Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education

Edited by

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Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-Primary Education

This edited volume brings together the experiences and knowledge gained through the PROCLIL programme. PROCLIL was co-funded by the European Commission (Comenius fund) and focused on the implementation of CLIL in Primary and Pre-primary education. For more information on the programme, visit http://www.proclil.org

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1. Introduction

“Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education” is the outcome of knowledge and experiences gained by the PROCLIL team over three years (2006-2009) of implementing and researching CLIL in four different European countries.

The decision to write this book and put experiences and knowledge gained on paper, was motivated mainly by the limited literature available to teachers and programme coordinators which existed at the onset of PROCLIL. The existing literature has been enriched in the last three years, yet is still not sufficient to adequately support the implementation of CLIL in primary and pre-primary education. Indeed, even within the body of CLIL literature available, there is a great disparity between CLIL literature available for primary and pre-primary educational levels and CLIL literature for secondary or tertiary levels. This book is hoped to support teachers and programme coordinators endeavouring to create, grow and sustain CLIL programmes in pre-primary and primary education.

PROCLIL is a programme which exclusively focused on CLIL in primary and pre-primary and it was felt that the results of the systematic research and documentation of CLIL which took place during the programme would be beneficial to others in the field, whether they are experienced CLIL teachers or new in this endeavour.

This introduction to “Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education” will concisely present CLIL and the PROCLIL programme and proceed to give the reader an overall idea of the contents by briefly presenting each chapter.
2. CLIL

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is the most common term used in the European setting to describe the approach to teaching a curriculum subject through a foreign language, with the dual focus of acquiring more subject knowledge and improving one’s skills and competences in the foreign language.

This methodological approach to teaching is not something new in Europe. It has been practiced in many European schools for decades. Originally, such an approach was employed in bilingual or border areas. Today, it has spread in most European countries and constitutes a promising and effective tool in the promotion of multilingualism in Europe. In the 2006 EURYDICE publication “Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at school in Europe” one can see that most European countries have initiated CLIL-based programmes.

Indeed, CLIL has a great deal of potential. The benefits of the approach do not limit themselves to the improvement of language skills and subject knowledge. CLIL also offers the opportunity for learners to develop their intercultural knowledge and understanding as well as their intercultural communication skills. Moreover, inherent in CLIL there is a support and promotion of more general and comprehensive dimension to learning. The approach promotes the development of diverse learning strategies, the application of innovative teaching methods and techniques and the increase of learner motivation.

It is because of the above aspects of CLIL and the very practical opportunities it offers for enhancing language learning and intercultural development while not requiring additional timetable periods, that the world of language learning and education as well as society in general attribute so much potential to CLIL. It is, therefore, neither an approach that belongs to language learning nor one that belongs to subject teaching. It is a unique approach which develops when the two teaching methodologies are merged.
Currently CLIL is fast increasing in popularity and is being implemented in a variety of contexts both in Europe and internationally. It is, therefore, often adapted as an approach in order to fit various contexts and philosophies. As a result, there are numerous models of implementation which are included under the “umbrella term” of CLIL. This, however, means that CLIL is being defined as flexibly or as narrowly as a context requires it. This ‘stretching’ of the term can cause problems, misunderstandings and miscommunications. It is, therefore, important for the term to be defined more carefully and, as long as it is still used as an umbrella term, each context needs to specifically define its own interpretation of CLIL.

3. PROCLIL

PROCLIL was funded by the European Commission (Comenius fund) for a three year period (2006-2009). The partners involved were the University of Cyprus (coordinator), the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute, Weingarten University of Education in Germany, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid in Spain, Cukurova University in Turkey and Bristol University in the UK.

The objectives of the programme were to investigate various CLIL implementation models, identify problems in CLIL implementation and suggest solutions, identify good practice in CLIL and develop appropriate teaching materials. It also aimed to investigate student, teacher, parent and administrator perceptions and attitudes towards CLIL. Moreover, it aimed to develop an in-service CLIL course for primary and pre-primary teachers.

PROCLIL fulfilled its objectives and experimented with various models of CLIL in primary and pre-primary schools in the partner countries. The CLIL programmes which ran under PROCLIL were systematically evaluated through classroom observations and materials analysis as well as stakeholder interviews and surveys. Based on the data collected, good practices were distilled and a database of teaching materials was created. Finally, courses for initial and pre-service teacher training in CLIL were organised.
In order to share results, experiences and ideas, PROCLIL partners needed to establish a shared perspective of CLIL to work with. It was, therefore, essential that the ‘umbrella term’ was narrowed down and became more specific. To this effort, PROCLIL adopted the definition first coined for CLIL by Marsh in 1994.

“CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focussed aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.”

(Marsh, 1994)

Once the initial working definition of CLIL had been established, the next step was to agree on a model of CLIL. Nevertheless, working with CLIL in largely different contexts created difficulties which led to the need for further clarification of the above definition in a manner which would make it specific enough to ensure certain basic aspects were retained and applied by all, while also keeping the definition flexible enough to allow its implementation in greatly varying contexts.

In order to arrive at the selected model, the PROCLIL team studied various existing models and took into account the unique characteristics of their local settings while making sure the model would remain within the spirit of the original definition of CLIL as the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.

In the end, the model adopted is one which promotes the balanced teaching and learning of both content and foreign language. It draws its pedagogical approach from the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach as well as the methodologies adopted by each subject content, whereas the overall approach to learning and teaching adopts Coyle’s 4 Cs model (2000); a model which integrates content, cognition, communication and culture in a way that all of these aspects contribute equally to the learning process. Finally, the CLIL model adopted by PROCLIL and illustrated in this book is one where the learner - and her affective, language and learning needs - remains the central focus at all times.

The CLIL model adopted by PROCLIL is presented in more detail by Richard Kiely in Chapter 2 and is also illustrated clearly throughout the book as the various
techniques presented in the book and the overall guidelines recommended reflect the basic principles of the PROCLIL model.

4. “Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education”

The work of the PROCLIL partners, their experiences gained from the implementation of CLIL as well as the results of systematic research which included classroom observations and materials analysis in addition to interviews and surveys with a range of stakeholders are reflected in the guidelines and techniques recommended in the pages of “Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education”.

PROCLIL partners and the authors contributing to this volume have worked in various contexts and bring together experiences of established and new CLIL programmes in four different European countries. Furthermore, the contents of this book touch on crucial issues in CLIL such as assessment, teaching materials and the very sensitive stages of transition from an L1 educational programme to a CLIL programme. It is, therefore, hoped that it will make a significant contribution in the area of CLIL and offer support to teachers and CLIL programme coordinators of primary and pre-primary education.

“Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-primary Education” consists of eight chapters. The first two chapters discuss the theoretical background of CLIL, thus presenting the theoretical assumptions which are adopted by PROCLIL and by this volume’s contributing authors in general. Chapter 1 by Maria Dolores Ramirez Verdugo discusses the varieties of CLIL which can be found across Europe and establishes the characteristics which distinguish CLIL from other approaches that have focused on language and content. Ramirez Verdugo differentiates CLIL by giving a clear picture of the distinct characteristics, the core principles or dimensions, that should define CLIL regardless of the model implemented. The chapter also describes some of the most common CLIL varieties found across Europe at pre-primary and primary levels.
In Chapter 2, Richard Kiely, continues the exploration of CLIL by discussing its history and background. Kiely presents policy issues which have led to the development of CLIL. He explains the potential benefits CLIL can offer as well as the challenges which may arise during its implementation. Chapter 2 also discusses the theoretical framework on which CLIL is based as regards its foreign language teaching component. In particular, the pedagogical roots of CLIL are traced in Communicative Language Teaching methodology, the Content, Cognition, Communication, Culture (4 Cs) framework (Coyle 2000; 2007) and the distinction between Bilingual Interactional Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins 1987; 2000). Finally, the chapter clearly and succinctly presents the CLIL model adopted by the PROCLIL team.

The rest of the Chapters (Chapters 3 – 8) deal with more practical issues pertaining to CLIL implementation. Ioannou-Georgiou in Chapter 3 aims to fill a gap in the existing CLIL literature as regards the steps which need to be taken in order to ensure a smooth and successful transition period into CLIL. The chapter is aimed to help those new to CLIL, who are either beginning or contemplating the implementation of CLIL in their contexts. Ioannou-Georgiou presents guidelines for teachers who are beginning CLIL and offers advice as to how they can get support from technology or by joining or creating teacher support groups. The chapter also offers suggestions as to how to involve colleagues and parents. Finally guidelines are presented for the smooth transition of students into the new learning and teaching approach of CLIL. The chapter focuses on the gradual increase of L2 use and the creation and maintenance of a supportive learning atmosphere by catering to the students’ affective, learning and language needs.

Chapter 4 engages in a discussion over the complex issue of L1 use in CLIL. Kiely maintains that the CLIL classroom is a classroom of two languages - L1 and L2 -and the challenge for the teacher is to manage the roles they play. The chapter explores the ways teachers make decisions about L1 and L2 use and offers a set of principles which teachers may draw on to inform their decisions in planning and teaching in CLIL classrooms.
Chapter 5 focuses on identifying a range of good practices that were identified in classroom observations of PROCLIL teachers. The guidelines and techniques presented in this chapter were found to assist CLIL teachers in responding effectively to the increased demands of having to teach both content and language. Massler, Ioannou-Georgiou and Steiert identify successful classroom practice that supports the students’ cognitive, linguistic and affective needs when learning through a second or foreign language. In particular, this chapter looks into techniques for verbal scaffolding (ways and methods to make the teacher’s input comprehensible for the students), content scaffolding (techniques to assist and support students’ understanding of the content), and learning process scaffolding (techniques which assist CLIL teachers in supporting students’ working process as well as their learning process).

Chapter 6 touches on an issue frequently mentioned by teachers as one of the main obstacles in CLIL implementation: the lack of teaching materials. Steiert and Massler start out with an overview of currently available CLIL teaching materials for the primary and pre-primary classroom. They then present guidelines for developing and/or evaluating and adapting CLIL teaching materials that draw both on EFL and subject content methodologies. The recommended guidelines are illustrated with examples of good practice from materials developed or adapted by PROCLIL teachers.

Assessment is another area which often poses difficulties for CLIL teachers. Massler in Chapter 7 focuses on this area and contributes to the methodological discussion on assessment in CLIL. Massler works within the model of CLIL teaching which has been adopted by PROCLIL (balanced dual learning) to theoretically and practically exemplify ways of assessing CLIL learning outcomes with regard to both language and content.

Finally, in Chapter 8 Ioannou-Georgiou and Ramirez Verdugo focus on stories as a valuable tool for teaching and learning in CLIL. The authors argue that stories provide access not only to language and content but also to culture and cognition. The chapter first presents a general framework for the use of stories in CLIL exploring their main characteristics, dimension and potentiality in the classroom. The authors then present
guidelines regarding the effective implementation of stories in pre-primary and primary education CLIL programmes and illustrate them with examples of stories, activities and tasks used in PROCLIL.

**Concluding Remarks**

Overall this is a book which aims to be a useful tool for teachers and programme coordinators of CLIL programmes in primary and pre-primary education. Interest in CLIL in these educational levels is on the rise but there is inadequate literature to support the practitioner. This book aims to decrease the gap in the present literature. It provides both: theoretical grounding as well as practical guidelines and recommendations for CLIL implementation in primary and pre-primary. Most importantly, the recommendations and guidelines provided in this book stem from hands-on involvement in CLIL implementations and experiences gained in a variety of educational settings and contexts which vary in their CLIL experience. It is, therefore, hoped that the contents of this book will resonate with teachers and programme coordinators who are interested in moving beyond the theoretical aspects of CLIL literature and into the practical application of this promising approach.

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References


Chapter 1:
CLIL Varieties across Europe

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1. Introduction

CLIL practice across Europe is highly rich and diverse with varieties in implementation depending on national, regional and local characteristics and education policies. In order to draw a clear picture of the pedagogical framework CLIL entails, this chapter refers first to the distinct characteristics of CLIL in relation to earlier approaches which also focus on language and content. Once the distinction has been established, the second part of the chapter expands on the defining characteristics involved in the concept of CLIL. The third part is devoted to presenting some of the most common CLIL varieties found across Europe at pre-primary and primary levels. Finally, given such diversity, the chapter concludes by referring to core principles or dimensions any CLIL programme should include no matter which variety it takes.

2. CLIL versus Previous Approaches

CLIL is commonly referred to as an umbrella term which embodies ‘any dual-focussed educational context in which an additional language, thus not usually the first foreign language of the learners involved, is used as a medium in the teaching and learning of non-language content’ Marsh (2002: 15). This broad definition reveals the essence of CLIL and helps differentiate CLIL from previous educational approaches such as Canadian immersion programmes or US’s content-based language teaching (CBT) in several distinct ways. Even though all of these approaches involve content and language, in Canada all subjects are taught in a second language (French,
one of the official languages of the country) without the presence of explicit second language teaching. In the US, content-based or theme-based instruction is used as a means of promoting second language learning with students of limited English proficiency, primarily immigrants. Content-based instruction becomes a bridge into mainstream education and the use of the main community language. CLIL, on the other hand, aims at promoting multilingualism among Europeans who are recommended to be able to speak two languages apart from their mother tongue (MT+2, Eurydice 2006: 8). CLIL as a pedagogical concept involves using one or more foreign languages as the vehicle to teach certain subjects within the curriculum (cf. Wolff, 2007).

3. CLIL Defining Features

One of the essential features of CLIL involves the principle of being based on an integrated approach where language learning is included in content classes such as science, history or geography. Hence, while the target language is used to facilitate content understanding, students are also developing their use of the foreign language. At the same time, within this CLIL dual-focussed perspective, content from subjects may be also explored in language lessons focusing, for instance, on vocabulary, text types, subject specific discourse, etc. In this way, students understanding of content areas are enhanced as they experience lessons focussed on language development. In a global CLIL model ‘both language and content are conceptualised on a continuum without an implied preference for either’ (Coyle 2007: 543). The direction practitioners take along that CLIL continuum will determine the specific CLIL model or variety applied in a particular instructional context. The CLIL model in practice will also depend on factors such as children’s age, level, schedule, context of instruction, teachers’ training and expertise on CLIL, language command, etc.

