initial activities

You may choose one of the following initial activities.

**Task 1**

In this section you will find out the extent to which some of your expectations and beliefs about (a) how languages are learnt, (b) the type of errors learners make and (c) how teachers should deal with them are either confirmed or disconfirmed by second language acquisition research findings.

Are the following statements true or false? Do you know why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Initial Evaluation: Checking our own beliefs</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. In learning a foreign language (i.e. English), most of the errors students from different first language (L1) background (Spanish / German / Italian / French first language) will be making are completely different from one another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Most of the errors which foreign language learners make are due to interference / influence of their first language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. One of the potential dangers of students talking to their peers is that they might pick up each others’ errors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. The way each person learns a language is completely different from another. It depends on the language they speak, their attitude, their intelligence, motivation, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. An increase in the number of second or foreign language learners’ errors is sometimes an indicator of progress.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. The easier a grammar rule is, the easier it will be acquired. For example, 3rd person -s for present simple in English is rather easy to state and it is fairly easy to acquire.</td>
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<td>7. Learners’ knowledge about the language (i.e. knowing grammar rules) does not necessarily result in being able to use it in more open and free spontaneous contexts.</td>
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<td>8. Languages are learnt mainly through imitation.</td>
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<td>9. Both first and second language (L2) learners in the process of learning the English past, would start using frequent irregular past verbs (e.g. mummy went, we saw) before they use regular past tenses (e.g. mummy called).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Both L1 and L2 learners in the process of learning the English past may be saying things such as We played cards yesterday but also I buyed the book [instead of I bought the book] / She teached me [instead of she taught me].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Second language structures which differ most from the equivalent structures in a learner’s native language (L1) are also the most difficult to acquire and should therefore be given greatest emphasis in the syllabus.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Second language structures which are closer to the equivalent structures in a learner’s native language (L1) are the easiest to acquire and should therefore be given greatest emphasis in the syllabus.</td>
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<td>13. There is a direct relationship between linguistic complexity and learning difficulty.</td>
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<td>14. The syllabus should present target structures to the learner in order of increasing complexity.</td>
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<td>15. Both in first and second language acquisition there are systematic and predictable stages or sequences of acquisition.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Task 2

Below you will find some of the concepts and dichotomies you will be learning about in this unit.

Draw a horizontal line in the right column as if it were a thermometer from 0º to 100º C: 0º means I don’t have a clue of what it is or might be about; 100º means I already know what this is about, how it works and I can provide lots of examples.
Assign each concept its corresponding temperature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Some key terms</th>
<th>0°</th>
<th>20°</th>
<th>40°</th>
<th>60°</th>
<th>80°</th>
<th>100°</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Acquisition and Learning</td>
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<td>2. Interlanguage</td>
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<td>3. Order of acquisition</td>
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<td>4. Learners’ errors</td>
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<td>5. Developmental errors</td>
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<td>6. Transfer errors</td>
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<td>7. Developmental sequences</td>
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<td>8. First language acquisition</td>
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2. What is interlanguage?

In this section we are going to consider learner’s language itself. We will examine the type of language second and foreign language learners produce in the process of learning the target language. We will examine the types of errors learners make and discuss what they can tell us about their knowledge of the language and their ability to use this knowledge. English children learning their mother tongue may say *goed* instead of *went*. We have also heard second language learners saying *tached* instead of *taught*. We will discuss the extent to which second and first language acquisition are alike in this respect. Most people seem to be aware of the fact that learners’ first language may influence the learning of a second one. What most people are not aware of, however, is the fact that learners with different language backgrounds in learning English as a second language will go through the same stages in learning some grammatical features such as verb negation. In other words, Spanish, Italian, German, Finnish learners of English in the process of learning negation in English will go through the very same four stages. For example, the Spanish negation system is preverbal (*Yo no lo quiero ‘I don’t want it’*) whereas several of the other languages are not. The differences among those learners can be best understood in terms of rate (how fast they would move from one stage to the next). An important second language acquisition (SLA) finding is that there are some learners’ errors that cannot be predicted or attributed to learners’ first language, instructional setting (formal, informal) or age.

Language Acquisition

Although for most SLA researchers the terms acquisition and learning are interchangeable, for others acquisition is contrasted with learning. **Acquisition** is associated with the *unconscious learning* which takes place when the emphasis is on communication and there is no attention to *form*, whereas **learning** refers to the development of conscious knowledge of the target language through *formal* study. For the second group of researchers, learning means the same as *explicit knowledge*. When do researchers consider that something has been acquired? In the early 70’s researchers
suggested learners had acquired a given morpheme when they were able to use it grammatically most of the time. Lately, however, most researchers suggest learners have acquired a language form when they are able to use it in spontaneous settings whether in a target-like fashion or not, most of the time. One researcher in particular developed one of the latest models of acquisition based on the idea that a language form had been acquired if learners would use it at least in three obligatory contexts from the communicative tasks in which they were engaged, yet not necessarily target-like. When learners are in the process of learning something they would attempt to use the language form in a wide variety of ways, overgeneralising its rule and also using it in non-obligatory contexts. For example when a learner is in the process of learning the English past, he or she may say I saw you yesterday when I go beach but I didn’t saw Mia. I’m going to called her.

**Similarities between First Language and Second Language Acquisition**
Children do not learn their mother tongue simply through imitation and practice; instead, they produce utterances that are not like those they have heard. Children’s language seems to be created on the basis of some internal processes and knowledge which interact with the language they are exposed to, allowing them to find out how the language system works gradually. Children’s early language seems best described as a developing system with its own internal and systematic structures, not just an imperfect imitation of the language they are in the process of learning. Finally, children’s language reveals there is an order of acquisition of English morphemes and also some other syntactic structures such as negation. For example, English children invariably first start using the –ing morpheme before they would ever come up with a plural –s form; or they start using the irregular past of some highly frequent verbs such as saw and went before they start using the regular –ed morpheme. When they start using the regular –ed morpheme, they also tend to overgeneralise its use and apart from saying called, they would also say comed. In acquiring English negation, children also go though a series of stages, some of which are not target-like (grammatical). At one stage, English children use pre-verbal negation in utterances like mummy no comb hair.

SLA research has also found out that second language learners learn English morphemes in a given order of acquisition and that the plural –s morpheme is acquired much earlier than the third person –s morpheme. In fact, the 3rd person –s morpheme along with the –ed morpheme is one of the latest morphemes acquired by second language learners. Learners will only start using those morphemes in spontaneous situations once they have already acquired other morphemes such as the plural –s.

**Interlanguage**
Interlanguage is the learners’ language, i.e., the type of language produced by learners who are in the process of learning a second language. Interlanguage is also defined as the learners’ developing second language knowledge. Analysis of the learners’ interlanguage shows that it has some characteristics of the learner’s native language, some characteristics of the second language and some characteristics which are very systematic, i.e., rule-governed and common to all learners. In language acquisition, learners’ errors are caused by several different processes.

**Learners’ Errors**
SLA has identified three main types of errors. The first of these are developmental errors, which are similar to the errors made by children learning the language as their first language. Developmental errors are assumed to be a natural product of a gradually developing ability in the new language in the studies so far carried out, developmental errors make up the majority of errors exhibited by second language learners. Examples of developmental errors are the misuse of third person –s (she work hard, he doesn’t works hard), the –ed morpheme (she teached us last year), of negation (I not like it) and of interrogatives (I wonder what is she doing). Transfer or interlingual errors, or errors clearly attributable to first language influence, are also frequent. One example of a transfer error for learners from most romance languages learning English is adverb placement in instances like I have every day a cup of coffee in the morning.
Developmental Sequences

Research on SLA has revealed that there are important similarities between first language acquisition and second language acquisition. One important finding has been that in both first and second language acquisition there are sequences or ‘stages’ in the development of particular structures. Developmental sequences are similar across learners from different language backgrounds, from different ages, or from different learning contexts (formal instruction vs. naturalistic). In other words, second and foreign language learners in the process of learning the target language, pass through a series of identifiable stages in acquiring grammatical structures. One such example is provided by Italian tenses where learners irrespectively of mother tongue start by marking completion with past participles.

The language that learners produce (IL) provides evidence that they acquire different morphological features in a fixed order and also that they pass through a sequence of developmental stages in the acquisition of specific morpho-syntactic features. The existence of developmental sequences is one of the most important findings of SLA research to date. There is a general acceptance in the SLA research community that the acquisition of some features of L2 grammar occurs in stages.

3. Tasks on the text

Glossary of related SLA terms from the Tutorial

Look for definitions and explanations of the bold-faced terms and italicised terms in the tutorial. Then write definitions for them using your own words. If possible, write down synonyms of those terms.

1. Working in heterogeneous pairs (subject-matter teacher and language teacher) read the following instructions and split the work between the two of you. Be ready to share and compare the results with other pairs. (1) Look at the definition of interlanguage, developmental sequence in an Applied Linguistics dictionary. (2) Are there any related terms provided? (3) Who coined the term? (4) Are there any Applied Linguistics dictionaries in your mother tongue? If so, look the term up. (5) Then, look it up in a desk-reference bilingual dictionary\(^1\) English-Your mother tongue and see whether the term can be found. (6) Are there any related terms provided? (7) Also, find out how the term has been translated into your mother tongue. You may want to use some reference SLA manuals such as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) which might have been translated into your first language and check the term there (It has been translated into Spanish and Japanese at least). (8) Finally, find out whether there are any developmental sequences being described for your first language (there are developmental sequences being described for German, Italian, Spanish at least). Compare your answers with a different pair.