A second defining feature is the recognition that CLIL has its origin in European contexts where socio-linguistic and political settings are widely heterogeneous. In fact, CLIL relates to any language, age and educational level from pre-primary, primary, secondary, higher to vocational and professional learning. In this sense,
CLIL responds to the EU lifelong learning programme proposal for all citizens where multilingualism and multiculturalism is thought to promote integration, understanding and mobility among Europeans. The subjects and content taught within a CLIL approach are also diverse and, once again, there exists important divergence among EU regions and countries. Subjects such as science, arts and craft, music, physical education, geography or home economics are only some among the wide range of CLIL content subjects taught at pre-primary and primary schools.

The third distinguishing characteristic of CLIL is that it is an approach which promotes the development of learning skills: social, cultural, cognitive, linguistic, academic, etc. The acquisition of these learning skills facilitates achievements in content and language as well (cf. Mehisto et al. 2008: 11-12).

4. Varieties in CLIL

The particular variety or CLIL model adopted will be determined by the existent conditions, the educational needs and the intended focus within the content-language continuum mentioned above. CLIL varieties, under the broad definition of CLIL as an umbrella term, may go from content-oriented to language-oriented varieties. CLIL varieties may include:

1. Different kinds of immersion, from partial to total, depending on the intensity of exposure and length of the teaching and learning experience, where some, most or all of subject content is taught through a target language.

2. Subject courses where curricular subjects apart from languages can be taught through the target language. These may include: citizenship, design and technology, environmental studies, etc.

3. CLIL language showers at pre-primary and early years of primary education where there is a regular, short, continuous exposure to CLIL usually in one subject area, delivered in the target language for 15 or 30 minutes several times a week.
4. Language classes based on thematic units with emphasis on content where the syllabus and lesson plans involve a topic-based approach including specific themes or content to be dealt with in the language lesson.

Figure 1 illustrates the diversity involved in this content-language continuum approach.

![Figure 1: CLIL content-language continuum approach](image)

Another likely classification of CLIL varieties is offered by Mehisto et al. (2008: 13). They include diverse instructional contexts, variation regarding intensity of exposure, degree of language-content orientation or specific learning objectives. More specifically, they refer to varieties of CLIL in situations such as a family stay, a student exchange or a camp where both specific content and a foreign language are integrated and used. Finding out and talking about the camp area’s natural environment would be an example of a CLIL camp. Developing local or international projects on a particular topic in the target language is also found under the CLIL umbrella. *Science across the World*, for example, is a web-based network which promotes international projects among learners of different countries to work on a range of science topics. CLIL immersion programmes may include a total early immersion, where the entire curriculum is taught in the foreign language, or partial immersion where part of the curriculum is delivered through the target language and part of it through the mother tongue. Double immersion programmes are programmes where two foreign languages and the mother tongue are used to teach the curriculum. A list of the most common varieties mentioned so far and which have been adapted here to pre-primary and primary education is included below. The list illustrates the
diversity found within CLIL and also attempts to draw a complete picture of CLIL varieties currently being used in Europe:

1. Language classes based on thematic units
2. CLIL Language showers
3. CLIL camps
4. Student exchanges
5. Local projects
6. International projects
7. Family stays
8. One or more subjects taught in the CLIL language
9. Partial Immersion
10. Total Immersion
11. Double Immersion

5. Core Elements Common to all CLIL Varieties

As we have seen, CLIL is a broad and flexible approach to content and language learning which responds to a very wide range of situational, contextual and educational needs and demands. That diversity may lead to a certain level of confusion since the term ‘CLIL’ does not currently give a clear definition and/or a common, clear point of reference. This can be a problematic when researchers, academics, teachers or policy makers are referring to CLIL considering the many different models and varieties of teaching approaches that can be regarded as belonging to the CLIL spectrum. It is important, therefore, for one to clarify the model being talked about (Johnstone 2009). In this sense, although there is a long list of varieties that the CLIL approach encompasses, there are core elements common to all varieties. The following five interrelated principles or dimensions reflect these core elements (cf. Marsh 2002).

1. CONTENT entails the progression in knowledge, skills and understanding related to specific elements of a defined curriculum. It provides opportunities to study content
through different perspectives, which can lead to achieving a deeper understanding of the subject. Using the target language through CLIL may help learners to understand the subject and its core terminology. This focus on content can prepare students for future studies and/or for their working life.

2. LANGUAGE. The focus is on using language to learn while learning to use language. A key factor in CLIL is an emphasis on communication and interaction, which improves overall target language competence and develops oral communication skills. In fact, this is one of the most common reasons, both historically and more recently, for the introduction and growing recognition of the benefits of CLIL. This focus stresses language competence in general and therefore includes reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. Target language competence may be improved to a very high level of fluency through high exposure to CLIL as well as other forms of language learning. This means that methods have to be used which lead to a high degree of interaction within the class.

CLIL can also promote in-depth awareness of both mother tongue and target language. This focus is often linked to showing inter-relationships which may exist between the first and additional language. Yet, it is worth bearing in mind that high exposure to L2 for very young learners should be highly sensitive to development of the first language. CLIL, hence, can help develop positive plurilingual interests and attitudes towards languages distinct from the mother tongue.

3. LEARNING entails development of thinking skills which link the formation of abstract and concrete concepts, language and understanding. CLIL implementation can offer application and delivery of diverse learning methods that can lead to new opportunities for implementing individual teaching and learning styles and strategies. In fact, CLIL provides alternative ways of approaching language learning, that can reduce student exclusion and may serve mainstream learners well. Even though CLIL favours diversity of methods and forms of classroom practice, a common feature of many CLIL methodologies is the synergy which results from the juxtaposition of the communication orientation of language learning, the interest in content, and the interaction which takes place within the classroom. The result promotes individual
learning strategies and interactive methodologies and leads to increased learner motivation, bringing additional benefits for learning.

4. CULTURE. The exposure to alternative perspectives and views helps build intercultural knowledge, awareness and understanding. CLIL can help develop intercultural communication skills as well as learning about other European countries, regions or minority groups. In primary schools, for example, where classes have children from several trans-migrant backgrounds, CLIL can be used to facilitate cultural and linguistic adaptation processes. This helps introduce children to a wider cultural context thus enhancing their participation in a European society.

5. TRANSNATIONAL ENVIRONMENT. CLIL prepares children for internationalization and for European integration since it facilitates access to global communication and international certification. This environment may also enhance the profile of the school implementing CLIL where the learner’s long-term interests may receive added attention than in more traditional educational systems or settings.

The above principles help define CLIL and its essential characteristics and should be present in any CLIL programme. The next step in defining a CLIL model is to establish its objectives and determine the level and balance of focus it will have on language and/or on content. The particular model adopted by PROCLIL is one where there is an effort made for a balance between language and content. The PROCLIL approach to CLIL will become more evident throughout this handbook and is presented in more detail in the following chapter.
References


Chapter 2:
CLIL – History and background

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1. Introduction

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is dual focussed instruction, referenced to two separate programmes of learning, typically the foreign language (FL) curriculum and a subject syllabus, such as science or geography. Such an integrated curriculum can include all school and classroom contexts where the main language of the lesson is not the first or dominant language of the children in the classroom. This broad definition has been discussed and clarified further in Chapter 1. This chapter will follow with a discussion on the deep and varied roots of Content and Language Integrated Instruction (CLIL).

In this chapter of the PROCLIL handbook, we describe four contexts of bilingual education which contribute to our understanding of the potential and challenges of CLIL. These contexts are part of the European ‘Language in Education’ story, and provide lessons on and insights into the challenges and strategies for policy-makers, teachers and pupils. Then we review three theoretical dimensions of CLIL, which provide a framework for understanding the nature of the language learning and teaching challenge in CLIL, and for developing context-appropriate solutions where CLIL is implemented.
2. Research and Policy perspectives

Theoretical understanding of CLIL draws on two bodies of research – first educational achievement in bilingual and multilingual settings, and second, foreign language learning achievements in instructed settings. The findings of the research are inevitably complex, but there is a measure of agreement on the following points:

- Educational achievement generally is better where instruction is in the first or stronger language of pupils;
- Educational achievement in a second or foreign language is successful where there is well-resourced attention to curriculum structuring and children’s development in two languages (L1 and L2).

Second and foreign language learning in school settings is likely to be more successful where there are positive attitudes towards the nations, peoples and cultures of the target language, where schools support early-start language learning; and where instruction is content-based, and supported by training for teachers, appropriate resources, and systematicity and continuity in the school system. These research findings indicate that education in a second or foreign language is a viable policy option, and CLIL as a curricular approach is an effective implementation strategy.

European Union education policy, concerned with promoting economic, social and cultural well-being throughout Europe, supports effective learning of two or more languages, and since 1995 has explicitly supported CLIL as a curricular approach which can achieve this. A 2005 press release notes:

This method (CLIL) can contribute to individual and collective prosperity and can strengthen social cohesion. The method thus presents a practical tool for promoting European citizenship while increasing student and worker mobility. A necessity for the promoters that are contributing to the introduction, development, coordination and extension of CLIL has been recognized, as well as the special training of teachers. The exchange of scientific data and good practices should also be encouraged at the European level.’

(Council of the European Union, Press Release May, 2005)
The policy and political leadership of the EU has led to the development of CLIL initiatives in many parts of Europe, at pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels. These initiatives, in addition to supporting good practice in schools and classrooms, provide training and research opportunities which can guide the effective implementation of CLIL for the future. PROCLIL, supported by the European Commission (Comenius Fund) and involving teams in five countries (Cyprus, Germany, Spain, Turkey and UK) is one such programme, focussing on implementing CLIL at pre-primary and primary levels.

The PROCLIL programme, with its focus on the implementation of CLIL, is mindful of both the general patterns and complex detail of the research findings, and the potential of CLIL for both educational achievement and foreign language learning. The view of CLIL in this programme context is informed by the European experience in recent decades, and the EU policy framework which promotes effective second (and third) language learning as a means of supporting all European languages, and through language learning, fostering intercultural understanding, communication, interaction and mobility across the EU.

In this chapter of the PROCLIL handbook, we describe four contexts of bilingual education which contribute to our understanding of the potential and challenges of CLIL. These contexts are part of the European ‘Language in Education’ story, and provide lessons on and insights into the challenges and strategies for policy-makers, teachers and pupils. Then we review three theoretical dimensions of CLIL, which provide a framework for understanding the nature of the language learning and teaching challenge in CLIL, and for developing context-appropriate solutions where CLIL is implemented.

3. Contexts of Content and Language Integrated Learning

We identify four contexts of CLIL policy and practice which illustrate this diversity in the origins of CLIL and which provide opportunities to understand and meet the challenges of CLIL for teachers and pupils:
i) The establishment of national educational systems

The establishment of universal educational provision at national or regional levels often involves language choices which mean that for many children the language of the classroom is not the language of the home (Ferguson 2006). This has been the case in many parts of Europe over the last two centuries where the dominant, national language is not the language or linguistic variety of many of the regions, and thus instruction involves a focus on both subject and language. In countries as diverse as Ireland, Sweden and Spain, the provision of schooling through one dominant language has been part of long narrative of educational opportunity on the one hand, and language rights on the other. Currently this situation prevails in many low-income countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, where educational effectiveness is dependent on language and literacy resources, and where the instructional challenges faced by teachers and policy makers can help us engage with the challenges of CLIL. The opportunity presented by CLIL models generally, and in particular within the EU policy context, is about moving beyond the monolingual focus, and creating contexts of learning where two or more languages have a place, or indeed, are the norm in schools and classrooms, and in the communities in which these are located.

ii) Schools in bilingual and multilingual communities

In many communities the development of educational provision and systems has not coincided with the establishment of a single community language. In regions of Europe, US, Malaysia, Peru and Canada, for example, where two or more languages co-exist, and monolingualism as a norm has not been established (the situation in 1. above), the language of learning and school life may be a language which is not the first or home language of some children (Cummins 2000; Baker 2001; Wolff 2009). In many of these contexts, a successful integrated curriculum has proved difficult to achieve, with recurrent issues concerning the quality of subject learning and of fairness for children learning and being assessed in a second or foreign language.
Indeed the challenges of achieving bilingual competence for everyday communication as well as for work and further study contexts are many, both in terms of language policy and linguistic rights, and of fairness to individual children. One context where such bilingual education has been successful is that of international schools in large cities around the world (Wolff 2009). In many ways these are private-sector, ‘elite’ contexts – well-resourced in terms of staffing, class size, and learning materials, and operating in individual learning contexts characterised by clear learning trajectories and home support. The experience of such schools is important for CLIL as they illustrate successful learning and educational achievement in a foreign language. However, one key difference needs to be understood: in these schools, the foreign language is likely to be a lingua franca of the school and classroom, and pupils can benefit from extensive peer support in developing language skills. In many European contexts of CLIL, the communities in which schools are based may be largely monolingual, and a pedagogy which is not dependent on the target language as a lingua franca and peer support needs to be developed.

iii) Classrooms with linguistic minority children and students

Migration in recent decades at both global and regional levels has led to school situations where children arrive with little of no proficiency in the traditional dominant language of the school. This phenomenon, which has been characteristic of schools in industrial urban contexts in Europe and North America, is increasingly more widespread and schools in all parts of Europe are likely to have migrant children for whom the language of the school is new. Supporting the learning of such children has led to the development of strategies to assist effective learning in both language skills and subject knowledge. In more affluent, industrialised contexts such as Britain, Canada and the Netherlands, the use of bilingual literacy and learning materials and the deployment of bilingual assistants alongside monolingual teachers have been successful in meeting needs (Cummins 2000; Gardner 2008), and provide some insights useful for the development of CLIL in other settings. Bilingual classroom assistants provide a mediating role, particularly working in the classroom with individual or small groups of pupils. In the PROCLIL context in Spain, some schools have British classroom assistants as part of a collaboration with a British Council project to support CLIL in Spain.
iv) Classrooms which seek to add value through instruction in a new language

This context of learning in two languages focuses on choices made as part of educational policy, which involves instruction and learning in a language which is not the language of the community and where there is another language, that is the language of the community and the L1 of the pupils, which could be used as an easier means of explanation and interaction. The reason for such an educational policy is the belief that such educational provision leads effectively and efficiently to bilingual competence, and that there are wider individual and social benefits to such a capacity. One context of this type of CLIL is in contexts where a language development or maintenance agenda exists as part of establishment of a new national identity, such as Ireland (Harris 2009), Switzerland (Serra 2007) and Estonia (Mehisto and Asser 2007).