2. Discuss the relevance to CLIL programmes of the different types of learners’ errors and of the developmental stages. Why do language teachers as well as content teachers need to be aware of learner’s interlanguage? What is it that they may expect from their learners based on what they’ve read about learner’s interlanguage?

3. Read the following complaint by a language teacher and comment on it. This teacher severely criticises a couple of students that have been interviewing each other in order to find out some facts about each other’s friends. She interrupts them and says:

---

I have taught you the present simple tense, haven’t I? How many times have I told you not to forget the 3rd person –s? Yet you seem to ignore what I said. Look, What is Mary, isn’t Mary a she? Isn’t Mary a third person singular? Why on earth have you said Mary work hard instead of Mary works hard. We have spent over a couple of months ‘studying’ the present simple tense and asking and giving information about habitual actions, haven’t we? You haven’t learnt anything, have you?

- What is it that this teacher is not aware of?
- What is this teacher taking for granted?
- Is the 3rd person –s one of the earlier morphemes acquired by second language learners?
- What is the difference between formal study, having learnt something and having acquired something?
- What type of language does this teacher expect from their students? Why?

4. One teacher listening to a student’s telephone conversation in order to make a complaint about a flight focuses her attention on the following learners’ interlanguage samples:

I call yesterday … and you told me that… My flight took off… No, I saw it! Yes I am going to made to the complain office

and concludes the learner has not yet acquired English past tense morphology.

- What can you tell this teacher?
- Does the learner fully master the past?
- Are all the past forms used by the learner target like? Are all the past morphemes grammatical?
- Are all the instances in which the learner uses a past morpheme obligatory?

5. How can you know whether a learner’s error is a developmental error or a transfer error?

SLA research literature has reported that Spanish, Catalan, Italian and French L1 learners tend to make the following error in learning English as a second language

I drink every day three cups of coffee.

- Is this utterance grammatical?/ Is it correct?/ Is it target-like? Why not?
- If only some romance L1 learners such as Catalan, Spanish and French make this type of error while other L1 learners tend not to make this type of error, what can we conclude about the type of error this is?
- In Catalan and Spanish it is possible to say each of the following combinations. Find out what it is like in other languages such as French, Italian, or Portuguese. Also find out whether non-romance speakers (such as Germans, Finns, etc.) seem to have the same adverb placement problem in learning English.

(Jo) em bec, cada dia, tres taces de cafè / (Yo) me bebo cada día tres tazas de café / *I drink every day three cups of coffee
Cada dia, em bec tres taces de cafè / Cada día me bebo tres tazas de café / Every day I drink three cups of coffee
(Jo) em bec tres taces de cafè al dia / (Yo) bebo tres tazas de cafè al día / I drink three cups of coffee every day
6. One teacher notices that most of her students from Spanish and Catalan L1 background keep making this type of error in learning English when engaged in communicative tasks:

I no work… I not work … I not want it… She don’t work… She not work

and she attributes these errors to the fact that Spanish as well as Catalan are pre-verbal languages, that is, that negation in Spanish and Catalan is made by placing the negative before the verb.

(Yo) no trabajo….. (Yo) no lo quiero….. (Ella) no trabaja
(Jo) no treballo…. (Jo) no ho vull….. (Ella) no treballa

and concludes that these errors are interlingual errors, that is transfer errors to be attributed to the transfer from learner’s L1 background.

- Is this teacher right? What can you tell this teacher?
- Has this teacher gathered enough evidence to support her claim? In order to reject her hypothesis, what type of data would you recommend this teacher collect?
- Are learners whose L1 is Spanish or Catalan the only ones who would most likely make this type of error in learning the verb negation in English?
- German L1 learners of English are said to move faster from pre-verbal negation (stage 1) to post-verbal negation (stage 2). The rate is faster although the path is the same. How can we account for it? Is German also a pre-verbal language? If you do not know the answer, what would you predict based on the fact that German learners move sooner from stage 1 to stage 2 in learning verb negation in English?
- Find out other ways of negating in different languages.
- Would you expect the very same learners to make the very same type of errors if instead of being engaged in communicative tasks, they were completing a more controlled written grammar exercise for which they had more time to plan and to rely on formal knowledge? Why?

7. These learners have been working on a science project to find out which type of detergents, biological or non-biological, eliminates stains better. They are bilingual students. They are fluent Catalan and Spanish speakers. They have been designing their own experiments to find out the answer for three types of stains: coffee stains, orange juice stains and oil stains. The team of teachers composed by a science teacher and a foreign language teacher has been monitoring the experiment. When it comes to report the results of the experiment this is what one group of students looking at the following grid of findings says:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coffee stains</th>
<th>Orange juice stains</th>
<th>Oil stains</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biological detergent</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non biological detergent</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>OK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S: Non-biological detergent removes coffee stains better than biological detergent. Non-biological detergent remove stains in oil better. Non-biological detergent don’t remove orange juice well

- What can you tell about this learner’s interlanguage?
4. Individual reading


5. Evaluation and assessment

Choose the best answers and justify them in the right-hand column

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learners’ knowledge about the language (i.e., knowing a grammar rule) (a) usually results in (b) does not necessarily result in being able to apply it and use it in more open and free spontaneous contexts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>In learning a foreign language (i.e., English), most of the errors students from different L1 background (Spanish / German / Italian / French) will be making are (a) completely different (b) similar to one another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The way (path and rate) each person acquires a second / foreign language is (a) completely different (b) largely similar to one another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Most of the errors which foreign language learners make (a) are due to (b) are not due to interference / influence of their first language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Students talking to their peers (a) will probably (b) will not likely pick up each others’ errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Languages (a) are acquired (b) are not acquired mainly through imitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>An increase in the number of second or foreign language learners’ errors can be an indicator of (a) failure (b) progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>As a rule, the 3rd person ‘s’ for the present simple in English is (a) more difficult to state (b) almost as difficult to state as the ‘s’ for plurals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The 3rd person ‘s’ for the present simple in English is (a) far more difficult to acquire than (b) as difficult to acquire as the ‘s’ for plurals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The English – ed past and 3rd person ‘s’ are examples of (a) morphemes from the developmental sequences which are acquired rather late (b) structures so simple to state that explicit grammar teaching can speed up the acquisition process.</td>
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</table>
Unit 2

Incidental vs. Intentional Learning 7 hours

OBJECTIVES
1. To acquire main distinctions between incidental and intentional learning and related concepts of implicit and explicit knowledge
2. To identify the relevance of these language learning modalities to CLIL

PROCEDURES
1. Initial activity
2. Introductory text
3. Tasks on the text for language teachers, content teachers and both; in-group, pair-work text-based discussions, individual work
4. Individual reading of the reference text - class discussion
5. Formative assessment: individual work

WORKING MATERIALS
1. “Incidental and Intentional Learning”
3. Whole video or collection of clips from videos of CLIL classes

EXPECTED OUTCOMES
1. List of features of incidental and intentional language learning relevant to CLIL
2. Individual profile of good language learners in terms of incidental and intentional language learning
1. Initial activity

Group work

1. Discussion on the role of ‘knowing the rules’ in language learning.
2. Discussion on participants’ previous experience of language acquisition in relation to language-focused or content-focused learning, e.g., when using the language for reading course textbooks or professional material, learning grammar rules, practising apologising in role playing activities, listening to radio broadcasts in a foreign language, etc.

2. Incidental and intentional learning

Two types of L2 knowledge are commonly discussed in second language acquisition: explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is made up of features of which the learner is aware and which s/he is able to verbalise. Implicit knowledge is intuitive and mostly works at an unconscious level. Explicit knowledge is often the initial result of language teaching, when the language input is manipulated by the teacher who presents some specific grammar rules, vocabulary items or any other language facts. In such cases learners pay conscious attention to what they are learning of the target language and they become conscious of what they know. Provided the focus of attention is on language, explicit knowledge develops independently of manner of presentation.

Implicit knowledge can become explicit knowledge when, for example, learners analyse and reflect on some linguistic facts they implicitly know. This is what typically also occurs when native speakers recognise patterns and regularities in their automatic linguistic behaviour. For example, they may at times come up with an intuitive rule which accounts for their use of the definite article in English or the passé composé in French. Explicit language learning is thus necessarily intentional. It relies on the same general cognitive processes that underlie the learning of other types of knowledge such as history or mathematics. Two main processes seem to be responsible for the internalising of such knowledge: problem-solving – that is the application of fundamentally conscious strategies to reach a solution – and memorisation – the fixing of items in long-term memory through various techniques like repetition, associations, contextualization. For these reasons relatively simple rules like plural formation in English appear to be better suited to be learned intentionally, through conscious analysis first. More complex rules and language facts, like the use of the subjunctive in Italian or Spanish, are better handled by what appears to be a more robust type of learning, implicit learning.