Another context is where there is a settled view of a community language, but a perception that the quality of educational provision can be enhanced by better foreign language learning outcomes. This is the situation in many schools which are in tune with the needs of modern society and the beliefs of parents that early foreign language learning (especially English) benefits their children. This approach also aligns with the EU policy framework which promotes effective second (and third) language learning as a means of supporting all European languages, and through language learning, fostering intercultural understanding, communication, interaction and mobility across the EU.

Such contexts are the specific focus of this handbook. The most common foreign language in these contexts is currently English, and the initiative is underpinned by a belief that individual and wider social and economic benefits accrue from having a capacity to work and learn in more than one language. This education policy is supported by a European identity framework where language resources promote rather than inhibit Europe-wide communication and mobility (Marsh 2002). The focus on English is driven by the emergence of English in recent decades as the language of science, technology, media, and business. PROCLIL is located at the point where these different policies and forces meet and where a range of issues of implementation require development and clarification.
4. CLIL: Foreign language pedagogy issues

Specific language pedagogy issues within the implementation of CLIL have in recent decades been shaped by three fields of theoretical development:

i) Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Widdowson 1978; Hedge 2000)

ii) The Content, Cognition, Communication, Culture (4 Cs) framework (Coyle 2000; 2007)

iii) Bilingual Interactional Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins 1987; 2000)

i) Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The development of the communicative approach to foreign language teaching in the last five decades is based on the notion that language learning is most effective where there is a focus on meaning and on language use (Widdowson 1978; Hedge 2000). This pedagogy has represented a move away from an instructional and assessment focus on language rules and forms, to an approach which emphasises activities which promote language use. The forms of the language are more easily understood when they encode relevant conceptual matter in communication and interactional contexts. Recent developments of the communicative approach to language learning have focussed on task based learning, an approach based on the use of tasks as a unit of planning and instruction. Two main assumptions of task-based learning are that focus should be on process rather than product and that learners learn language by interacting communicatively while engaged in tasks. Such a pedagogy incorporates elements of autonomy, creativity and discovery learning which have also characterised teaching and learning in primary schools: The contemporary European classroom is a space where different activities take place, there are many forms of interaction, and the pupil is very much at the centre of these processes. Thus, there is a degree of conceptual fit between communicative language teaching and the pedagogy of other subjects.
An enduring challenge is the integration in school and other formal learning contexts of the foreign language and a subject such as science or geography. In a typical communicative foreign language class, a text or activity on a science or geography topic may serve as a vehicle for linguistic knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) and language use skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). The focus however, is on language development, with little concern about the extent to which the science or geography content is understood. In CLIL both the language and the subject are equally important. The challenge here is maintenance of the balance in learning, where both language and subject capacities are advanced, and thus avoidance of a situation where the CLIL lesson focuses on language skills development without systematically attending to subject concepts, methods and skills. The Coyle 4C framework in the next section provides a theoretical framework which can contribute to this balance.

ii) The Content, Cognition, Communication, Culture (4 Cs) framework
An influential framework which clarifies the ways in which the CLIL curriculum differs from a language pedagogy (such as CLT) has been set out by Coyle (2000; 2007) based on Mohan’s Knowledge Framework (1986). The 4C framework incorporates content, cognition, communication and culture as equal and balanced curriculum reference points. Content relates to the learning of subject matter, such as science or geography. Cognition reflects the development of learning and thinking in the subject context during the lesson, contributing to the linking new knowledge and skills to existing understanding. Communication emphasises language development through the use of language which occurs in interaction and learning in the classroom. Culture reflects the socialisation benefits of the learning experience, both in terms of the meanings underpinning the subject knowledge, and identity aspects of using more than one language. (Some CLIL writers, such as Mehisto et al (2008) use community rather than culture as the term which reflects the link between classroom learning and the wider social context of learning.) CLIL, thus, is a pedagogy which takes the integration of subject and language development as central.

Through the 4Cs, content and cognition and communication and culture, learners construct their own knowledge and skills, and their identity as learners in a context culturally shaped by (at least) two languages and attention to a body of subject
knowledge. The 4Cs framework emphasises the language of learning, for learning and through learning. Language of learning includes the required knowledge to understand content. Language for learning includes the grammar and rule-based knowledge of language, and awareness of effective strategies which learners need to communicate and learn in a foreign language environment. Language through learning emphasises the active involvement of learners in the learning process; it helps “to assist their thinking, they need to develop their higher-order thinking skills to assist their language” (Coyle 2007:554). In this framework, the CLIL curriculum maintains a dual focus, where subject and language learning are fostered in an integrated way, and is in alignment with the individual personal, social and intellectual development of each child as they progress through pre-primary and primary school. The language related aspects of social and intellectual development are complex, and particular attention is needed to ensure that intended learning goals are achieved.. The BICS/CALP distinction developed by Jim Cummins from research in bilingual education settings in Canada illustrates the particular challenge here for CLIL teachers and schools.

iii) Bilingual Interactional Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language proficiency (CALP)
The broad curricular framework of Coyle and other CLIL theorists may suggest effective learning as a natural consequence of using a foreign language as a medium of instruction and interaction in the classroom. Nevertheless, Cummins (1987; 2000), in discussing the language requirements for successful learning across the curriculum, makes a distinction between basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). This distinction explains the phenomenon where children learning in a foreign language can interact successfully with the teacher and others but fail to progress as expected in subject learning. A substantial body of research in bilingual education contexts suggests that subject learning can suffer when the medium of learning is a second or foreign language and where the pupils are not sufficiently supported in engaging with the more complex language of subject concepts and processes. (for example, Baker 1996; Wolff 2009) For example, children may understand which factors make certain objects float and others sink, they may be able to talk about and predict these in the classroom, but then may struggle to articulate the reasoning in scientific terms, for example in formal
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assessment contexts. A key strategy in meeting the CALP challenge is continuing development of the pupil’s first language, specifically in terms of the subject language used, in order to understand and explain subject concepts and processes (Baker 2001, Cummins 1989). This should be an integral part of CLIL, so that pupils are able to discuss their subject learning in L1 with parents and carers at the end of each day and in L2 in classroom or formal assessment contexts. The PROCLIL framework for implementation outlined below, and throughout this handbook, emphasises attention to BICS by promoting the use of English for classroom communication, and attention to CALP through discussion of subject concepts and processes in both the first language and English.

5. The PROCLIL Approach

PROCLIL has explored the issues in implementing CLIL through setting up implementation initiatives in primary and pre-primary schools in four countries, and supporting and monitoring these over three years. The programme was shaped pedagogically by the three curricular frameworks outlined above: Teaching methodology and classroom tasks and activities drew on principles of communicative language teaching (CLT). The 4Cs perspective served to illustrate how language and subject matter are linked in a unified curricular context, and the BICS/CALP distinction ensures appropriate attention to the challenges of teaching and learning in two languages.

To frame this challenge in theoretical and policy terms, PROCLIL developed a view of CLIL with three focal points:

1) Effective learning of the required subject matter (the content in CLIL) through a foreign language (in this case English), where:
   a) there is no substantive difference between core learning achievements in the CLIL classroom and the expected achievements in the L1 classroom, and
   b) the curriculum (as set by the school or education authority) guides the teacher and the instructional plan
2) CLIL involves focussed and structured attention to language (in this case, English) in the curriculum. This involves:
   a) active support for foreign language learning in subject lessons through:
      i) attention to subject literacy (terminology and lexis), as much as a primary school teacher of any subject might do, and
      ii) attention to phonological and syntactic aspects of this subject literacy, so that an effective bilingual competence is achieved.
   b) where there are no separate English language classes, attention to the language knowledge, skills and learning strategies to support the more subject oriented activity in a) above.

3) CLIL involves a focus on the pupil, reflected in the organisation and implementation of CLIL within schools and schooling systems. This involves
   a) personalised learning where each pupil is supported at their stage of both content and language learning, taking into account both the school curriculum and the developmental state of the child;
   b) opportunities for curricular continuity, so that learning achievements in both content and language are built on over time.

This view of CLIL accords appropriately balanced attention to both language and subject, places the pupil and their opportunities for learning at the centre of CLIL policy and implementation, and recognises that CLIL is particularly demanding for teachers. They need additional support from schools (for example, sufficient class and planning time) and CLIL experts (particularly in the initial stages of CLIL implementation, and guidance on materials and activities). It is a view which acknowledges the long narrative of language issues in education, in Europe and elsewhere, which recognises the challenges of fair policies, appropriate resources and training, and effective practice in CLIL contexts, and which seeks to implement CLIL as a pedagogy which benefits individual children, their schools and communities, and the wider project of European identity and integration.
References


Chapter 3:
Transition into CLIL: Guidelines for the beginning stages of CLIL

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1. Introduction
CLIL is now common in many schools and in many areas of Europe. Indeed, certain regions and schools have a significant history in CLIL. Nevertheless, for the many schools and educational authorities who are interested in implementing CLIL, the smooth running of a CLIL programme lies at the end of a careful transition period. PROCLIL includes partners with varying experiences in CLIL programmes and some partners had to start from the very beginning; setting up CLIL programmes from scratch. Their experiences and the good practices followed in initiating CLIL and transitioning into a CLIL programme are documented here in the form of rough guidelines which are hoped to prove useful for the many schools now starting, or considering starting, a CLIL programme.

The guidelines presented here assume that essential components required for a CLIL programme are already present or efforts are being made to secure them. Such essential components are: support from the school management, teaching materials, teachers with adequate ability in the foreign language and training in either subject-content teaching methodology or foreign language teaching methodology or preferably both.

This chapter will, therefore, focus on the next step. How does a teacher actually begin implementing CLIL? What is important in this transition process where children, parents and teachers are new to CLIL and how do they move to becoming comfortable in functioning within this new approach to teaching and learning? The guidelines which follow will be divided into two parts. The first part will present guidelines intended to help teachers new to CLIL in how to create those conditions which will help them to implement CLIL effectively while maintaining their
enthusiasm and developing a support network. The second part looks into the needs of students new to CLIL and offers guidelines which can help them better adapt to the new approach.

2. Initial guidelines for teachers new to CLIL

These guidelines to teachers will focus on how they can get support in order to get through their transition into CLIL without losing their enthusiasm but by gaining experience and a rich network of colleagues instead. The guidelines also aim to help the new teacher expand her support network by ensuring that key stakeholders such as parents and school colleagues are supportive of the new CLIL programme.

2.1 Get Support!

In many educational contexts around Europe teachers are asked to implement CLIL in their teaching, whereas in others it is the teachers themselves who are driving the change forward. Sometimes teachers are lucky to have received training both in CLIL-subject and in foreign-language methodology, but often teachers may have only one of the two. In all cases, however, and in all possible contexts, one thing is certain: teachers need support.

This support may be pedagogical (subject-content or language methodology), linguistic (assistance in appropriate lexis or pronunciation), practical (resource finding) or even psychological (encouragement, stress management or stress release). Teachers need to discuss their concerns in many areas which are new to them, ranging from the language balance/ratio of the lesson to how assessment will be carried out. They need to share their resources and to discuss their choice of materials. Often they need to check if a choice of word is right or if they are pronouncing it the right way and they always appreciate an available shoulder and a patient listener to whom they can vent all their frustrations, concerns and tiredness.

This section will offer ideas as to how teachers can find some of this much-needed support by using teacher/buddy groups, either local or international, and by taking advantage of technology resources.
Form a Teacher Support/Buddy group

Teacher groups are vital in sustaining teacher enthusiasm, maintaining support and alleviating the stresses of general preparation as well as the natural concerns which come with the implementation of an innovation. It is important for teachers to contact local authorities or CLIL programme coordinators and request either the formation of such groups or at least the details of other CLIL teachers in their area so that they may proceed with organising their own groups. Ideally, groups should include both experienced and novice CLIL teachers so that mentoring relationships may be developed.

It is usually very difficult for a teacher to find all the support she needs during the school day either because she has too little non-teaching time or no timetabled coordination time with other CLIL teachers in the school. Often support from within the school is impossible because there are no other CLIL teachers in the school.

Teacher support groups can be the solution. They usually work well when they are formed according to subjects taught (e.g. CLIL-science, CLIL-geography, etc.). If such a group cannot be formed with teachers of neighbouring schools, then various solutions need to be employed so that a group can be formed despite of geographical distance separating the teachers. Such groups can keep in touch through telephone, email and periodical meetings. Face-to-face meetings should be planned at least for the initial stages of the group formation since they facilitate the development of friendships and the formation of a community of practice.

Face-to-face meetings may take the form of casual get-togethers at cafes or restaurants and can include impromptu discussions of problems and ideas or they can be more structured. More structured meetings can take the form of focused discussions, lesson/unit planning, materials-sharing or materials-preparation workshops. Furthermore, as a group bonds and become more confident with each other, they can arrange for lessons to be video-recorded and then observed and discussed with the group. Face-to-face meetings are key in initiating and building such communities but once the communities are established more discussions and materials-sharing can take place electronically.
Buddy-groups can exist with a minimum of two teachers, each supporting and being a ‘buddy’ for the other. This may be a more flexible way of obtaining teacher support and can be used in cases where there are no other CLIL teachers in the vicinity or can be formed from a wider teacher group as a natural development of friendship or shared concerns with another colleague. If the buddies are committed to each other, this format of support can work very well. There are, however, occasions were a ‘buddy’ might face a series of personal mishaps (personal, health, etc.) and not be able to support. It is, therefore, best if buddy groups are formed and run parallel to a larger group of CLIL teachers.