Implicit knowledge derives from unconscious, inductive acquisition processes. The learner picks up items from the linguistic environment which are frequent, salient, or similar to the mother tongue. The level of awareness during the process is very low or may be null as the learner typically focuses on a different activity than language learning itself. This is the reason why this acquisition modality is also called incidental learning. It is what happens during first language acquisition when the child acquires language while learning about himself or herself and the world. It is also what usually happens in immersion and CLIL programmes where students primarily concentrate on understanding, memorising facts or solving problems concerning the subject matter. In such situations language learning and the implicit knowledge that derives from it are by-products of other learning processes. They are powerful by-products, however, as they conform to the natural language learning processes that act on acquisition. They also respect developmental sequences that characterise language acquisition in a naturalistic setting. It has actually been suggested that learners acquire most language when they are involved in cognitively demanding tasks in which language plays a fundamental role. That is, when they are asked to solve non-linguistic problems using language like in a CLIL situation.
Of course, awareness about language may naturally arise at any moment during the process. It is in fact quite difficult and fundamentally unproductive to separate between explicit and implicit learning. As with most human behaviours it is a matter of degree and as such it must be conceived during actual teaching.

Language learning that derives from content teaching through a foreign language strongly relies on incidental learning, which is why immersion and CLIL programmes are welcomed as excellent opportunities for language learning. In this regard, it has been observed that “some of the most effective learning comes peripherally, ‘out of the corner of one’s eye’”, but the learner must be made aware that “learning is really taking place, even though it is not directly controlled” (Ehrman, 1996:183).

Intentional learning, on the other hand, obviously remains the main objective of formal language teaching. In Krashen’s Input Hypothesis explicit learning plays only a limited role as a monitor, that is, a language corrector that operates when time is available, the rule is known and attention is on language rather than meaning. Recent research on second language acquisition, however, suggests that, given the right conditions, explicit learning can also help in developing implicit language knowledge. Moreover, explicit knowledge of some language items can incidentally help notice and thus internalise these items from the input. In this way explicit knowledge acts indirectly on implicit learning.

### 3. Tasks on the text

1) **Discussion on which of the following activities foster incidental or intentional learning of the target language**

1. Listening to the teacher’s instructions before carrying out a biology experiment.
2. Underlining all past tenses in a reading passage on 19th century German composers.
3. Memorising a list of words which refer to parts of the human body.
4. Drawing a diagram about imports and exports in one’s country as opposed to the country where the target language is spoken.
5. Practising some phonetic patterns in the target language (like the /i:/ and /i/ opposition in English - *beat* and *bit*).
6. Taking notes when the history teacher is talking about the French Revolution in the target language.
7. Reading and underlining main ideas in a chapter from a philosophy textbook to study for a written exam.
8. Completing an open dialogue on arranging a visit to the botanical gardens with some school friends.

2) **Task for language teachers**

In language teaching methodology a distinction is often drawn between so called *deductive* and *inductive* approaches. In deductive language teaching, rules and generalisations about linguistic behaviour are presented first to be applied and practised later. In inductive teaching, learners are presented with selected instances of language from which they are asked to extract regularities.

Do the two approaches differ in terms of focusing on content or language?

Do they promote implicit or explicit knowledge?
3) **In-group discussion**

A frequently drawn distinction when discussing language learning and language acquisition is between **declarative** and **procedural knowledge**, which can be shortly described as ‘knowing that’ and ‘knowing how’.

Which one typically develops in the CLIL classroom?

Discuss relationships with the context of traditional foreign language instruction.

4) **In-group discussion**

In his book on implicit knowledge, Reber (1993: 88) maintains that from an evolutionary perspective, unconscious, implicit functions must have developed in man well before conscious explicit functions. We should thus expect implicit learning to have substantially different characteristics from overt and explicit learning. More specifically, Reber posits a series of hypotheses:

1. **Robustness**: Implicit learning and memory should not be altered by the disorders that affect explicit learning and memory.
2. **Age independence**: Implicit learning should be independent of age and level of development and last longer through time.
3. **Low variability**: Acquiring knowledge implicitly should not show significant individual variation. Implicit learning processes should be very similar across the population.
4. **IQ independence**: Differently from explicit learning processes, implicit processes should show little agreement with the results of tests of “intelligence”, such as the commonly used IQ tests.

Which points of those listed by Reber can be relevant to CLIL?

What are the implications of Reber’s presentation for CLIL in terms of students’ age?

What are the implications of Reber’s presentation for the implementation of CLIL with students of mixed abilities?

5) **Pair-work discussion**

Ellis (1997: 115) puts forward a modified version of the strong interface hypothesis according to which there are shifts from explicit to implicit knowledge. More specifically, according to the strong interface position through appropriate practice all explicit knowledge becomes implicit knowledge. The modified version, which Ellis calls a ‘weak interface position’, is grounded on the findings of recent research on second language acquisition and takes into account the findings about developmental sequences.

1. Explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge when the features learnt do not belong to a developmental sequence.
2. In the case of developmental rules, explicit knowledge can become implicit only if the learner has already mastered the stage which in acquisition comes just before the target rule.
3. No transfer from explicit to implicit knowledge can occur if the learner hasn’t reached the appropriate level of development for a given structure.
4. Most L2 knowledge starts as implicit knowledge.
5. Explicit teaching can help both explicit and implicit grammatical knowledge.
While discussing Ellis’s position, participants should:

- Go back to Unit 1 and provide examples of features which cannot be modified by teaching (e.g. English negation and interrogation). Provide examples of areas that could benefit from explicit learning;
- Identify tasks which can automatise language knowledge in a CLIL context (e.g. repeating parallel structures such as the cell membrane surrounds the cell, the nuclear membrane surrounds the nucleus).

6) Viewing task for content teachers (individual or group work)

Videos or extracts from videos where some instances of focus-on-language conducing to intentional or explicit learning are shown. Participants should identify which aspects of language are more likely to be treated explicitly in a CLIL class.

Main point
In CLIL contexts content teachers often draw students’ attention to the meaning and use of technical vocabulary, sometimes to pronunciation, very rarely to grammar rules.

4. Individual reading


- Ask participants to read Ellis’s chapter in depth choosing the strategy they prefer to identify ideas, concepts, notions that are more relevant to CLIL (listing, note-taking, drawing tree-diagrams, etc.)
- Class discussion: compare various solutions and collectively prepare a list or a diagram of ideas discussed in Ellis and relevant to CLIL.

5. Formative assessment

Formative assessment task (individual work):
Answer the following questions in writing:
1. Identify a profile of the learner who will benefit most from intentional learning.
2. Identify a profile of the learner who will benefit most from incidental learning.
3. In what way can both intentional and incidental learning be promoted within CLIL?
5. (pre-service teachers) Discuss implicit/explicit knowledge as applied to L1 teaching experienced in school.
6. (in-service teachers) Discuss implicit/explicit knowledge as applied to L1 teaching in your school.
Unit 3

Input Characteristics

4 hours

OBJECTIVES
1. To reflect on the importance of input and its different types
2. To reflect on the role of output and negotiation

PROCEDURES
1. Initial activity
2. Introductory text
3. Tasks on the text for language teachers, content teachers and both; in-group, pair-work text-based discussions, individual work
4. Individual reading of recommended articles/book chapters; class discussion
5. Assessment (optional)

WORKING MATERIALS
1. “What is input?”

EXPECTED OUTCOMES
1. A list of illustrations of comprehensible input provision and output sequences in the classroom (optional)
2. Glossary of key terms
1. Initial activity

Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. Peer talk in the second language is not beneficial, since students “learn” their peers’ errors.
   AGREEDISAGREE

2. Repeated exposure to the same second language items guarantees learning of those items.
   AGREEDISAGREE

3. Learners should be induced to talk in the second language from the very beginning of their learning process.
   AGREEDISAGREE

4. Incomprehensible input may lead to acquisition.
   AGREEDISAGREE

5. Learners at beginning levels should be exposed to very simple language.
   AGREEDISAGREE

6. Instructed second language teaching should model naturalistic first language acquisition.
   AGREEDISAGREE

7. Only exposure to meaningful input guarantees second language acquisition.
   AGREEDISAGREE

8. In instructed second language acquisition, listening is more important than talking.
   AGREEDISAGREE

9. Attention to certain features in the input promotes their acquisition.
   AGREEDISAGREE

10. Negotiation of meaning in conversation plays an important role in acquisition.
    AGREEDISAGREE

2. What is input?

a. Input is understood as the language to which the learners are exposed. For example, the target language used by the teacher or peers in the classroom, or the language used by native speakers in the target language community. The role of input in SLA has been a matter of substantial debate. From a nativist point of view, input functions as a mere trigger of the learner’s innate principles. On the other hand, from an empiricist perspective, the study of input is essential, in both cognitive and interactional models.

Two main focus can be distinguished in studies of input in the classroom: the ways in which learners process input, or the adaptation of teacher input to enhance comprehension. The former emphasizes the importance of studying the way in which students process information in order for instructional approaches to draw upon what the students can contribute to the learning process. For example, by studying the strategies used by language learners for comprehending texts, for learning and retaining concepts related to academic language and content, and for processing new information. The latter, the adaptation of teacher input to enhance comprehension, emphasizes the causal effect of input on acquisition, by considering the conditions under which comprehensible input promotes acquisition. For example, by considering the role that affective factors play in acquisition, i.e.: a low affective filter, or the external conditions, i.e., negotiated interaction.
b. Types of input

Comprehensible input
Language directed to the learner that contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner’s present linguistic competence. According to Krashen, this is the input that is useful for language acquisition, the input that the learner acquires by understanding while focused on the meaning and not the form of the message. This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information. Furthermore, for comprehensible input to be usable, it must be within a reasonably close developmental distance from the learner’s current proficiency level (Meisel, Clashen & Pienemann, 1981).

Simplified input
Input that contains shorter, syntactically less complex utterances or sentences, uses a narrower range of verb tenses, fewer modifiers, and frequently involves some loss of semantic content (Long, 1996: 421). These exclusively linguistic adjustments may result, according to some researchers, in ungrammaticality. At the other extreme, interactional modifications - that is, modifications which derive from speakers’ efforts to understand each other and greater explicitness - may result in elaborated input.

Elaborated input
Input that contains redundancy through the use of repetition, paraphrases and appositionals. Elaborated input produces longer texts, in which utterance or sentence length and syntactic complexity are maintained or increased. See the examples of simplified and elaborated input that follow the native speaker baseline version (Long, 1996: 422):

a) Native speaker baseline version
   Because he had to work at night to support his family, Paco often fell asleep in class.

b) Simplified version
   Paco had to make money for his family. Paco worked at night. He often went to sleep in class.

c) Elaborated version
   Paco had to work at night to earn money to support his family, so he often fell asleep in class next day during his teacher’s lesson.

Negotiated input
Input that occurs in interaction where meaning is negotiated. Negotiated input presents simplifications, paraphrases and expansions, all of which helps make input more comprehensible. Although comprehensible input may be necessary for acquisition, it, alone, is insufficient. Part of the explanation for success or failure to learn lies inside the learner, and most importantly in the areas of attention, awareness, and cognitive processing. In negotiated interaction, learners have plenty of opportunities to notice mismatches between the input and their linguistic production (output), that is “noticing gaps” (Schmidt and Frota, 1986), or “noticing holes” (Swain, 1998) when the learner must abandon or modify a message due to limitations in his/her available linguistic resources. Noticing or perception (for which attention is a prerequisite) is necessary for converting input to intake, which is the input that is actually incorporated by the learner. Furthermore, provision of negative input or feedback during interaction may help the learner to focus his/her attention on the unlearned forms, and accelerate their acquisition.

Negative input
Feedback to the learner which indicates that his or her output has been unsuccessful in some ways. It includeselicitations, repetitions, explicit corrections, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and recasts or reformulations.

(i) Example of an elicitation:
   S: I don’t cooking.
   T: I don’t know …
(ii) Example of a repetition:
S: There are a garden.
T: There are a garden?

(iii) Example of an explicit correction:
S: She can sing.
T: She can, no. He can,

(iv) Example of a clarification request:
S: Era la época que todos los holandeses se asustan mucho.
T: ¿Cómo dices?

(v) Example of metalinguistic feedback:
S: La gente se recibe su equipaje.
T: ¿Se dice “se recibe”?

(vi) Example of a recast:
S: I don’t know cook.
T: I don’t know how to cook.

c. From an interactional position, output has a crucial role in the development of competence. Oral output is seen by some researchers as a necessary condition for an optimal acquisition of a second language. According to the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) during oral production the learner’s grammatical system is “pushed” to operate in language coding. That is, while in comprehension learners may recur to inferential strategies and general knowledge, and avoid resorting to grammar, in production avoiding the use of grammar to code the message intended is very difficult. The role of output as a facilitator of acquisition is underlined also in the Interaction Hypothesis, but, similarly to input, it is not a sufficient condition for second language acquisition. Input and output must be connected in productive ways to internal learner capacities, and particularly to selective attention (Long, 1996). CLIL programmes are advantageous in that they can not only provide plenty of meaningful input, but also plenty of opportunities for learners’ output, both within pedagogic activities and within classroom interaction.

3. Tasks on the text

1) Look for definitions and explanations of the bold-faced terms in the Introductory text. Then write definitions for them using your own words. If possible, write down synonyms of those terms.

2) Look for illustrations of the provision of comprehensible input in CLIL classrooms, and of opportunities for learners’ output, both within pedagogic activities and within classroom interaction.

3) According to S. Halliwell (1993: 131), both language lessons and content lessons build on the same processes:
   - diagrammatic representation of information
   - repeated pattern
   - understanding through seeing
   - responding by doing
Halliwell points out that these key elements in common between the subjects help us to integrate language work and other learning even with learners in the early stages. Look for practical examples to illustrate those processes and discuss the importance of bearing them in mind when planning CLIL lessons.

4) Link the teachers’ interventions (left column) to their possible outcomes (right column):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEACHERS’ INTERVENTIONS</th>
<th>POSSIBLE OUTCOMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Using continuous comprehension checks. (ex.: Do you understand? ...)</td>
<td>a) Students start to understand the language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Reinforcing the use of discourse markers when moving to a new phase in the activity. (ex.: now, next, then, ...)</td>
<td>b) Students understand through seeing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Using diagrams to represent information.</td>
<td>c) Students’ comprehension is enhanced through language contextualisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Helping students understand the message.</td>
<td>d) Students form the false idea that everything must be understood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Explaining by doing.</td>
<td>e) Students process the new language in the light of what they understand through watching action.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Unit assessment

It is said that a History teacher stopped following a CLIL approach in his subject matter class, and returned to teaching the subject matter in the students’ mother tongue, when he perceived that his students did not command the past-tense formation rule in English (L2). He could not teach History - he said - without using the past tense of verbs. What would you have suggested had you been consulted?

5. Readings


OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITY

The following questions refer to Reading 1 and follow the same linear order of topic presentation. Answer them individually as a preparation for discussion in class.

1) Compare and contrast the ELP students referred to in the article with the CLIL students in Europe. Choose three main distinctive characteristics.
2) How important is it having native speaker classmates in the classroom? You may compare the situation described in the article with the situation in, for example, some German schools, as shown in the video “Teaching with Foreign Languages”, and with the situation in the schools in your country.

3) What are - according to the author - the two major functions of the language used by teachers in instructional events in classrooms serving ELP students? Are they different from those teacher talk has in CLIL classrooms?

4) Which factors do the language learning outcomes in the study seem to be attributable to?

5) Which are the structural characteristics of lessons that work for language learning?

6) How important do you think language contextualisation is in those lessons?

7) Which are the characteristics of teacher talk that work well for language learners?

8) Why doesn’t translation into the students’ L1 work?

9) What is - according to the author - the difference between the language used in the service of communicating subject matter to students, and the language used in typical foreign language classes?

10) Why are demonstration, and message redundancy facilitative of comprehension?


OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITY

The following questions refer to Reading 2 and follow the same linear order of topic presentation. Answer them individually as a preparation for discussion in class. (You may skip the “Results” section, but read the “Discussion” final section.)

1) What are the different terms that are used to refer to error correction (i.e., native (or competent) speakers’ reaction to learners’ (less competent) language errors)?

2) What is learner uptake?

3) Why is comprehensible input not sufficient for successful second language learning?

4) In which way can subject-matter teaching provide adequate language teaching?

5) What are the two different functions of negotiation mentioned in the text?

6) Order the six different feedback moves used by the teachers in this study from most to least likely to lead to uptake.

7) What combinations of corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute the negotiation of form? Why do you think this is so?

8) Tick the correct answer:
   - For negotiation of form to occur students must be provided with:
     a) the correct form
     b) signals that assist in the reformulation of the erroneous utterance.
Unit 4

Second Language Competence  8 hours

OBJECTIVES
1. To acquire main components of second language competence and related notions of communication and learning strategies
2. To analyse some language produced in a CLIL context using the notions above

PROCEDURES
1. Initial activity
2. Introductory Text
3. Tasks for language teachers, content teachers and both: in-group, pair-work, text-based discussions, individual work
4. Individual reading of one reference text - class discussion
5. Formative assessment: individual written discussion on a topic

WORKING MATERIALS
1. “What is Second Language Competence?”
4. Transcriptions of CLIL classes

EXPECTED OUTCOMES
Diagram of second language competence and communication strategies with examples taken from CLIL situations
1. Initial activity

Pair discussion
- What components do you think come into knowing a second language?

2. What is second language competence?

When we speak of competence in a second language we can refer to learners' developing competence in the L2 as well as to the target competence they should acquire. In the first case we refer to what we have called interlanguage or learner language, in the second case attention is paid to the fully fledged target language system. Competence in a second language is made up of several components, of which grammar is only one. Other aspects include the phonological, lexical, sociolinguistic and pragmatic components.

We have already seen that grammatical knowledge develops along acquisitional paths which are very similar among L2 learners independently of learning conditions. That is, context (language classroom or other environments) and mother tongue do not seem to significantly influence the order by which various structures are learnt. Similarity of language development especially applies to learners who share the same mother tongue. On the other hand, rate of acquisition and a high level of final achievement may be favoured by formal learning. It is very unlikely, however, that second language learners will ever attain the same competence as native speakers, as has been shown by extensive evaluation research of the Canadian immersion programmes. There are some areas of the L2 grammatical system — such as verb endings and use of tenses — of which learners fail to attain complete mastery even after several years of exposure in an immersion context. The structure of the mother tongue shows its influence at the level of syntax as well as in other areas of the L2. Phonological competence in particular will almost certainly be influenced by the learner's native language and by universal patterns of phonological simplification.