*Get support from technology*

Technology can be a great resource. It can enhance and expand teacher support networks and it can be a resource for teaching materials or linguistic and pedagogical support.

*Technology can enhance and expand teacher support networks*

Technology allows for frequent and convenient communication and materials sharing. It can also make possible the creation of teacher support groups even when there are no other CLIL teachers in the same geographical area and can allow both new and experienced CLIL teachers the opportunity to join international groups/networks of CLIL teachers, thus offering possibilities for new insights into CLIL developments as well as access to a wealth of information and advice from experienced CLIL teachers. Such international networks (see Appendix) are particularly important for novice CLIL teachers who are working in an area that has no pre-existing experience in CLIL.

*Technology can offer linguistic help*

Even teachers who are highly proficient in the foreign language, may find difficulties when using the language to teach a specific subject. Teachers may have not studied the subject content in the foreign language and hence subject terminology will be new to them. This means that they might either not know a particular word or that they may be aware of the word but might have never heard it spoken and are thus unsure about how to pronounce it.
In this case, the Internet can be an important resource as it offers free online dictionaries which do not only explain the meaning of words but also offer the user the opportunity to hear how a word is pronounced. An added advantage in some online dictionaries is that the teacher can listen to how the word is pronounced in American English or British English; often a source of confusion amongst teachers. Two well-respected dictionary sites are “The free dictionary” (http://www.thefreedictionary.com) and Merriam Webster’s online dictionary (http://www.merriam-webster.com).

Technology can offer access to materials

As discussed in Chapter 6, one of the problems faced by most CLIL teachers is the current lack of teaching materials. This leads teachers to create their own; something which may have added benefits in that materials created for a teacher’s specific context are bound to be better suited to her students than materials which have been produced with a wide student population in mind. On the other hand, developing good-quality materials might take some trial-and-error and will be something a novice CLIL teacher can be uncomfortable with.
This problem might be partly overcome through teacher-support groups and buddy-groups, although this process will not necessarily alleviate the work-overload which is involved in developing materials. New teachers, who are starting to build their personal materials selection, are very appreciative of the many resources available on the Internet. Such resources include powerpoint presentations for the introduction of subject-concepts, lesson plans used by other CLIL teachers, quizzes, games and songs which can facilitate subject-content teaching. Although often these resources will not be an exact fit for a teacher’s specific context, they are usually easily adapted and they always offer new ideas about how other colleagues approach the content. Examples of Internet sites which offer materials suitable for CLIL are listed in the Appendix whereas an expanded list is available on the PROCLIL website.

Technology can offer tools for the creation of materials and visual aids
The Internet can offer support for another difficulty often reported by CLIL-teachers, especially those of young learners, when they prepare their teaching materials: the time-consuming task of preparing the many visual aids which are required for increased visualisation during CLIL lessons.

Developing visual aids is made easier and faster with the help of many websites which offer ready-to-print flashcards as well as tools for the creation of customised materials.

Very useful websites for flashcards are http://www.eslflashcards.com/ and http://www.mes-english.com/flashcards. They both allow the user to choose thematic sets of flashcards (e.g. animals, furniture, countries, feelings) and offers them in various formats (pdf files, powerpoint presentations, bingo cards, etc) and various sizes.

Perhaps one of the most valuable sites for the customised creation of teaching materials is “Tools for Educators” (http://www.toolsforeducators.com) which allows teachers to create their own board games, domino, dice games and other materials using specific vocabulary selected by the teacher.
2.2 Brief colleagues and keep them in the ‘inner’ group

New CLIL-teachers report they can function much easier if there is support by their school colleagues. A first step to achieve this support is to keep school staff informed on the CLIL programme and how it works. They need to know what CLIL is, how it works and how much effort is invested in it. CLIL can be introduced to the school staff at a staff meeting where the philosophy underlying CLIL is presented and the CLIL model which is implemented at the school is explained. Another idea would be to plan open-days for colleagues when there is an open invitation to all colleagues to attend and observe CLIL classes.

Generally, it is good practice to make CLIL visible within the school. Some ideas which could help towards this are for students’ work to be presented on notice boards in central areas of the school, for CLIL classes to take part in school events and present CLIL activities (school play, science fair, etc.), and for CLIL classes to participate in the school newsletter or website by contributing articles on CLIL activities or projects they have carried out.
It might take a bit of time for the school staff to become fully aware of everything CLIL involves but in the end more colleagues might want to join the CLIL programme.

2.3 Keep an open communication channel with parents

For the best possible results and overall successful and smooth implementation of a CLIL programme, parents need to be on the side of the CLIL teacher and supportive of the programme in general. It is, however, reasonable that parents may initially have some concerns or questions about CLIL. Research, carried out within PROCLIL, investigated the attitudes of hundreds of parents who had children in new CLIL programmes (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou, 2008; Ioannou-Georgiou, Can and Pavlou, 2009). The results showed that even though parents did support the implementation of CLIL and believed that there would be important benefits for their children, they still had some concerns. Their major concern was whether their children would be able to cope in the programme and whether the use of a foreign language would create problems which would affect their children’s results and overall learning of the subject content. It is, therefore, important to be sensitive to the concerns and needs of the parents. Their support and encouragement at home is important for the students and is reflected on the students’ overall attitudes towards the lesson as well as on the amount of effort they invest in it.

In order to open up a communication channel with parents, informative leaflets could be prepared and sent out at the beginning of the school year. These should be written in simple language -without any jargon- and should include some background information on CLIL as well as how it will be implemented in the particular school/class. It is a good idea to include contact details and an open invitation for dialogue, in case parents have questions they need to discuss.

A second step could be to invite parents to a meeting where the teacher can present how she works with the children in CLIL classes and explain how the children are supported in these beginning stages. The meeting should involve a time for questions and discussion. It is important that teachers sympathise with parents’ concerns, listen to everything parents have to say and reassure them by making clear that the students’
needs are a priority and that every effort is made to support them and ensure their well-being and progress in learning.

Parents can often offer suggestions and ideas which can be helpful and should be taken into consideration. Teachers can also involve parents further by inviting them to help in CLIL classes, wherever possible. Parents can be involved as volunteers helping at school excursions or educational visits, acting as assistants in school events or technology projects or being informants on specific topics for which they have knowledge about.

There should be an open channel of communication between teachers and parents and this can be further encouraged by inviting parents to observe CLIL lessons or by communicating with them frequently and briefing them on CLIL projects and/or new developments, such as new resources acquired or participations in competitions and European or international projects. Parents can also be encouraged to actively participate in their children’s learning. They can be involved in assessment processes by reflecting on and reviewing their child’s portfolio or they can be partners in homework projects such as the one below, where the children have to investigate all meat products in the home and complete the relevant table.

![Table Example]

**Source:** Home Economics, Unit “Meat”, Year 6: age: 11, Teachers: Sophia Ioannou-Georgiou, Anna Hadjileonida-Panteli, Linopetra Primary School, Limassol, Cyprus
3. **Students new to CLIL**

For students who have no previous experience of CLIL, the approach represents an entirely new take on learning; one which they have not been used to and one which does not fit in with their existing frames of reference regarding how education works. Consequently, there needs to be a transition period during which students accept this new approach to learning and are offered the time to learn how to function within a new learning environment. This section presents a number of suggestions to guide teachers and programme coordinators in assisting students through this transition stage.

### 3.1 Making CLIL resonate with students

Students need to understand why suddenly they are learning in a new language. This is imperative if CLIL is initiated with older students who have already had four or five years experiences of formal schooling in their mother tongue. Naturally, it is easier to learn in one’s mother tongue rather than to have the additional challenge of learning using a medium which is also new. Students who are used to learning in their mother tongue will, therefore, need to be given a reason, a justification as to why this change is now happening in their school lives.

Even younger students need to have a justification of this new situation. They may have little or no experiences of formal schooling themselves, but they may have friends, siblings or other relatives older than them and, through them, they also have significant knowledge of how the educational system works and consequently of the fact that it works in their mother tongue.

It is, therefore, important for older and younger students alike that there is some time dedicated to the introduction of CLIL into their school lives. This introduction should be relevant to their age and developmental level. Older students, for example, can have an open discussion with their teacher as to the new approach they will be using in class, the reasons for doing so and the potential benefits which lie in this approach.
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It is important that students have time to ask questions and express any possible concerns regarding the learning procedure which will be followed. Students can also come to justify CLIL through a problem solving activity. They can, for example, be assigned a project where they collect English (or foreign) words and phrases and bring them in class. The English words collected can be presented in a variety of ways (notes, recordings, collage) to the class and initiate discussions as to the role of foreign languages in our lives and their importance in leisure, study and work activities. The teacher can then pose the question of how we can learn more languages and direct the discussion so as to introduce CLIL as one of these ways.

Another introductory activity which may lead to discussions about the role of languages and their value in our lives, may be a research project or a guided webquest for students to find how many languages are spoken in Europe. The results can be visually displayed as a linguistic map of Europe and can lead the children to discuss the value of communication skills and foreign languages. A similar task would be to discuss which countries the children have visited or which they would like to visit and mark them on a map. The discussion can deal with the benefits of travelling but then focus on the need of languages in order to make travelling possible.

All the above ideas aim at helping the children understand the value of languages and thus justify the search for better foreign language skills and the value of CLIL. Younger students cannot engage in this kind of discussions and other ways which resonate with them should be used. PROCLIL teachers used opportunities where classes included children who did not speak the local language and engaged the
children in a discussion as to how they could communicate with their new classmates. Often the migrant children knew some English and were very happy to communicate using this language so the rest of the class decided they could learn English so as to communicate better with their friends and so as to be more supportive of them while they were learning the local language.

Classes which were monocultural and monolingual found a solution in bringing ‘guests’ from another country. These were usually puppets, which were introduced to the children as guests who arrived from abroad. The puppets talked to the children about their home country, showed them pictures and sometimes taught them a traditional song. These initial conversations took place with the puppets speaking in the CLIL language and the teacher translating to the students. After the session, there was a conversation in the L1 and the teacher elicited the children’s impressions about the lesson and asked whether they would like the puppets to visit again. Finally, the children had to think of ways in which they could communicate with the puppets and after a variety of ideas was offered, discussions resulted in the need to learn the CLIL language so as to communicate with the puppets.

In all the classes which used this approach the puppets later developed into CLIL mascots and they appeared every time it was time for a CLIL session to the delight of the children.

3.2 Supporting students

Once CLIL resonates with the students and they adopt it as a useful approach, it is then important to help them feel secure and comfortable during CLIL sessions and guide them through a transition period which prepares them for effective participation in CLIL.

This is a sensitive stage where although the children have agreed to work with a CLIL approach, their first experiences of CLIL lessons will be crucial to the attitudes they form and amount of effort they invest in the lessons. Indeed, a child’s first experiences of a CLIL programme can leave lasting effects and it should be priority at
this stage for the students to feel safe and confident, whereas feelings of disappointment, incompetence or frustration should not be allowed to materialise. One main principle should guide the students’ transition period into CLIL: the creation of a safe and nurturing environment where the child, her learning and language needs are catered to.

3.3.1 Creating a safe and nurturing environment

This section will look into aspects which should be taken into consideration so that a safe and nurturing environment can be created. Emphasis is placed on how the foreign language is introduced to the students without causing stress or anxiety. Other aspects discussed are the establishment of routines and the need to give students a voice as regards their overall attitudes and feelings towards their learning.

Gradual introduction of the L2: Step 1

A relaxed, stress-free, supportive atmosphere is important when first working in the L2. Children need to feel safe in that they are not expected to have full lessons in the L2 from the very first day. The teacher needs to explain how this will be done gradually and make it clear that at the beginning, students can express themselves in their mother tongue. The students can also decide on a sign (e.g. the time-out sign) which they can use whenever they do not understand something or need a break from the L2.

Children’s confidence can be built through a gradual introduction and increase of the foreign language. Initially lessons might have a small amount of exposure to the L2, perhaps 20% of the whole lesson. A practical way to begin using the L2 is to initiate it in basic classroom social interaction and language, e.g. Good morning! Come in, Stand up, Open your books, Sit down, Close the door, Be quiet, etc. This is useful language which works towards creating an L2 environment.

With primary school children the initial stages of CLIL also need to cater to the students’ learning needs by providing them with key terms or structures related to the CLIL subject they will be taught. If, for example, the CLIL subject is Arts and Crafts,
then key language to be taught at this stage would be the relevant tools and instructions, e.g.: scissors, glue, cut, stick, etc.

Classroom language and subject terms will increase over time but taught items will also need regular recycling especially at the beginning. During the transition stage, this can be done by playing various games with the children, perhaps in brief slots at the beginning or the end of lessons. Useful games for this type of language are: “Simon says ...”, miming, guessing and flashcard games. With older primary students, who can already read in the L2, it is also useful to have key language on posters around the classroom.

Gradual introduction of the L2: Step 2
As the children become more confident, their efforts in the language should be encouraged but not forced and a supportive attitude needs to be developed in all the students so that the class becomes a learning community that appreciates and supports all its members. Progress as well as effort needs to be praised.

In these initial stages of CLIL, children’s progress in the language may not, however, be a part to the progress they make in subject content. This is reasonable since progress in the subject content is being made and curriculum goals are being achieved while the children are getting used to understanding and using the L2. There will, therefore, be a stage when the teacher needs to support the children so that they can show their understanding of the subject content and participate actively in the lesson, despite the fact that their L2 skills are not fully up to that level. This is where numerous techniques come into play, such as Total Physical Response (TPR) activities, listen and draw, ordering activities, matching and labelling, classifying, colouring, selecting, miming and acting out. All of these techniques allow for participation in the lesson without forcing production in the L2. Some more techniques which help students through this stage can be found in Chapter 5.