Lexical knowledge will develop as a result of the contents which are presented in the L2. Thus, in a CLIL situation learners are expected to acquire specialised vocabulary together with general vocabulary, in a proportion which depends on the subject matter being taught in the foreign language. History, Social Sciences and Geography will cater for a great share of general vocabulary. Maths, Physics, biology, on the other hand, will mostly cover specialised vocabulary plus core, basic vocabulary items. But lexical knowledge does not include whole words only, it also comprises knowledge about how to make up and analyse words in their components, such as prefixes and suffixes. Special training is in fact often needed to make learners aware of the segmentation of unknown words which they fail to understand. For example, an Italian student failed to understand the English word displacement in a Physics textbook because he did not analyse it in its components: the negative prefix dis-, the root -place- and the noun suffix -ment (dis-place-ment). Notice that the student had the same pattern in his mother tongue. The corresponding Italian spostamento word is built in almost exactly the same way: s-post(a)-mento.

How words are put together to form paragraphs, whole texts and coherent speech has to do with discoursal or textual competence. It is that type of knowledge which is used to produce fluent, well-integrated and well-organised texts and includes many subcomponents such as being able to use pronouns to refer back to something which has already been talked about or using synonyms and more general words for more specific ones. Discoursal knowledge is also involved when making predictions about what comes next in a text and in understanding the underlying conceptual structure of a text. This knowledge is usually transferred from the L1 provided the learner reaches a sufficient level of general competence in the L2.
Sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence has to do with speech acts like requesting, apologising, explaining, complimenting as they are expressed in a given sociocultural setting. Such competence also includes knowing how to be polite in the L2, when to speak and what to say in a given situation (informal conversation between friends or strangers, talking to the doctor, buying food, etc.). Two opposite strategies have been observed in language learners in their use of speech acts in the L2. On the one hand, beginning learners tend to be abrupt due to the lack of appropriate linguistic resources for the expression of the intended meanings in second language, on the other, more advanced learners are too verbose in comparison to native speakers who go more clearly to the point. Finally, strategic competence is shared by all speakers and used to varying degrees in problematic moments. Everybody has experienced not remembering a word or hesitating about the correctness of a given structure even in one’s own mother tongue. At that point various strategies may be resorted to in order to prevent or overcome a communication breakdown.

Communication strategies can be grouped into two classes: reduction strategies and compensatory strategies. When using a reduction strategy learners give up relying on their linguistic means in order to overcome the language problem at hand. These strategies include message abandonment, message reduction or replacement, topic avoidance, and appeal for assistance. With this last strategy learners call on external sources — the teacher, a dictionary, a grammar book — in order to solve a language problem. Appealing for assistance is highly acceptable in the classroom context where the teacher can be relied on to provide the information the learner lacks.

With compensatory strategies, on the other hand, learners work on a solution to the problem exploiting what they know of the second language. Among these strategies we find approximation, circumlocution, L1 transfer, word coinage (i.e., the creation of a new word made up of known components, e.g., the noun flies meaning ‘wings’ derived from the verb to fly). These strategies often imply a negotiation between interlocutors who try to agree on a shared meaning and to “bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of the second language learner and the linguistic knowledge of the target language interlocutor” (Tarone, 1983: 65).

In negotiating meaning resources with the learner, the teacher should provide a type of input which can foster second language development but which is not too complex to become integrated into the learner’s L2 competence.

Communication strategies serve the immediate goal of overcoming a communication breakdown but they may also indirectly affect second language acquisition in two ways. While performing communication strategies learners (1) can test hypotheses about the second language and (2) are forced to notice the gap between their resources and the target language. An internal reorganisation of the L2 may then result from the mismatch.

In previous units it was pointed out that for acquisition to occur the learner must receive plenty of input of the second language. But shifting perspective, what can learners do in order to foster their acquisition of the second language? What learning strategies can they implement to make sure they acquire the language? For a start, good language learners look for situations where they can obtain data. These strategies that concern the learner’s capability of establishing and sustaining relationships with native speakers, finding opportunities of interaction and exposure to the second language can be labelled social learning strategies. They work at a macro-level.

There are other behaviours and mental strategies that work more closely on the language to be learned and which invest cognitive, memory, metacognitive and language processes. Thus, the good language learners will decide in advance to pay attention to some aspects of input, such as lexical items or politeness markers. They will make a conscious effort to memorise a new linguistic fact relating it to something they already know. They will reflect on what helps them most in understanding grammatical regularities. They will be able to correct their own speech by relying on their formal knowledge of the language. Good language learners take risks and have a strong determination to communicate even when they feel unsure about their language competence. They are careful listeners and match up the verbal input they receive with specific aspects of the situation in which it is embedded.

Learning strategies are not specific to a CLIL context of language learning. It is probable in fact that
types of strategies will not substantially differ in this particular learning environment. What may change is the frequency of use and width of application. Private speech, or self talk, for example, has been reported as frequently occurring in immersion programmes. Learners try out utterances to themselves to feel more confident about using the target language or rehearse quietly before speaking aloud in front of a group. Self talk is a potential learning strategy typical of CLIL contexts where learners are asked to produce extensive language on cognitively demanding topics.

3. Tasks on the text

1) Pair work
Participants will be asked to draw a diagram including the various components of second language competence and communication strategies. The diagram will then be compared with the presentation in Harley et al. (1990) and with the diagram in Yule and Tarone (1997: 20).

2) Pair work
The following extracts come from a primary school CLIL class. They are reports on the respiratory apparatus by two groups of Italian children learning English (group 1 and group 2) (Rizzardi, 1997: 259).

a) Using the following grid, identify some grammatical features which typically characterise the first stages of second language acquisition:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>article (e.g., omission of the definite article)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb endings (e.g., English -s of third pers. sing.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singular/plural nouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>omissions (i.e., some words like verbs are not expressed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simplifications (e.g., simple prepositions are used instead of more complex ones)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Comment on the children’s use of vocabulary (i.e., use of general and specialised vocabulary)

Group 1
S1 The oxygen enter the nose and go into the trachea or windpipe. The wind pipe.
    The windpipe divide in two tube: the bronchus.
S2 Oxygen enter in the lungs.
    In the lungs is a lot of /branking/
S3 In the end of the branking there’s alveolus
S4 There are alveoli
S5 There are alveoli

Group 2
S6 The oxygen in the nose and go in windpipe. From windpipe oxygen in the main bronchus and go in alveolus. From capillary oxygen go in the body.

3) Group discussion
After reading Harley et al.’s (1990) paper, discuss which aspects of L2 competence are more likely to be developed in a CLIL classroom, which ones in the language classroom, which ones in both. You can use the following list for a start:
phonological competence, for example
- produce utterances in the target language without a strong foreign accent
- being able to pronounce an unknown word by looking it up in the dictionary

grammatical competence, for example
- knowing how to revise a text you have written checking for mistakes
- knowing how to use correct verb endings

lexical competence, for example
- recognising technical vocabulary
- being able to understand colloquial and slang expressions

discourse competence,
- relying on paragraph organisation to understand a new text
- identifying which fragment of the text a pronoun refers to

socio-pragmatic competence, for example
- knowing how to use the appropriate forms of address with people you meet for the first time
- knowing how to make a request to a friend older than you are
- knowing how to decline an invitation politely
- knowing how to disagree in group discussion with school friends and with your teacher

4) Individual work + class discussion
Discussion of the following (simplified) extract taken from a biology class taught in English in an International school with Italian L1 students (Ferrari, 1999).

T: but, ehm, there is a problem, a bit of a complicated problem (he takes a felt pen and makes a drawing on the board). Right. What do you think ... here’s ehm (he draws a test tube) here’s our plant, ok? It’s a red plant. (he looks for a red felt pen to draw an elodea in the test tube) Ok, here we go. Here’s our lamp (he draws a lamp which sheds light onto the test tube). Right, now, let’s say that’s one meter away, ok, now, if I move that lamp until it’s two meters away ... what do I do to the amount of light that hits the elodea?
Ss: decreases
T: right ... by how much?
Ss: twice

Main points
This is an instance of good comprehension but limited syntactic competence which may be the result of an insufficient push to express full messages (fully grammaticalized language).
Notice the disproportion between the teacher’s and the students’ turns.

5) Instructor + group work
The following extract is taken from an English-medium secondary school in Milan. Analyse it from the point of view of different types of L2 competence and of communication strategies between teacher and student in meaning-and-form negotiation (Ferrari, 1999:202-203).

T: You remember last lesson? (...) We were looking at photosynthesis. And we were looking at the factors that were necessary for photosynthesis. Can anyone remember? What those factors were that we established were necessary for photosynthesis?
S1: carbon dioxide [dai’oksid]
T: carbon dioxide [da’joksaid]. Now, how did we know that carbon dioxide was necessary?
S2: because of the, because of the what?
T: yeah, because of the ...?
S2: because of the experiment that we found that the ones that (he lifts his hands), the ones that they didn’t have the ... CO₂ were not performed.
T: did not ...?
S2: perform it. like, the ones that ...
T: did not photosynthesise
T: yeah, what did they not make?
S3: glucose!!
T: mmh, well ...we, it’s true, they didn’t make glucose, but, what did we test for? we did a test for ...?
Ss: starch, starch
T: we tested for starch. what’s starch? starch is a ... ?
Ss: comes from glucose
T: is a mo -ehm. polymer
S4: polymer
T: a polymer of glucose ... yeah, exactly, good .... o.k ... we also established a thing. ehm ... you’ll remember we established that ehm light was necessary, at the same time, the same thing ... without light we didn’t get starch formed. starch comes from glucose. so. no glucose is formed, no starch is formed.
S1: we also made chlorophyll formed
T: we also made chlorophyll. yeah, exactly. we didn’t do any experiment on that first, but you might have read of that one .. yeah, good ... right.