Supporting students through classroom routines
Establishing certain routines will help students feel safe since they will know the way a lesson develops and know what to expect if they somehow ‘get lost’. Routines were established by all PROCLIL teachers for the beginning and closing of the lessons
whereas some PROCLIL teachers also regularly used certain types of activities thus further enhancing feelings of security since students knew how activities worked and the processes which should be followed.

Some routines which were developed by PROCLIL teachers for the beginning of CLIL lessons with pre-primary or early primary students were starting with a favourite song, with the welcoming of the class mascot, by preparing a chart stating the day and weather conditions or by playing a favourite game. Some beginning routines used by teachers of older primary learners were discussing the lesson’s aims or giving key information and then inviting the children to guess the lesson’s topic. This was then followed with the children discussing what they already knew about the topic and what they would like to know about it. The discussion was also supported by the completion of a KWL chart (see Chapter 7).

A closing routine employed with older students was to dedicate the last 5-7 minutes of a lesson to discuss what was learnt. This was usually done in the L1 and allowed the students to clarify possible questions while the teacher was able to evaluate learning outcomes. Establishing this as a routine, especially at the initial stages of CLIL, made the students feel secure in that they knew that if they had questions, these would be clarified at the end of the lesson. Other closing routines used were playing a quiz game based on the topic, retelling the story (if the story was story-based) or closing with a song.

**Giving students a voice**

Students should always feel free to express how they feel or whether they do not understand or have questions. Furthermore, they should be allowed to have their voice heard as regards their learning preferences, their general interests and their overall reflections on their lessons and their personal learning experience. This may sound ambitious for very young learners. It is, however, possible to achieve provided the learners are offered the means and the opportunities to express themselves and that they are trained in this direction of self-reflection and self-expression.

The teacher can begin by encouraging discussions in the L1 where the children can evaluate particular lessons or units and express how they feel regarding their
accomplishments in the unit or what activities they enjoyed and which they did not like. If the teacher frequently engages the children in such discussions and actively responds to their input, the students will value the discussion sessions and will develop a feeling of ownership of the learning process, making them more involved and engaged in their learning.

Opportunities for the students to have their voice heard should be made available throughout the year. Not only does this practice train the students in becoming autonomous, responsible and reflective learners, but it also allows for early teacher intervention when problems emerge. Of particular importance are techniques which allow students to express their feelings and attitudes towards their own learning such as “The Talking Tree” technique. This is when a tree branch planted in pot or an indoor plant and some cards are located permanently in the classroom. The students feel free to write their thoughts or concerns on a card and hang it on the tree. Their comments can be about whatever they want (in L1 or L2) and be written whenever they want or at regular “tree decorating” intervals scheduled by the teacher. Once cards are placed on the tree, the teacher can pick them up, read them and discuss them with the class.

The teacher can also have an area on a wall or notice board permanently divided into two sections: “Things I liked” and “Things I didn’t like”. The children can be trained to add notes about whatever they liked or didn’t like at any point.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Things I liked</th>
<th>Things I didn’t like</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I liked playing the quiz game. (17th March)</td>
<td>I didn’t like the noise! 22nd March</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn’t understand the text... (3rd April)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such techniques are important in order to identify and help children who might not be adapting well to the new approach. In addition, surveys can be used at the beginning of the year so that a teacher may find out how the specific group of children like to
learn or what their interests are. Older children can respond to more traditional questionnaires either in the L1 or the L2, such as the one below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you like to learn??</th>
<th>YES / NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like to learn by working in groups.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to learn by watching films.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to learn while working by myself.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to memorise words.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Younger children may be surveyed during open class discussions or can be offered handouts with pictures which they circle or cross after an oral discussion and with the help of oral instructions by the teacher.

There are a variety of other techniques which can be used in order to give the students a voice and Chapter 7 presents a few more under the section

4. All set to go!

A transition process might usually take about four to eight weeks and then children (and teacher!) should be all set to wade deeper into CLIL waters. This does not mean that one stops paying attention to all the points mentioned in this chapter. On the contrary, learners’ affective, learning and language needs should always be a priority for the CLIL teacher.

Nevertheless, it is time for students to get into more serious CLIL work and the percentage of L2 use will increase. The lesson may not yet be completely in the L2. This might take a couple more months although in the CLIL model adopted here it is
advocated that the L1 has a part to play even in an established CLIL programme (see examples of L1 use both in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

The end of the transition period signifies, however, more focus and more work in the L2 and this section will present guidelines which can help teachers and learners maintain an L2 environment.

**Using the L2**

In order to maintain an L2 environment, the relaxed flexibility at the beginning of a CLIL programme may need to give way to the establishment of classroom rules as regards L1/L2 use. This might be necessary for the children to get a better sense of an L2 environment and try harder in using the L2. Students and teacher can still use the L1 as a tool but there are cases which might require a set of boundaries to be installed so that a class may be transformed into an L2 environment.

A technique which can help in that direction is the establishment of boundaries through the use of signs which are posted up on the board during the lesson. Examples of signs used within PROCLIL were a flag of the home country (signifying L1 use) and a flag of the CLIL language, a UN or an EU flag (signifying L2 use). When the lesson was in the CLIL language, the EU flag went up on the board but when the teacher saw a need to have an in-depth discussion in the L1 or read and discuss a text in the L1, she brought the EU flag down and put up a flag of the home country. This helped the children see that the language switch was thought-out and justifiable. It thus helped the students to behave in the same way and also maintain L2 use as much as possible, when the L2 sign was up. Other signs used were colour signs (yellow vs blue) or other picture signs (rainbow vs sun) chosen by the children. In pre-primary and early primary classes the time period for use of the L2 was initiated and regulated by the appearance and/or exit of the CLIL mascot.

The above technique aims to help students try harder in using the L2 and establishing an L2 environment. Nevertheless, this should be done while allowing the children to resort to the L1 when this is necessary. If, however, teachers feel that students are relying too much on their L1, then there might be a need for further support of the L2. Some ideas to this purpose are offered by Deller and Rinvolucri (2004). One example
is the idea of giving each child five paper clips at the beginning of a lesson. Each time a child feels the need to use the L1, she has to give the teacher one of her paper clips. This allows the children to feel they have the support of their L1, while also making it clear to them that L1 use should be limited and more of an effort should be placed on using the L2.

Developing communication strategies

Finally, in order to maintain communication in the L2, children should be given key language and taught communication strategies which they can fall back on if they are having problems. Instead of allowing communication breakdown or communication abandonment, it is a good idea to train children in communication strategies and teach them the language they need to perform them. Communication strategies suitable for young learners are:

- explicitly indicating non-understanding (e.g. Excuse, me. I don’t understand.)
- explicitly asking for help (e.g. Can you help me, please?)
- word coinage
- miming

Older learners can also be trained in using the communication strategies of paraphrasing or describing what they want to say. Teachers can gradually introduce relevant language to their students and post examples prominently somewhere in the classroom, perhaps as speech bubbles, as shown below:
Conclusion

It is hoped that this chapter will be helpful to many teachers and schools now beginning CLIL. The experience of beginning a CLIL programme during PROCLIL was a difficult one, mainly because there is no published research which remembers and describes how successful CLIL programmes attained the levels in which they are now. This chapter does, therefore, aim to offer guidelines and steps for a successful transition into a CLIL programme. It looks both at the teacher and the student and suggests ways in which they can be supported.

Gradually children will be asked to use the L2 more and classes will reach the end of the transition period into CLIL. Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that in a CLIL programme there is always a strong emphasis on supporting the students and the techniques catering for affective, language and learning needs should always belong to the teacher’s repertoire and be used appropriately.

References


Sample list of networks

http://www.factworld.info/
http://www.onestopenglish.com/
http://www.ccn-clil.eu
http://bilingualeduc.ning.com/

Sample List of useful websites

http://www.dltk-teach.com
http://www.enchantedlearning.com/Home.html
http://www.cernet.at/library
http://www.primaryresources.co.uk/
http://www.sparklebox.co.uk
http://www.kindersite.org/
http://www.toolsforeducators.com
http://www.mes-english.com/
http://www.esl-kids.com/
Chapter 4:

The role of L1 in the CLIL classroom

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1. Introduction

The central focus of CLIL as a pedagogical innovation is effective learning of L2, the target language in the CLIL context, while also achieving learning in subject content.

In PROCLIL contexts the motivation for CLIL is the desire to have more effective language learning outcomes as a result of using the L2, English, to teach subjects in pre-primary and primary schools. However, the issues involved in using the L2 are complex. On the one hand maximal use of English increases exposure to the language forms, and develops confidence in using the language. On the other hand, such use of English can lessen comprehension of subject knowledge, reduce participation in the classroom discourse, and lead to subject learning goals being compromised. Effective practice therefore has to tread a fine line, and use of L1 in the CLIL classroom is likely to be part of a strategy to achieve this. In most contexts, the CLIL classroom is a classroom of two languages, L1 and L2. The challenge for the teacher is managing the roles these play.

In this chapter we look at three classroom contexts and explore the ways the teachers make decisions about L1 and L2 use. We then set out some principles which teachers may draw on to inform their decisions in planning and teaching in CLIL classrooms.
2. Language use in CLIL classrooms

In the next part of this chapter we discuss how teachers can make such decisions in ways which address the particular needs of the CLIL classroom. I am going to frame the discussion by examining episodes from three CLIL classrooms:

i) a reconstructed excerpt from a science lesson in a French L1 primary school where the teacher is focusing on parts of the plant;

ii) a home economics lesson in Cyprus where the teacher is exploring food categories; and

iii) a science lesson in Spain, where observer field notes are used to represent the classroom process.

### i) CLIL in a science lesson in a French-speaking school

This brief excerpt is from the instructional phase of the lesson, where the focus is on labelling the parts of the plant. The teacher is working with a poster size picture of a plant, and is teaching the vocabulary for the parts of the plant. She has already presented *flower, fruit, leaf* and *stem*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L.</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Talk</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>This is the root. Please repeat, the root</td>
<td>Slow clear pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>The root</td>
<td>Choral response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>What is this, Annick?</td>
<td>Pointing to poster, Quick nomination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Annick</td>
<td>The root</td>
<td>Quick response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Pay attention, Roberto, close that book</td>
<td>Roberto closes the book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>What is this, Ali?</td>
<td>Pointing to poster, Quick nomination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ali</td>
<td>The root</td>
<td>Quick response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>All together, the root</td>
<td>T. models pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>The root</td>
<td>Choral response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>What is it in French, Roberto?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Roberto</td>
<td><em>Le racine</em> (The* root)</td>
<td>* Fr gender error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td><em>Le? (The?) Nadia?</em></td>
<td><em>Le: rising intonation</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nadia</td>
<td><em>La racine</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In line 1 the teacher established the meaning of the word *root*. She uses scaffolding by pointing to the root of the plant visually represented by a picture, and emphasises the pronunciation. This initiates a drilling sequence, which involves quick questions and answers using both individual and choral repetition. In line 5, the teacher uses L2 for a classroom management purpose – getting Roberto to pay attention. His high level of understanding in this situation suggests that the teacher often uses L2 phrases such as this. In Line 10, she asks Roberto, a French as a second language pupil, for the word in French. He responds, but gets the gender (*le* instead of *la*) wrong. Nadia, another student, helps out, and the entire group repeats the French word. There are two important points in the attention to L1 forms like this for CLIL classrooms. First, in many contexts there are children for whom the L1 of the majority is an L2. They may be from immigrant or linguistic minority families and need ongoing support across the curriculum in developing competence in the majority language of the school and community. Second, new content-specific vocabulary is continually being introduced, as is seen here in a science lesson. Children encounter technical and specialist language which they will not necessarily be familiar with from home, the media or elsewhere, even in their L1. In the CLIL classroom, the teacher may have to develop this L1, or majority language, competence alongside the corresponding L2 terminology, so that the children can talk to their parents, their community and others about what they are learning in school when they go home, and are not disadvantaged,
if at a later stage they continue the subject in an L1 classroom rather than in a CLIL context.

The question form in line 17 ‘What is it in English?’ introduces a metalinguistic dimension to the lesson: the teacher is explicitly signalling that there is one item, but two different language ways of referring to it and the expectation is the children are aware of this, and know both. Thus, she is prompting the students to acknowledge the existence of two language systems and increasing their overall language awareness. In Lines 18 and 20, the teacher continues the metalinguistic orientation in emphasising pronunciation and spelling. These are foundation stones for developing L2 competence, and while not central to the science concept, they develop confidence in spoken language use and initiate awareness of spoken-written language correspondences which may contribute to ongoing learning.

The teacher here has decided to develop the language learning aspect of this part of the CLIL lesson in ways which inform wider discussion. Where the content of the lesson, the parts of a plant, is conceptually accessible by the children, and the input is effectively supported by visual material, there is an opportunity for developing the language side of CLIL. This has L1 and L2 dimensions. For L2 development the teacher uses English for classroom communication, and puts emphasis on pronunciation and spelling. She also develops a focus on L1, so that children understand in practice the ways in which languages represent concepts, and the particular needs of children like Roberto are addressed. Overall, however, the language use in this episode is restricted: it is teacher-controlled, with children saying precisely what the teacher prompts them to say. The discourse pattern here reflects teacher-led, lockstep instruction, typical of many ‘traditional’ language and other classrooms, where the focus is on children understanding and then speaking, and the responsibility of the teacher is to ensure controlled and clear use of language.