T = teacher; Ss= more than one student; S1, 2, 3, 4= different students

6) Individual work + group discussion
Should communication strategies be taught?

Participants should read Yule and Tarone’s (1997: 27-29) article, where two opposing stands are presented. Answering the following questions should help them outline the main features of the pros and cons. Application to a CLIL situation can be discussed at the end.

1. Identify the reasons why according to some researchers communication strategies need not be taught.

2. Identify some of the reasons why according to others communication strategies should be taught.

3. What do experimental studies show?

4. Find one way of “teaching” communication strategies in the language classroom mentioned in the article.

5. Add some other ways of teaching communication strategies in a CLIL classroom.
Main points

1. Provided L2 competence is there, learners will use the same cognitive processes they use in their L1. Teaching communication strategies would be like trying to teach cognitive processes. The task of the language teacher is to teach the language.

2. Focusing on communication strategies promotes greater awareness of language and language use and less inhibition in performing communication strategies (which are useful both for keeping the interaction going and getting the right input at the right time). Language teaching is not just teaching the language but also involving students in tasks that develop a range of abilities and skills.

3. Some studies have shown that learners improve their competence after sessions in which communication strategies are taught. Other studies have shown no advantages derived from an emphasis on communication strategies in instruction.

4. Show videotapes of the learners using communication strategies and discussing the effectiveness of the strategies used.

5. Through videotapes, show how other learners or native speakers referred to an object, an event, etc., for which they do not know the right word. Discuss the use of successful (and unsuccessful) communication strategies after students have spoken. Encourage students to take risks and also use reduction communication strategies which involve reliance on teacher, textbooks, other students.

7) **(in-service teachers) Individual work**

Several learning strategies have been recognised as contributing to language learning. O’Malley and Chamot (1992) distinguish between metacognitive, cognitive, and social and affective strategies. The first ones have to do with high-level processes involved in the global organization and perception of a text or a lesson. The second group of strategies refers to more local behaviours such as looking words up in a dictionary or using visual input to understand the meaning of unknown words or structures. Finally, the last group includes strategies such as self-talk used to boost self-confidence and reduce anxiety by rehearsing what one is going to say. In this group we generally find strategies to make interaction and relationships within the classroom more productive and smoother.

In the following table some of the strategies presented in O’Malley and Chamot (1992: 198) have been included because they appear particularly suitable to a CLIL context. In what way can they be fostered and exploited in the CLIL classroom? Can you think of other strategies to be included?
Learning strategies - adapted from O’Malley and Chamot, 1992: 198

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive strategies</th>
<th>What to do in the CLL classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Going through the language needed for an oral or written task</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sure that one understands what the teacher says</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sure that one’s production is clear and correct while speaking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looking for opportunities for receiving extra language input and for practising the foreign language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using rules that have been previously learnt to understand difficult language or express difficult ideas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relying on visual stimuli to grasp and memorise new information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going through just heard words or utterances to understand them better and learn them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploiting what one knows in a text to understand what one doesn’t know</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and affective strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking the teacher to explain a word, rephrase a difficult sentence, give examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally practising what one is going to say aloud or carrying out any techniques that help reduce anxiety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Formative assessment

Formative assessment: individual written discussion

Learners by definition have limited linguistic resources in their target language. Discuss what the content teacher and the language teacher in a CLL context can do to encourage and guide students to successfully use the L2 resources they have.
**Unit 5**

**Individual Characteristics of the Learner**

**OBJECTIVES**

1. To reflect on the importance of learners’ individual characteristics, particularly of motivation in CLIL programmes
2. To reflect on the effects of age on language acquisition

**PROCEDURES**

1. Initial activity
2. Introductory text
3. Tasks on the text for language teachers, content teachers and both; in-group, pair-work text-based discussions, individual work
4. Individual reading of recommended articles/book chapters; class discussion

**WORKING MATERIALS**

1. “What is the role of learners’ individual characteristics?”

**EXPECTED OUTCOMES**

1. Summary of language learners’ individual characteristics and relevance to CLIL
2. Glossary of key terms
1. Initial activity

Say whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

1. Not everybody can learn a second language.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

2. Girls are better second language learners than boys.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

3. Intelligent students do better at foreign languages than not so able students.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

4. Learning a second language at a very young age may have damaging effects on the child.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

5. The learner’s socio-economic background is an important factor in second language acquisition.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

6. Bilinguals are better at learning languages than monolinguals.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

7. Positive attitudes towards the speakers of the second language help acquisition.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

8. Learning a third language is easier than learning a second language.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

9. Foreign language instructed learning has many advantages over naturalistic acquisition.
   AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

10. Some nationals are better language learners than others.
    AGREE....... DISAGREE....... 

2. What is the role of learners’ individual characteristics?

In this section we are going to consider the characteristics of learners and the relationships that hold between them and language acquisition, in particular in the context of a CLIL programme.

There exists a large consensus in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) that no matter whether second language learning occurs in a naturalistic or an instructed situation, the processes learners go through are essentially the same. However, there is no consensus as to the biological basis for this assumed universality. Theoreticians and researchers in the formal linguistics perspective tend to favour the position that human beings are innately endowed with a Universal Grammar and language-specific procedures. More cognitively-oriented workers defend the existence of general cognitive principles which apply to all areas of learning.

However, even if the route is essentially the same, the rate of acquisition of the target language may differ quite a lot. In some cases, learners’ achievement is quite high, but in most cases learners stop short of the competent bilingual model. Ultimate level of attainment seems to be affected by many different individual factors, of a cognitive, affective or social type. Furthermore, individual characteristics of school learners are to be taken into account when designing and implementing language curricula that are learner-centred and learner-oriented.

Among the cognitive variables, the most widely researched have been: intelligence, language aptitude, and learning strategies. The most important affective factors seem to be motivation and
attitudes towards the target language. Social factors, such as ethnicity, social class, and gender, have received attention from a more sociolinguistic perspective. Finally, other factors may be considered both from a cognitive and an affective perspective, as well as from a sociolinguistic standpoint, mainly age and the effect of previous linguistic knowledge and experience on the acquisition of an additional language. In what follows we will briefly focus on two individual characteristics that are relevant for SLA, motivation and age.

**Motivation** in CLIL programmes is particularly relevant, for it must provide both the initial impetus for beginning a process which may at first be seen as hard, and later also the sustaining force for the continuing effort required from the students. Two main types of effort, of a cognitive and an affective nature, can be distinguished in a CLIL situation, corresponding to each one of the two aspects that are integrated: content and language. First, students must cognitively strive to use a language which they don’t fully master, as a medium to attain the academic knowledge that is necessary to succeed in a school content-matter subject. Second, since a language belongs to a person’s whole social being, L2 learners must accept some alteration in self-image, which may be seen as a threat to the individual’s identity.

Among the factors that recent studies have emphasised, three are of motivational importance for the CLIL teacher. The first one, an **integrative orientation** towards the target language group, that is a desire to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it. Second, pedagogical factors, such as the effects of classroom environment, instructional techniques, and the **attitudes** towards the language teacher and course. And third, the students’ linguistic self-confidence, that is their belief to have the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently, and in the case of an L2 to do all this with low levels of anxiety as well.

Two main considerations are relevant for foreign language students’ **age**: first, the moment at which instruction starts, and second, the actual age of the students for which CLIL syllabi are targeted. In many European countries, foreign language teaching starts earlier these days, often in primary education, and sometimes even in the pre-school period. This trend towards an earlier introduction has been, no doubt, influenced by research results that have shown that in naturalistic situations the younger the learners the more likely they are to achieve native speaker or near native speaker levels. This has been taken by some as confirmation that there exists a **critical period** for language acquisition, or, more recently, **maturational constraints** on language acquisition. These studies have also shown, however, that older children and adolescents are more efficient learners during the first stages of language acquisition, that is, that they learn quicker.

The effects of age on instructed foreign language acquisition may, however, not be the same as on naturalistic language acquisition. For one thing, the amount and quality of the input is very different, and this has a direct consequence on the period of time the younger learners will need before they surpass the older students. While more research results specific to instructed situations are needed, preliminary evaluations in Europe have concluded that “…an early start does not automatically confer major advantages”, and that for advantages to accrue, “the early start factor needs to be accompanied by other factors such as ‘quality of teaching’ and ‘time for learning’.” (Blondin et al., 1998)

The advantages of CLIL programmes are clear in this respect, since they automatically provide more time for learning, while more and more efforts are being invested for securing the quality of content and language integrated teaching. The effects of CLIL on different age groups can be enhanced if consideration is taken of their distinctive characteristics. To begin with, younger children seem to benefit most from more communicatively oriented teaching, in which listening comprehension and pronunciation skills are particularly developed. Older students will profit most from more explicit attention to form, which can take place within the language class, while opportunities for massive meaningful input and output are guaranteed through the classes where content and language are integrated.
3. Tasks on the text

1. Look for definitions and explanations of the bold-faced terms in the Introductory text. Then write definitions for them using your own words, and look for at least one synonymous expression, as in the examples provided below:
   - **naturalistic (learning) situation**: learning a second language through immersion in a community that speaks the target language.
     Syn.: Informal acquisition.
   - **instructed (learning) situation**: learning a second language in a school context.
     Syn.: Formal acquisition.

2. Discuss the relevance to CLIL programmes of the different individual factors mentioned in the Introductory text.

3. Complete the list below with at least two more factors that seem important for motivating students in CLIL programmes, and discuss their respective importance.
   - Learning the basic vocabulary of the content-matter very soon, so that students may consider the task of learning subject-matter through the medium of the L2 feasible.
   - Planning activities to improve their linguistic self-confidence, or self-efficacy at individual tasks.
   - Using materials that have been elaborated in the target language country, so that they contain cultural-specific characteristics.

4. Read and discuss the following quote. Do you agree? Why?

   There is no question that learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person’s whole social being: it is part of one’s identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people. The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner. (Williams 1994:77)

5. The presentation of Motivation in the text owes a lot to Dörnyei’s definition (1998:117): “Motivation is seen as providing the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2, and later the driving force to sustain the learning process.” Look for two other definitions of Motivation. Contrast the three and come up with your own.

6. Answer this questionnaire on the basis of your own experience as a teacher of students of different ages, or, alternatively, make sure the different members of your group have had experience with students of different ages. Use the following scale: 4: Absolutely agree; 3: Agree; 2: Disagree; 1: Absolutely disagree.

   - Younger children are more self-confident learners than older children.
   - Teaching content through the foreign language to 14-16 year-old students is easier than to 12-14 year-old students.
   - Older children learn faster than younger children.
   - Elementary school children enjoy communicative activities more than secondary school children.
   - Elementary school children are highly motivated towards foreign language learning.
7. Krashen (1982) suggests that the older learners’ superiority in rate is accounted for by their superior cognitive skills, whereas younger learners’ superiority in the end is the result of greater and longer lasting motivation and a lower affective filter. Do you agree? Why?

8. Group discussion: Let’s practice our arithmetic!
   a. Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1981) found that 12 months were necessary in a naturalistic situation for their younger English learners of Dutch to catch up with the older learners. Let’s suppose that children in such a situation are exposed to the language for an average of 10 hours per day, on week days, and some 2 hours each week-end day. Now consider what the equivalent period of time in your country’s school system is. Or, which is the same, how many years do children take in instructed foreign language situations to be exposed to the same amount of input?
   b. Now, estimate the period of time needed in a CLIL situation, in which one, two, or three subjects are taught in the foreign language.
   c. Discuss the implications, for both efficiency of learning and potential age advantages.

### 4. Readings

   Read the chapter and write a comment on each characteristic and its relevance to CLIL.


**OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITY**

The following questions refer to Reading 2 and follow the same linear order of topic presentation. Answer them individually as a preparation for discussion in class.

1. Why wasn’t the performance in French of the early immersion students significantly better than that of the late immersion students?
2. What is CALP?
3. What is BICS?
4. Do older learners need to develop L2 CALP?
5. Is the role of the bilingual programme in a majority language situation different from that in a minority language situation?
6. What is expected from early immersion students in terms of BICS?
7. Do you think that all so-called bilingual programmes aim at promoting high levels of proficiency in two languages?
8. What is the author’s suggestion for the majority child?
9. What is the author’s suggestion for the minority child?
10. Compare and contrast the situations depicted in the article with your own situation/a situation with CLIL programmes.
Unit 6

Successful CLIL Programmes 4 hours

OBJECTIVES
1. To reflect on the ingredients of successful CLIL programmes
2. To discuss how to implement a successful CLIL programme in each participant’s context

PROCEDURES
1. Initial activities (brainstorming, warming-up activities), initial evaluation tasks
2. Introductory text and individual reading of recommended articles
3. Tasks on the texts for language teachers and subject-content teachers
4. Assessment (optional)

WORKING MATERIALS
1. “What are the characteristics of successful CLIL programmes?”

EXPECTED OUTCOMES
To be able to discuss some of the characteristics successful CLIL experiences seem to share
1. Initial activities

Initial Evaluation Task 1
Strongly agree........................................ Strongly disagree

1. School should offer children from different language backgrounds, classes or some help in their mother tongue
2. Schools should teach some content subject areas in students’ L1 at early stages
3. Children’s mother tongues should be kept
4. Language instruction which has as its goal functional ability in the new language should give greater emphasis to activities which lead to language acquisition than to activities which lead to formal learning

Initial Evaluation Task 2
1. Situation I. Imagine that a couple, friends of yours, intermediate foreign language speakers of English are planning to move to the United States/ Germany / Italy / France / Finland / Spain for more than twenty years. They are about to have children and ask you for some advice on the type of school you would recommend to take their future children.
2. Situation II. Describe your feelings about the need/right of children to keep their mother tongue when moving to a different linguistic community.

In pairs or small groups answer the following questions.
1. What is language teachers’ and subject-matter teachers’ profile like in your community?
2. Are there any CLIL-specific training courses currently going on in your country?
3. How stable are teaching staff in state as well as privately funded schools?
4. How often do most schools meet during the course?
5. If you are aware of a CLIL programme going on in your country which type of schools does it involve, state-run or private?
6. How is the state, council and school language policy guaranteed in your country?
7. In your institutions, do all parties (parents, teaching staff, school board co-ordinators and education authorities) usually jointly work together hand in hand?
8. How easy is it for teachers to find already-made suitable CLIL materials for students? How many chances are teachers given to adapt materials to implement CLIL experiences?
9. Do most pre-service courses involve any CLIL at all?
10. How familiar are teachers with theoretical foundations of CLIL?

2. What are the characteristics of successful CLIL programmes?

Content and Language Integrated Learning programmes, CLIL programmes, have a long tradition both in Europe and America. In the latter they usually involve Bilingual and Immersion programmes designed to teach both a second language as well as academic content whereas in Europe they aim at teaching a second or a foreign language as well as subject-matter content. Most of these CLIL programmes intend to help learners to achieve a high command of the target language whether they are language minority learners (LML) also referred to as limited English proficiency (LEP) or English as a foreign language (EFL) learners.
Second language acquisition research has shown that the level of proficiency in the first language has a direct influence on the development of proficiency in the second language. The lack of continuing first language development has been found, in some cases, to inhibit the levels of second language proficiency and cognitive academic growth.

The underlying assumptions based on empirical and theoretical research of these CLIL programmes are: on the one hand, the knowledge learners get through their first language helps make the English they hear and read more comprehensible, on the other hand, literacy developed in the primary language transfers to the second. Many researchers agree that comprehensible input is a necessary condition in order for successful language learning to occur while a few claim that it is not only a necessary but a sufficient condition. Moreover, learners can learn challenging content in language arts while they are learning the target language.

Furthermore, Muñoz and Nussbaum (1997), among others, suggest using content-based programmes as one way of providing extra exposure to the target language in foreign language settings in particular, as one way of compensating the so limited exposure to the target language learners get from traditional foreign language instruction.

There are four reasons for the integration of language and content. Firstly, language is acquired most effectively when it is learned for communication in meaningful and significant social situations. Secondly, the integration of content and second language instruction provides substantive basis and exposure for language learning. Thirdly language acquisition naturally goes hand in hand with cognitive development. Finally, knowing how to use language in one context does not necessarily mean knowing how to use it in another. The integration of second language instruction with content instruction respects the specificity of functional language use.

Although the majority of CLIL programmes, whether Bilingual Education (BE) or Immersion (IM), share basic characteristics, they display two major differences as to the language of initial instruction and also as to whether the learners are unilingual or multilingual. BE – whether Transitional BE or Two-Way BE – provides instruction in learners’ mother tongue while most if not all initial instruction in IM is in L2. Secondly, in immersion programmes all learners are initially unilingual in L1 whereas in BE native speakers of the target language are mixed with LML. Successful CLIL Programmes (SCLILP) display eight basic characteristics:

1. SCLILP not only acknowledge and support learners’ home language and culture by allowing learners to use their L1 at early stages but also provide some academic instruction in learners’ L1. Language arts (reading, writing...) are introduced in L1 and at different stages. Content subject matters are taught in L1 as well
2. Most teachers are bilingual although in IM programmes they only speak in the target language while showing understanding of learners’ L1 by responding appropriately and rephrasing learners’ remarks made in their L1. Learners are requested to use L2 only from primary school
3. Target language instruction is not structured or of a pull-out nature but rather contextualized, integrated. Sheltered in BE programmes
4. SCLILP are optional, not imposed
5. Parental involvement is pivotal in any SCLILP
6. SCLILP require the joint effort of all parties involved: educational authorities, parents and teachers at both district and school level are actively involved in planning the policy to implement such programmes and the means by which they are sustained. One of the key factors to the success of these programmes is longevity which includes not only the continuity of the programme but also the stability of teaching teams. Also the presence of the programme across the entire school curriculum is guaranteed when all educational authorities support the programme
7. Teacher training must be tailored to meet the specific needs of CLIL instruction which involve as well as teaching strategies (see last feature) curriculum development and reform
8. Finally all SCLILP show a wide variety of teaching strategies:
a) Teachers exhibit active teaching behaviours such as giving instructions clearly, accurately describing tasks, maintaining learners’ engagement in instructional tasks by maintaining task focus, pacing instruction appropriately, and communicating their expectations for students’ success.