A major concern of children and parents surveyed as part of the PROCLIL project was whether the children would not understand the content of the lesson where the teacher used L2 exclusively. The next episode, from a PROCLIL context, reflects what this means for the use of L1 and L2 in CLIL classrooms.
ii) CLIL in a Home Economics classroom in Cyprus

This brief episode is from a classroom observation study looking at assessment in PROCLIL classrooms in Cyprus (Michaleoudes 2009). One finding of this study was that the predominant discourse pattern in the lessons observed was the teacher-led triadic exchange: initiation, response, feedback (IRF). This is not a critical comment on the teachers; rather, it is a description of practice in its cultural context, illustrating both the ways teachers make CLIL work, and the opportunities for further development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>IRF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>L:</td>
<td>It’s a grain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>143</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Very good. One point for this group. Έλα Γιώργο (Come George). Is this a grain food or a non grain food?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>144</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Non grain food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Very good. One point for the other group. Grain food or not grain food?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>146</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Non grain food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>147</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Very good έλα (come). Grain food or non-grain food? It’s rice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Michaeloudes (2009: 47)

The data show the teacher using English almost exclusively in the lesson. L1 (Greek) is used largely to encourage and relate at a personal level to the children. This differs from the teacher’s approach in the previous episode, where she used English to relate to individual children and manage the classroom. The discourse pattern here shows the teacher initiating the exchange, using closed questions (where the answers are embedded in the question) and giving feedback after the expected response. This initiation – response – feedback (IRF) pattern means there is no exploration of the child’s reasoning or opportunities to discuss contexts where these food categories may be unclear. Such exploratory talk is very important in the learning process where the child progresses from being able to categorise with the help of the teacher, to categorising independently working with an internalised conceptualisation of what these categories mean. In this case the game structure of this activity contributes to the discourse pattern. It is evident that the teacher has set up a quick-paced
Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-Primary Education

competition/quiz and the pupils’ mandated responses relate directly to that. The discussion here is not a critique of such practice: rather it is the use of this episode to illustrate that something is lost when interaction is always or routinely structured in this way.

The next episode explores a science classroom context where there is no use of L1, and the teacher uses a range of tools, including equipment for the experiment and demonstration, to develop understanding of the scientific concepts of the lesson.

iii) CLIL in a science classroom in Spain

In this excerpt from field notes on a science lesson in a CLIL classroom in Spain, the teacher is adhering strictly to an L2-only policy in a lesson about the structure of plants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Turns (Italics: actual words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Teacher: <em>How does the stem work?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Boy: <em>carry water and mineral salts to the leaf</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Teacher accepts this answer, and asks how we can see this, because water in transparent, and cannot be seen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Girl: <em>add colour</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Teacher accepts this answer and asks if green would be a good colour. No audible response to this and the teacher quickly explains that red is better, and asks the pupils to put their carnations in water.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Author’s own data*

The teacher here is drawing on a methodological principle which is particularly important in science teaching. She is working through the reasoning underpinning a scientific experiment before doing the experiment. Her questions focus expertly on assumptions (turn 1: how the stem works) and decisions (turns 4-5: the colour to add) which ensure the experiment provides meaningful results. Her response in Turn 3 further illustrates her content focus here – she does not add to the conceptual challenge by developing the boy’s L2 repertoire. She could extend the English language learning focus by making the grammatical point about the 3rd person ‘s’ – *it carries* – but appears to wish to keep the focus on the science concepts. This decision
corresponds to the principle in Episode 1 above, where the more accessible conceptual matter provides a context for emphasising the language issues.

There is no response to the teacher’s question in Turn 5, and this presents a language choice dilemma for the teacher: she may judge that the children have not understood and break down or re-phrase her question. This would take time, may involve moving away from the focus on science in order to explain the L2 forms necessary for reasoning and justifying the choice of colour. The alternative in an L2-only context is for the teacher to explain, in L2, and proceed to the next stage of the lesson. Were the option of using L1 available to the teacher (that is, no L2-only policy), she may have been able to translate the question into Spanish, and continue to explore the reasoning underpinning this scientific experiment in a mix of Spanish and English. The focus of the teacher’s decision-making on which language to use would, in such a case, not be based on compliance with the L2-only policy, but with the needs of the pupils as they prepare for learning the science embedded in the experiment planned for the later stage of the lesson.

These three episodes illustrate some ways in which language choices can be made in the CLIL classroom. In episodes i) and ii), the teacher’s reasoning remains at the centre, and the children’s contributions comply neatly with the teacher’s plan. The use of L2 is an integral part of this teacher-led classroom discourse. In episode iii), there is an opportunity for the children’s thinking to make a contribution: the teacher is looking for a response from the child’s own reasoning rather than from the teacher’s question. In this episode (episode iii) the children are silent, and the overall pattern of the children’s contribution to the discourse (in L2) in that classroom suggests that participation is limited because it is allowed in L2 only. In language learning terms, the episodes also reflect second language acquisition (SLA) and socio-cultural theory (SCT) informed pedagogies. Episodes i) and ii) focus on acquisition of forms, and practice – understanding before use in communicative settings. Episode iii) represents a participation-based pedagogy, where the children have opportunities to share developing understandings of concepts, as a way of exploring and clarifying their own reasoning.
Episodes i) and ii) are not without merit in terms of pedagogy and overall classroom experience. They reflect legitimate teacher leadership in the classroom, and in learning terms, they represent essential practices in ensuring children engage with input. The input in each case – language forms in Episode i), and scientific categories in Episode ii) requires teacher-led instruction. The activity structures might be appropriate as preliminary stages of more participative activities as seen in Episode iii). Episode i), for example, might be a way of ensuring the children have the L2 vocabulary for the more exploratory Episode iii). Thus, this analysis does not distinguish between good and bad practices, or provide recommendations for either using or not using L1 in CLIL classrooms. The core message is that there are choices and that teachers make these choices based on an understanding of how classroom activities facilitate learning, lesson progression and the particular and varied needs of pupils in these classrooms.

In the language classroom (as elsewhere in education), we are in a post-method age. This means there is no ideological fixity about how teachers should act to promote learning. If there is one message about instructional method, it is probably about variety of activities, and teacher judgement about the appropriate response. Thus, teacher controlled activities such as drilling, closed questions or IRF sequences are not a problem as long as they are part of a classroom context with diverse discourse patterns and modes of participation in the discourse.

3. Some principles to guide L1 and L2 use in the CLIL classroom

Teachers need to and do make decisions on language choice for different aspects of the CLIL classroom. This section outlines some key principles which may help teachers in making these decisions. These are not rules or recommended practices; rather they are principles which combine with the teacher’s own understanding of the intellectual focus and demands of the content of the lesson, the needs of different pupils, and the culture and atmosphere of the classroom.
a) **Maximise exposure to and use of L2 in the CLIL classroom.**

The teacher should plan and act to maximise use of the L2 in the CLIL classroom. This includes the teacher’s own talk and that of the pupils. Teacher controlled talk, as in Episodes i) and ii), serve to maximise exposure to L2, but this may be at the expense of pupil-led language use.

b) **Manage the classroom in English.**

One way of maximising exposure and establishing a bilingual culture in the classroom may be the use of L2 for classroom management. This at the start of the CLIL programme can involve lessons on classroom vocabulary and activities (see Chapter 3). The practice of use of L2 for classroom management, as in Episode i), can also lead to real communication: when children come in late, have to explain missing books, or have to leave the room, the requirement to do this in L2 can be a stimulus to language use.

c) **Focus on accuracy in pronunciation.**

Accuracy in pronunciation, that is, intelligibility of L2 talk is important for three reasons. First, it establishes confidence, so increasingly students participate actively in lessons and activities. Second, it increases the likelihood children understand each other, and become accustomed to listening to the talk of other pupils. Third, explicit attention to accuracy in pronunciation establishes an understanding of patterns of pronunciation in the L2. Bad habits such as pronouncing L2 using the sound system of L1, or according to orthographic patterns may be lessened through routine attention to and expectations of accuracy in pronunciation. The focus on accuracy can be achieved through explicit instruction as in Episode i).

d) **Check comprehension using L1.**

Teachers need to know how much children have understood, and whether they are ready to move on in the lesson. Sometimes it might be necessary to use L1 in order to obtain this information. Occasional questions to particular pupils may be an effective and efficient technique for this purpose. In Episode iii) this strategy is not used when it might have afforded a different form of pupil participation, whereas as in Episode i) recourse to L1 provides essential feedback for the teacher.
e) Teach L1 terms for subject.
Very often subject content involves technical terms which may be as new to children as the terms in L2. It is important for three reasons that in the CLIL classroom there are opportunities to develop L1 subject language. First, children may need to continue the subject in L1, and should not be lacking in subject competence compared to pupils from non-CLIL classrooms. Second, this knowledge enables children to talk to their parents or carers about school at the end of the day. Such conversations support learning by testing and extending a pupil’s ability to explain on their own what they understood with the help of the teacher in the classroom. Third, children in CLIL classrooms have different backgrounds and needs, and vocabulary familiar to some may not be familiar to all. Roberto in Episode i), a child for whom the L1 of the classroom is an L2, is one example.

f) Promote interlingual work – exploring the two languages.
A defining characteristic of CLIL is exploration of subject content in two languages. This provides a context for exploring the linguistic features – similarities, differences, parallels and patterns – which define each language. Such awareness gradually builds understanding of syntactic patterns, lexical structures and orthography-sound relationships, and thus confidence in and motivation for using L2. Such work may conflict with a language-focussed view which only values attention to L2, but it is wholly in line with a more holistic educational perspective which sees potential for learning in exploring linguistic concepts by explicitly comparing two languages.

g) Use L1 to support learning.
In the CLIL classroom, L1 is a resource which the teacher and pupils can draw on to develop understanding of subject content. It can combine with other essential resources such as visual representation (pictures, diagrams, graphs, etc) and gestures to ensure that children who find the L2 talk challenging do not fall behind. In addition to talk in L1, teachers can provide summary explanations of key concepts, bilingual worksheets, and L1 glosses in worksheets and displays to maximise the ways in which L1 can support learning while L2 remains the primary medium of instruction and classroom communication.
Conclusion

The use of L1 and L2 in the CLIL classroom is a complex issue, and effective guidance for teachers is not a matter of DOs and DON’Ts. Language choice decisions are part of the teacher’s task of managing a classroom process which has multiple goals, involves coordination of a range of learning resources, and where teacher planning and dynamic decision-making converge to maintain engagement, participation and learning. An understanding of language and subject learning processes is an essential platform for CLIL teachers making such decisions in the context of planning lessons and of managing interactions in the classroom. The episodes discussed in this chapter illustrate the ways teacher language choice decisions construct opportunities for learning. Such decisions should emphasise exposure to and use of L2, the language of CLIL, but must combine with teachers’ understanding of the intellectual challenge of the subject material, the needs of particular children, and the culture of the school and classroom in making such decisions. These episodes are not presented as models of classroom interaction, examples of bad practice, or recommendations for preferred practices: rather they show the potential and the costs of language choices in a way which raises awareness and supports teachers to make their own decisions in a context-sensitive way.

References

Chapter 5:
Effective CLIL Teaching Techniques

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1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe strategies and techniques used by experienced and effective CLIL teachers in integrating content and language. The chapter is based on two sets of data. One derives from published research on teaching content through a foreign or second language in immersion settings (Snow, 1990), in sheltered instruction settings such as SIOP (Echevarria et al. 2006, 2010) and in CLIL teaching in primary and secondary teaching (Butzkamm, 1998, Clegg, 2001, Thürmann, 2000). The second set of data is a collection of numerous video-recordings of primary and pre-primary CLIL lessons that have been recorded and analysed during the ProCLIL project over a period of three years in order to identify and evaluate successful classroom practice that supports the cognitive, linguistic and affective needs of students’ learning through a second or foreign language.

While CLIL-teachers’ tasks resemble those of their non-CLIL colleagues in that they teach the general curriculum, there are also differences, and the CLIL teachers’ responsibilities are admittedly more demanding. What Snow states for immersion teachers holds true for CLIL teachers as well in that:
“... [they] really wear two hats all the time. Through their instruction, they must promote mastery of the subject matter and second-language development concurrently.”
(Snow, 1990: 158)

Apart from the general techniques and skills required of any good teacher, CLIL teachers, who teach a content subject through the medium of a foreign language, need to be able to use the specific methods and techniques of two subjects and what is more, to combine them in such a way that the result will be more than the sum of its parts. Neither is it enough to simply teach the content subject in the foreign language nor is it sufficient to merely provide language instruction parallel to content instruction.

This chapter will present general guidelines and various techniques which can assist CLIL teachers in responding effectively to the increased demands of their task. In particular, this chapter will look into techniques for:

- Verbal scaffolding
- Content scaffolding
- Learning process scaffolding

Verbal scaffolding: CLIL teachers need to find ways and methods to make their input comprehensible for the students, which means that they have to adapt their language according to their students’ language proficiency. Moreover, CLIL teachers need to find methods by which to enable their students to participate in the lesson actively and meaningfully, despite possible limitations of their current linguistic competence. Echevarria et al. (2008, 2010) subsume these strategies under the heading of verbal scaffolding.

Content scaffolding: Consistently applying techniques to assist and support students’ understanding of and engagement with the content is central to CLIL teaching and needs to compliment making the language input comprehensible. According to Echevarria et al. these are referred to as content scaffolding techniques.

Learning process scaffolding: These are techniques which assist CLIL teachers in supporting students’ working processes as well as their learning processes. They can
involve strategies to improve learning or to develop reflection skills and promote learner autonomy.

Techniques from all the above categories were found to be effective in our experience of CLIL implementation. This chapter aims to illustrate such examples of good teaching practice through presenting a set of evidence-based guidelines and techniques which will be illustrated with the help of lesson transcripts and photos from classrooms.

2. Verbal Scaffolding Techniques: Making input comprehensible and facilitating student output

The techniques discussed in this section deal with verbal scaffolding and are separated into two categories:

a) input-oriented scaffolding techniques, which focus on making teacher L2 input accessible to students; and
b) output-oriented scaffolding techniques, which focus on how students can be assisted in expressing understanding and to participate actively in a CLIL lesson even with limited L2 competence.

In order to be able to use the techniques described below efficiently and productively, CLIL teachers need to have a very good command of the foreign language. What is more, CLIL teachers need to be prepared to further expand their language proficiency with reference to content-specific vocabulary and expressions. Feeling at ease in the foreign language, not experiencing it as another factor that adds stress to an already very complex teaching situation, is necessary so as to enable teachers to use the foreign language effectively. If the teacher uses the foreign language consistently and is able to establish a relaxed classroom atmosphere by using it in every kind of classroom situation, the students will be encouraged to do so as well (compare Snow 1990: 160, 162).
2.1 Input-oriented scaffolding techniques

Input-oriented scaffolding techniques allow teachers to make their language input comprehensible for students with varying levels of language competence. This section will look at the following techniques:

- Using language appropriate to the students’ L2 proficiency level
- Animating language use
- Building redundancy into the lesson
- Teacher modelling of correct language use
- Scaffolding through careful mother tongue use

Using speech appropriately for students’ proficiency level

CLIL teachers teaching language and content in an integrated way at pre-primary and primary/elementary level are sometimes concerned about overtaxing their students’ cognitive capacities when using language that seems too complex for them. As a consequence, CLIL teachers may at times oversimplify their language input, use very short sentences only, or repeat the same structure over and over again. This can hinder rather than assist language acquisition. As research on foreign language acquisition has shown, providing rich language input is one of the prerequisites for successful language learning (Lightbown, 1985). Thus, CLIL teachers should not reduce the foreign language to such an extent that their language input becomes grammatically wrong or that it sounds unnatural. It is permitted and favourable though to slow down the rate of speech, to increase the pauses between phrases, (Echevarria, et al. 2010: 103), to use simple (short) sentences especially with beginners, or to repeat and paraphrase frequently. Students do not need to know and understand every single word as their comprehension is mainly secured by the help of other techniques, which will be presented later in this chapter.
Animating language use

Especially in the early grades, CLIL teachers need to accompany their speech with miming, gestures and facial expressions, thus offering supportive contextual information and linking abstract concepts with concrete examples. This helps students to understand what their teacher is saying. For example, with very young learners, when saying “Please take three colouring pencils, a green one, a blue one and a yellow one, and put them on your desk in front of you”, the teacher can hold up three fingers, then takes the green colouring pencil, holds it up and shows it to the class, then takes a blue pencil, holds it up too, and proceeds with the last one accordingly, then puts all three colouring pencils on the desk in front of her.

Building redundancy into the lessons

Using repetition, paraphrasing, and synonyms already known by the students offers many chances for comprehension of the intended message.

The following excerpts recorded from PROCLIL classes illustrate the technique.

Excerpt 1:
T: So in the North, North West of Germany we have got the oceanic climate. What about inland? Inside Germany? Inside? In the centre? In the East? In the central Germany? What climate do you think there is?

Excerpt 2:
T: Did you find information about Oktoberfest? About the festival in Bavaria?

(Excerpts from a Geography lesson on “Germany”, grade 5 (age: 10), Cyprus)

Excerpt 3:
T: Can you show us where the group of the milk group is? Can you show us the milk group? Where is the dairy’s product group? The milk group.
Excerpt 4:

T: Find the word and connect it with the right picture. Match. Draw a line

(Excerpts from a Home Economics lesson on “Dairy Products”, grade 5 (age: 10), Cyprus)

Excerpt 5:

T: You take a product with your partner. Not one for each one of you. Ok? You are working with your couple.

(Excerpt from a Home Economics lesson on “Fruit”, grade 5 (age: 10), Cyprus)

In excerpt 1, the teacher tries to convey the meaning of the word ‘inland’ by rephrasing it in numerous ways. These attempts were also accompanied by gestures and intonation changes which indicated she was expecting students to verify whether or not they understood the meaning of the word. Paraphrasing is also used in excerpts 5 and 2 where the teacher actually explains the meaning of Oktoberfest. Excerpts 3 and 4 show the students using synonyms they think might be more familiar to the children. In fact, the teachers often use a combination of methods in order to build redundancy and make their input comprehensible.

In excerpt 3, for example, the teacher first repeats the question. She then shortens the question and uses another term for the focus of the question (dairy group instead of milk group). Finally, she repeats only the main focus of the question thus emphasising the key area she thinks the students may not have comprehended. As mentioned earlier, often the teachers (excerpts 1, 2, 3, 5) accompany these techniques with a confirmation check which indicates they are in tune with the children and are alert to verbal or visual feedback clues.

Teacher modelling of correct language use

At the initial stages of CLIL instruction, students frequently reply using single words or maybe two or three-word sentences or perhaps even just nod their head. The CLIL teacher is the primary and commonly the only language model for the learners. Therefore, the lower the students’ foreign language competence level, the more often
a CLIL teacher has to paraphrase, rephrase, restate or expand a child’s response correctly in order to model correct foreign language use.

Teacher modelling can also include modelling of correct pronunciation. Intelligible pronunciation is important to secure effective communication. Fortunately, young children, especially young pre-primary and early primary children, can usually pick it up easily. This correct modelling of words or phrases the children need help with is a useful technique. Nevertheless, teachers should not despair if not all students can pronounce a word accurately, despite the teacher’s best efforts.

Consider the following episode (excerpt 6):

Students: pinguins  
Teacher: penguins  
Students: pinguins  
Teacher: penguins  
Students: pinguins

(Excerpt from a CLIL storytelling session “Monkey and Me”, pre-primary (age: 4/5) Cyprus)

In the episode above, the teacher persists with modelling the correct pronunciation. Similar episodes about the particular word (penguins) appeared throughout the lesson yet many children persisted in producing inaccurate pronunciation. The teacher did not make an issue about this. She seemed to take it in her stride and patiently and calmly corrected the children every time, sometimes stopping to ask for choral repetitions of the word, but without allowing this to distract her from her lesson procedure.

Although, this teacher does not treat every pronunciation problem in this way, the word ‘penguin’ was one of the key words of the lesson. It was one of the targeted vocabulary items and it reappeared often.

There are times when the learners’ developmental level may not allow them to notice the teacher’s implicit corrections techniques such as paraphrasing or repetition. Still,
it is advisable to persist with these techniques since exposure to good-quality input is important. Furthermore, not all students are at the same developmental stage and some may benefit from the feedback offered through the correct modelling of the teacher even though some may not.

**Scaffolding through careful mother tongue use**

Ideally, CLIL teachers stick to the foreign language at all times. However, sometimes it is necessary for teachers to use the mother tongue too, especially at the initial stages of CLIL implementation or with students who are only just starting to learn the foreign language. Situations in which using the mother tongue might be acceptable and even necessary can occur when teachers and students reflect on the outcomes of experiments or seek to generalise learning results. In such cases, teachers might translate a key word or sentence in order to ensure understanding. Use of the L2 must be careful though since if a teacher often translates his/her sentences into L1, the students will eventually not pay attention to the L2 input and will only anticipate the translation of the intended message into the L1.

The issue of L1 use, its caveats and potential learning scaffolding benefits is a complex one and is expanded further in Chapter 4.

**2.2 Output-oriented scaffolding techniques**

Output-oriented techniques aim at enabling students to express their understanding, to contribute to the lesson in a meaningful way, and to practice their language skills through using the foreign language actively. This section will look at the following techniques:

- Providing key vocabulary and phrases
- Using supportive error correction
- Allowing for sufficient wait time for student responses
- Code-switching
- Offering verbal scaffolding to students (bridging/prompting)
- Offering alternative ways of expressing understanding (or misunderstanding)
**Providing key vocabulary and/ phrases**

One of the very basic aspects of output scaffolding is to provide the students with key vocabulary and phrases. These are not only required to enable input comprehension but also for production of output related to the specific content. This does not imply providing the students with lists of words but rather introducing important words and phrases in a meaningful way at key points in the lesson.

In the picture below, the blackboard writing that the teacher gradually develops when introducing the topic “ducks” in grade three (age 9) can be seen. While activating and collecting students’ pre-knowledge on ducks the teacher puts up the relevant words and structures on the blackboard. This requires careful planning by the teacher who needs to prepare the word strips and the pictures beforehand. This technique helps students to understand her input better and highlights the most important words for students to see and use in the follow-up phase when working on a worksheet on ducks.

![Image of blackboard writing](image)

**Source:** CLIL biology lesson, grade three, age: 9, topic: ducks, Georgia Müller, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/2009

Additional support may be provided by displaying key words or phrases in wall-posters or boards around the classroom.
Using supportive error correction

Often CLIL teachers worry that if they don’t correct language errors their students will remember words or structures incorrectly. Very often though, with beginning foreign language learners, errors can be developmental and/or reflect their native language (Lightbown & Spada 1999). Such developmental errors will probably not be corrected, even with teacher intervention, as the student is not ready to grasp the new form (Ellis, 1994), as was also mentioned in the discussion earlier and shown in the pre-primary excerpt (penguins) Nevertheless, rephrasing students ‘utterances using the correct words or structures can be helpful in that it provides the children with a source of good quality input. The benefits will most likely not be evident in the short term, however, and the teacher should not be disappointed by recurring errors in the students’ language.

Correction should always be done in a friendly and supportive manner, mainly by using indirect error correction techniques such as repeating an utterance while correcting the error or by asking clarification questions so as to enable the student to self-correct, if the student is able to do so.

With older students, a teacher may occasionally plan mini-lessons which focus on commonly made mistakes within a particular group or class. Additionally, the CLIL teacher can cooperate with the foreign language teacher, if students have both CLIL and foreign language classes, so that more attention can be given to problematic linguistic features during the foreign language lesson.

Older students can also benefit by direct correction as long as this is done in a supportive manner.

Allowing for sufficient wait time for student responses

Sometimes, student or novice teachers find it difficult to allow enough wait time for student responses. This has often been identified both in regular foreign language teaching and content classes alike. Experienced teachers who are aware of the value of sufficient wait time and are accustomed to providing adequate time for their students to formulate their response find that they have to extend that time even more in CLIL teaching. This stems from the fact that CLIL students need more time for
processing ideas in the new language and to formulate the phrasing of their thoughts (compare Echevarria et al., 2010: 133).

**Code-switching**

Students, especially at the early stages of CLIL, can be allowed to code-switch, that is to use L1 or L2 alternatively or a mixture of both languages in order more effectively get their message across or to carry on with the conversation (Butzkamm, 1998). However, if CLIL teachers feel that some students could produce more in the L2 than they actually do, they should encourage them to make an effort to communicate more in the L2, for example by explicitly asking for the answer in L2. When students use the L1, however, it is a good idea for the teacher to model back in the L2 (see excerpt 7 below), thus providing the required language which was perhaps lacking. This allows both the student who initiated the utterance, as well as the rest of the class, to be exposed to the linguistic information they were lacking.

Nevertheless, CLIL teachers are cautioned not to code-switch themselves unless there are well thought-out reasons, as described in Chapter 4).

**Offering verbal scaffolding to students (bridging/prompting)**

The CLIL teacher’s task is to bridge and prompt between what the students can say and what they want to say. The CLIL teacher, often being the only language model or more experienced other (Vygotsky, 1978), should act as the students’ caretaker and assist them in reaching their potential (zone of proximal development) by offering them verbal scaffolding.

**Excerpt 7**

T: Ok. What is this?
L: ψωμί (*bread*)
T: How is ψωμί in English? (*How do we say bread in English?*)
L: bread.
T: What’s this?
L: bread. It’s bread.
T: ok.
Excerpt 8:

T: Good. OK. Good for what? is good for what?
   For… ? (points to visual support on the board)
L: kanoun kalo stin ygeia mas (they are good for our health)
T: they are good for our health.

(Excerpt from a Home Economics lesson, Unit “Grains”, grade 5 (age: 10), Cyprus)

In the excerpts above we see how the teacher offers scaffolding to the student by encouraging them to use their own resources. In excerpt 7 the student offered the answer in Greek but the teacher, who may think he knows the word in the L2, solicits the student for the word in English and then continues to encourage him to give more than a one-word response.

In excerpt 8 the teacher, during a discussion on grains, accepts the answer that grains are “good”. She then prompts the student, to explain what grains are good for (“Good for what?”). She then waits for an answer, offers further scaffolding by beginning the answer (“for …”) and, points to visual support on the board where the student can read key vocabulary which is presented there. When the student resorts to his mother tongue, the teacher offers further help by translating his sentence and modeling an appropriate response in English, thus giving the student the language he was apparently lacking.

Offering alternative ways of expressing understanding (or misunderstanding)

Often, CLIL learners have learned the new content taught but have difficulty expressing their understanding in the L2, either orally or in writing. Therefore, CLIL teachers should try to provide students with alternative forms of expressing their understanding of information, concepts, skills or strategies. Hands-on activities and symbolic representations, such as pictures, pictographs, maps, and diagrams, can be used to reinforce the concepts and information presented, with a reduced linguistic demand on the students (Echevarria et al. 2010: 86). Students may be allowed to mime responses, demonstrate their understanding by using the symbolic representations found in charts or pictures, or alternatively, learners may be allowed
to use their mother tongue if the teacher deems this as appropriate in the learning context. In the picture below, fifth grade (10-year-old) students are introduced to the concept of the food pyramid which illustrates what a healthy diet consists of. As they have been learning English for only two years, they are not yet able to explain why foods belong to the various categories exclusively using the L2. Nonetheless, they are able to effectively demonstrate their content knowledge by placing pictures of different foods in the right place on the pyramid.

The following example shows how pre-primary students were assisted to show their understanding of a story by putting all the animals in the order they appeared in the story. Again, the students are allowed to indicate their comprehension and grasp of content without being asked for or forced into linguistic production.

Source: CLIL Home economics lesson, grade five, age: 10, Petroula Kourouklas-Koullou, Lythrodontas/Nicosia, (Cyprus), school year 2008/9

3. Content Scaffolding Techniques

This part of the chapter first discusses general guidelines that help CLIL teachers in assisting and supporting students’ understanding of the content. It then goes on to suggest a number of methods which can help in explaining content concepts. Finally, some techniques on how to explain tasks and to check students’ understanding are presented.