b) In presenting new information teachers use appropriate strategies such as demonstrating, outlining, using visuals, building redundancy, rephrasing, scaffolding, linking new information to learners’ previous knowledge, etc., to make input comprehensible and context-embedded.

c) Teachers monitor students’ progress and provide immediate feedback whenever required. They check comprehension constantly resulting in high levels of communication between teachers and learners and among learners themselves.

d) Effective instruction is aided by allowing learners to respond in a wide variety of ways: from verbal responses both in L1 and L2 to non-verbal responses (responding by doing) in early stages but are gradually expected to respond only in the TL once they show enough command of the TL. At the early stages, emphasis is on the development of receptive skills.

e) Consistent integration of cognitively demanding academic content and the TL.

f) Teachers respond to and use information from their students’ home cultures, using cultural references, organising instruction to build upon participant structures from students’ home culture and observing the values and norms of students’ home culture.

g) Task work includes: hands-on tasks, experiential learning tasks, problem solving tasks, etc.

h) Cognitive abilities and processes such as identifying, comparing, drawing conclusions, finding similarities and differences, etc., are integrated in the design of the programme.

i) Collaborative learning, autonomous learning and self-directed learning are also suggested by some CLIL specialists.

j) Teachers have high expectations about learners’ performance and degree of academic achievement.

### 3. Reading and tasks on the text

1. After having read Navés, T and Muñoz, C. (1999) ‘Conclusions’ complete the grid below. In your opinion, which is the ideal description for the 10 items being mentioned in their conclusion?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
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<th>9.</th>
<th>10.</th>
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2. Read the following extract about immersion programmes and decide why there are so many similarities between them.
WHAT ARE THE KEYS TO SUCCESSFUL IMMERSION PROGRAMS?

Successful immersion programs are characterized by: (1) administrative support; (2) community and parental support; (3) qualified teachers; (4) appropriate materials in the foreign language; (5) time for teachers to prepare instructional materials in the language; (6) and ongoing staff development.

(Source: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics Washington DC. Foreign Language Immersion Programs. ERIC Digest.)

3. This is an excerpt from Krashen's (1991) article. Read the article again and then compare Krashen’s conclusions with the ones presented in the tutorial.

Recent research shows that when bilingual programs are set up correctly, they work very well. In our survey of successful programs in California (Krashen and Biber, 1988), we found that students in well-designed bilingual programs consistently outperformed comparison students, and did very well compared to local and national norms, often reaching national norms between grades three to six. According to the view of language acquisition presented earlier in this paper, we defined a “well-designed” program as one that had the following characteristics:

1. Comprehensible input in English, in the form of high quality English second language classes, and sheltered subject matter teaching (comprehensible subject matter teaching in the second language).
2. Subject matter teaching in the first language, without translation. This provides background knowledge that will make English input more comprehensible.
3. Literacy development in the first language, which will transfer to the second language.

4. Discuss the following statements. What do they have in common? Do the authors agree?

A second language is most successfully acquired when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than form, when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner, and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment.

Content-based ESL has been used for many years in adult, professional, and university education programs for foreign students but is now emerging at the elementary and secondary school levels. The approach is effective because language acquisition using this instructional approach, is stimulated by input that is meaningful and understandable to the learner. Such courses offer instruction in the special language of the subject matter while focusing on the subject matter itself. Reilly, T. (1988).

The authors take the position that students with limited English proficiency, or as they refer to them, potentially English proficient students, will learn more when the focus of language instruction is shifted away from teaching the language directly, to a situation in which students acquire language naturally, through lively exchanges with other students. The key to these exchanges is content area instruction in English. Lim, H. L., & Watson, D. J.(1993)
5. Read the following text and discuss how CLIL can facilitate the acquisition of academic language.

Individuals develop two types of language proficiency, basic interpersonal language skills (social language) and cognitive academic language proficiency (academic language) which vary according to the degree of context available to the individual and the degree of cognitive challenge of the task. While social language is usually highly contextualized, informal, and cognitively less demanding, academic language is less contextualized, more formal, abstract and cognitively demanding. Students can acquire social language relatively easily but academic language can take much longer.

6. Read the following book review and discuss the extent to which it seems to support some of the summarised research findings regarding successful CLIL experiences.


This book explains and emphasizes the need for a whole language approach to learning, especially for second language learners. Each chapter of the book counters a commonplace assumption about language acquisition with a basic principle of whole language: that learning needs to begin with a bigger picture, followed by more specific details; instruction needs to be centered around the learner, not the teacher; lessons need to be immediately meaningful and relevant to the student; group learning is most effective; written and oral language skills are acquired simultaneously; native languages should be used in second language acquisition; and the learning potential of bilingual speakers is not limited. The authors use examples of successful whole language approaches to illustrate their points. They also include sample lesson plans and practical helpful ideas for teachers of second language students.

7. Numrich focuses on five strategies to improve the comprehension of content in CLIL. Read the summary and discuss why they might be worth considering.


Five classroom strategies for improving the comprehension of the content areas by ESL students are described. The strategies strengthen students’ ability to process aural input rather than production. The strategies can help students learn English and also prepare them for higher-level thinking skills in the subject areas. The five strategies focus on such skills as (1) predicting on the basis of prior knowledge, (2) anticipating what will be read next, (3) using statements to check comprehension of a text during reading, (4) analyzing text organization by looking for specific patterns, and (5) classifying to facilitate comprehension of similarities and differences.

8. ERIC is the most extensively used database for education. It also contains digests and full-text articles.

Go to ERIC Digests http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ and run a search to find articles on successful bilingual /content-based /immersion /CLIL programmes. Choose a digest to report to the rest of the class. How many results were found? What were your key words in your search? Compare your results with your partner’s.
9. Read the following short report on a CLIL experience carried out in Metropolitan Barcelona and give some pieces of advice to the co-ordinator of the project in order to make it more effective and successful.

What problems might the teachers encounter? Why? Suggest other possible solutions.

In 1994 a group of foreign language teachers and teacher trainers were given the opportunity to implement a three-year CLIL experience for four state secondary schools in metropolitan Barcelona. It was funded by the Regional Educational Authorities and consisted in developing an experimental optional CLIL course of 30 hours which integrated both Science and English. Materials were specifically designed to meet the needs of the project by a joint team of EFL advisors and Science advisors and revised and evaluated afterwards by the teachers teaching the course. Specific teacher training was provided prior to carrying out the experience. The practitioners were experienced teachers that volunteered for the job. Team-teaching was chosen since foreign language teachers who could be regarded as native-like had nevertheless no previous training in Science on the one hand, and Science teachers, on the other, were not proficient enough in the foreign language. CLIL classes would have both teachers, the science teacher and the foreign language teacher working together. Most of the instructions, task description, communicating expectations, and information were given by the foreign language teacher. The science teachers would be mostly guiding and monitoring the tasks although they also contributed by answering questions in the target language. This project was of a short-term nature and was not integrated within the whole curriculum. It was not a long-term CLIL program from kindergarten to secondary school. By the time our CLIL project was implemented, 14 year-old learners were already literate and had already had approximately 400 hours of formal EFL instruction some of which could be best described as structured, and since our CLIL course was optional no full CLIL programme was ever offered. Another major difference between our CLIL experience and mainstream CLIL programmes is team-teaching. As in other CLIL experiences in European foreign language settings portrayed in Marsh (1998), content-subject teachers, science instructors in our project, were non-native speakers of English. Foreign language teachers were, on the other hand, fluent speakers of English who could be regarded as bilingual teachers to a given extent. Although the literature emphasises the need for co-ordination between teachers, no team-teaching of this sort has been reported in the literature to the best of our knowledge.
Bibliography

Quotations


Marsh, D., Teaching with Foreign Languages, (Video), University of Jyväskylä, Continuing Education Centre, 1998.


Silcox, P. and Anstrom, “Project SUCCESS: Glendale’s title VII Systemwide Improvement Project”, in NCBE Cross Currents, Volume 1, No 4, Fall 1997.


**Suggested Reading**


Bishop, A. (compiled by), Current Research In Bilingual Education. Available at http://www.cal.org/ericcll/minibibs/Bilingual.html


**Suggested Web Sites**

AICLE-CLIL Web site from the University of Barcelona at http://www.ub.es/filoan/CLIL.html

Bilingual Education Resources Web at http://www.ecsu.ctstateu.edu/depts/edu/textbooks/bilingual.html

EUROCLIL at http://www.euroclil.net/

Milano Conference on CLIL and Technology at http://lada.fil.ub.es/Angles/Milano/

The California Association for Bilingual Education at http://www.bilingualeducation.org/

The Euroclil Bulletin at http://www.euroclil.net/english/english.htm

The European TIE-CLIL Lingua A Project at http://www.tieclil.org

The National Association for Bilingual Education at http://www.nabe.org/

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education (NCBE) at http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/