3.1 General guidelines for supporting the understanding of content

Selecting and adapting content knowledge to students’ developmental and cognitive level

Sometimes CLIL teachers, concerned about their students’ competence level in L2, might teach content that is below the students’ cognitive or developmental level or they might re-teach content that has already been taught in the mother tongue. Re-teaching content, simply for the sake of doing it in the L2, does not, however, employ the rationale on which CLIL is based. If teachers have to work with content already taught, they would have to engage with the content further and not simply re-teach it. This would mean that they could perhaps explore the content more deeply, perhaps through exploration and discovery or problem-solving techniques. In this case, although the first acquaintance with the content might have been made in L1, the students are still learning new content, skills or strategies and exploring knowledge further through the L2.

Overall, working with content that is predominantly new to the students is important in CLIL. Firstly, if the content is genuinely new, students tend to be more interested and thus try harder to comprehend and respond to the L2 input. This promotes more active engagement with the language and consequently fosters students’ language acquisition.

Nevertheless, at times teachers’ may have valid concerns as to whether or not the linguistic abilities of their students are sufficient enough to allow them to cope effectively with particular content areas. In such cases, and if it is permitted by the
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curriculum and the specific CLIL context, adjustments in selection of content may be necessary. This is particularly justifiable when there is a great amount of content to be taught and/or the students are beginners in the foreign language. Such a situation could be addressed by a careful selection of core knowledge and skills to be emphasised while peripheral areas might be assigned secondary importance.

Generally, however, teachers should try to employ a variety of ways and means, such as the ones presented here, so as to adapt the second language input and enable students to understand and engage with both the language and content. Suggestions on how to adapt the language level required by content learning activities to the students’ varying language competence are also explained in Chapter 7.

**Referring to previous knowledge and experiences/learning – linking to students’ interests and lives**

At the beginning of a CLIL lesson, the teacher makes connections to students’ prior knowledge - an important element in content subject methodology as well. Thus, CLIL teachers link the known with the unknown, the familiar with the unfamiliar. By drawing on students’ background knowledge, the CLIL teacher provides a scheme or frame of reference, for new material (Snow 1990: 161) thus supporting student comprehension. For instance, in the introductory phase of a teaching unit on the moon, the teacher asks students to write down on sticky notes what they know already about the moon as well as what else they would like to learn. Students’ interests are then discussed with reference to the planned lesson outline thus focusing their attention on what they will be learning. Teacher can also use a silent activity by putting up pictures at the board or displaying objects, and letting students associate first freely then in a more guided form on the lesson’s content topic.
Defining, displaying and reviewing content and language objectives with students

Using the sticky notes in the above described manner also allows CLIL teachers to define, display and review content and language objectives with the students. After completion of the unit the sticky notes are then discussed and evaluated in the light of the newly gained knowledge and understanding: “Was our pre-knowledge correct?” “Have we found answers to our questions?” “What else do we want to learn about the moon?”

Another technique which brings together previous knowledge, student interests and direction to the lesson is the well-known KWL chart (create by Olgle, 1986). The students can fill in a KWL chart at the beginning of the lesson. They can complete the first two sections: K (what I know), and W (What I want to know). This activates existing knowledge and experiences while encouraging student involvement and input as regards the direction of the lesson. Finally, at the end of the lesson the students can revisit the chart or diagram and complete the L section (what I learned) which allows them to evaluate if they achieved their goals as regards what they wanted to learn. It also offers the opportunity for students to develop initiative and autonomy in their learning.
3.2 Explaining content concepts

Several methods exist with which CLIL teachers can convey content concepts more successfully. Due to space limitations, this section will only focus on:

- Visualisation techniques
- Active discovery of concepts
- Group work on content concepts
- Review of key vocabulary and key content concepts during lessons

Using visualization techniques

Visualization techniques are a mainstay in teaching in general but acquire added importance in CLIL. Because they are not language dependent, visualization techniques assist in making CLIL content clear and meaningful by allowing the students to associate language with its concrete referent through pictures and real life objects (Snow, 1990: 161). Numerous means and methods can be subsumed under the heading of visualization techniques. Among others, computer simulation programmes, graphs, models, hands-on-manipulatives, body language, gestures etc. can be included here.

In a unit on the moon phases, the students are given a hands-on-manipulative which shows how people on earth see the different moon phases depending on where the moon is positioned in relationship to the earth and sun. After working with the simulation, the students draw and write down their findings.
In a biology lesson on ducks in grade three, the teacher wants the students to understand how duck webs function. Therefore, she lets the students build duck webs. The students then move the webs back and forth in a water basin. Later on, the class discusses how the web’s structure accounts for the fact that ducks can swim so well.

**Active discovery of concepts**

Teachers new to CLIL or who have a limited repertoire of CLIL appropriate teaching strategies may succumb to trying to explain complex content constructs using only the foreign language without added support. This approach almost always fails to achieve real student understanding. A CLIL teacher who understood this problem states:

“Today, I look at my teaching materials differently. I am more concerned whether the materials offer possibilities for my students to become active, where I can find materials that help me getting away from providing lots of input first and letting students draw something afterwards.” (ProCLIL teacher, interview, 2008)
That means instead of giving lengthy L2 explanations, successful CLIL teachers provide a variety of activities such as hands-on materials or manipulatives for students to explore new content knowledge through and stimulate learning. Such activities may include listening, speaking, reading, writing, watching, deciding, experimenting, cutting, gluing, painting, selecting, drawing, and so on.

The example below is from a biology lesson in grade three (age: 9) where students learn that animals can be classified into different species. In order to practice and widen students’ understanding of this concept, they are given a worksheet and mounted specimens of their respective animal species as tangible reference. Guided by the instructions on the worksheet, the students then examine and describe the specimens more closely.

Source: CLIL biology lesson, grade three, age: 9, topic: animal species, Nadine Schramm & Lisa Puschinski, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2007/8
Allowing students to discuss or work on content concepts in mother tongue

Observers attending CLIL lessons at the lower grades of primary teaching often remark in a surprised or even disappointed way that students primarily converse in the L1 among each other or even use it when talking to their teacher. Many argue that students should stick to the L2 in order to gain as much language practice as possible. Some are of the opinion that such a lesson might not qualify as ‘proper’ CLIL at all. But exclusive L2 use cannot and should not be expected of pre-primary or early primary students. They are linguistically not yet able to use the L2 for all the communicative functions, thinking processes or metacognitive processes they may need to perform the tasks asked of them in the lesson. At these early stages, children need opportunities to hear the L2 and become acquainted with the sounds and vocabulary of the new language but they are not expected to be able to produce output and respond to the needs of content learning entirely in L2.

It is, therefore, normal to see children at the beginning stages of CLIL use their L1 when in groups. Although L1 addressed to the teacher might be due to lack of the required L2 vocabulary, group work involves a number of other factors. Firstly, the language required in group tasks is more complicated than language required in teacher-fronted tasks. Students do not have the support of the teacher. They are required to manage their own interactions, discuss task instructions and carry out their task. It takes time and student training in order to reach a point when group work may be carried out in the L2. Even then students might resort to their L1 purely because of linguistic fatigue; a feeling often experienced by people who are not accustomed to spending a lot of time conversing in an L2.

Moreover, there can be benefits in using L1 during group work. Echevarria et al. (2010: 134) strongly believe that clarification of key concepts in students’ L1 is helpful. Discussing concepts with peers or even working on materials written in students’ L1 provide an important support for the academic learning of those students who are weaker in the foreign language. In CLIL teaching at primary level this might be even more important as in most countries primary schooling involves mixed ability classes where students’ skills and competences differ widely. Therefore, such a kind of differentiation (peer-discussions, L1 materials) is required to help students whose L2 competence is weak.
In a lesson on road safety in grade two, groups of students have to simulate given traffic situations with the help of toy cars, pedestrians and cyclists. To find a solution, they need to negotiate how and why the different traffic participants are placed on their toy road thus engaging in in-depth work with the concept, thus making it their own.

Source: CLIL social science lesson, grade two, age: 8, topic: traffic safety, Bianca Baier, Wolfegg (Germany), school year, 2008/9

Providing review of key vocabulary and key content concepts during lessons
Often CLIL learners need more time and opportunities to practice and revise content. Such opportunities can be provided through permanent or temporary displays of key words and concepts, through brief quizzes in the forms of games (board games, team games or electronic games) or songs and chants which involve the concept such as the songs found at http://www.songsforteaching.com. Such techniques provide quick and engaging ways of reminding the students’ of the key concepts.

Regularly checking understanding and giving feedback
Echevarria et al. (2006: 168) argue that students with little language skills devote considerable energy to figuring out what the teacher is saying or the text is telling them at a basic level. They are much less able to evaluate which pieces of information among all the input they receive are important to remember. Therefore, regularly checking students’ understanding is crucial to CLIL teaching (compare also Snow, 1990: 161).
This can take place through careful and systematic observation of the students’ responses as well as through spot-checking activities which the teacher intersperses in the lesson. More ideas for checking understanding can be found in Chapter 7.

### 3.3 Explaining tasks

Crucial to a CLIL lesson’s success is that students understand precisely what they are expected to do. Therefore, CLIL teachers need to give considerable attention to their task instructions and how to make them clear and comprehensible to students. The following will provide ideas on how to do that.

**Using clear instructions for assignments and activities**

Using clear instructions as well as predictability in instructional routines such as in lesson openings or closings, in assignments or in homework helps provide CLIL learners with more support and structure so they can more easily anticipate meaning when they don’t understand the language (Snow 1990: 161). One way to facilitate understanding of complex task instructions, which involve explaining how to work with different kinds of methods, is to always give the instructions at the same place. For instance, in the classroom depicted below the teacher consistently uses a table at the back of her classroom to lays out all the materials required for the work phase of any lesson. She lays them out in the order in which they are needed. She then calls her students to this table, explains the different task steps by pointing to the materials or by demonstrating their use. The picture below illustrates this and shows a table on which all the materials for making or painting a sunflower are laid out.

*Source: CLIL art lesson, grade one, age: 7, topic: sunflowers, Nadine Schramm, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2007/8*
Providing a model of a process, task, or assignment

Due to students’ limited language competence a CLIL teacher often cannot explain how to do an experiment or a complex task just by telling students how to do it. Students are more likely to succeed in following the task instructions if they are given a concrete model of the process, task or assignment. For example, in a lesson on teeth care in grade one, a teacher wants the students to carry out an experiment which shows how fluoride gels can protect the teeth against acid liquids. The teacher demonstrates the experiment in front of the students while describing all the time what she is doing. She puts the egg into an egg cup and draws a horizontal line around the egg, differentiating the two halves of the egg. Then, she applies some fluoride gel to one side of the egg shell and leaves the other side of the egg without any treatment. The egg is then put into a glass filled with vinegar. Then, in order to revise the different steps of the experiment and to assure that all students know what they have to do, the teacher pins pictures of the different steps involved in a scrambled order at the board and asks the students to put them in the right order before starting to work on their own experiment. Once students have successfully placed the steps in the appropriate order, they are allowed to proceed with the experiment.

Source: CLIL biology teaching, grade one, age: 7, topic: teeth care, Maxime Deichfuß, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2007/8

The second example below was used in a teaching unit on the moon. The unit contained a phase in which student groups worked alone at different stations. The advance organizer informs students on the different working steps their task entails; thereby, they can work more independently from their teacher.
Checking the understanding of task instructions

Checking for understanding throughout the task stage of a CLIL lesson is essential. Although CLIL teachers might have provided the best task assignment possible, there may be students who have not paid close attention while the instructions were being given or those who have lost track of what they were supposed to do. Of course, this holds true for other stages of a lesson as well. Teachers must take the time to review, summarize and clarify at different points in a lesson and particularly during the final plenary (see section 3.1).

Understanding task instructions is extremely important. Student failure to understand can result in valuable learning time wasted. Students who don’t understand fully what they are expected to do can easily get off task, creating behavioural problems and classroom disruptions such as inappropriate noise and distracting other students. It is, therefore, advisable, before students are asked to begin work on their task, for the teacher to verify they have understood. A variety of methods can be employed to check understanding. The teacher can ask for a nod or a positive answer or elicit more than this. Comprehension of task instructions can be checked by asking a student to explain the instructions to the rest of the class (sometimes perhaps in the L1), or by asking a pair or group to carry out a model task for the rest to see how it works.
4. Learning Process Scaffolding

CLIL teachers, like all teachers, work in an environment where there is diversity of general learning as well as language learning styles and therefore need to teach in ways which cater to all students’ needs. In addition, they need to offer learners the best assistance possible so as to make the students’ learning experience a successful and pleasant one. It is, therefore, essential to teach students a variety of learning strategies which can potentially make the learning task easier; pending of course on the students’ learning styles and preferences. The range of learning strategies is too wide to include in this chapter. Although a few strategies will be touched on here, more learning strategies can be found in O’Malley and Chamot (1980) and Chamot (1999).

Reading texts

Working with L2 texts can be especially difficult for CLIL students at primary level. Therefore, CLIL teachers need to introduce and practice skills and strategies for reading texts. There are many skills and strategies which can make the students’ work easier. Reading skills and their effective application requires an awareness of the type of task needing to be carried out. Strategies, on the other hand, come useful while the reading task is being carried out. Some of the most useful strategies for CLIL learners are predictive strategies, strategies for inferring meaning from context and making use of pictures and other visual or layout support.

The following is an example of an activity for older primary school students which can train students to better respond to a text that contains new vocabulary or structures, while alleviating them of the feeling that they must understand every new item within a text.

1. Read the text and choose three words you need to know the meaning of.
2. Read the text again. Talk with your partner and find two words you both need to know the meaning of.
3. Read the text again. Decide with your partner on ONE word you need to know the meaning of.
The activity depends of course on the text and the reading task but it encourages the students to understand that they can carry out the reading task without knowing every single word in the text. It also encourages discussion and strategy-sharing with peers.

**Using scanning techniques to read a text**

Scanning is a valuable reading technique in that it encourages students to focus on the information they are looking for without being distracted by unknown words. It also encourages tolerance of unknown words in a text and shows students, as in the example above that tasks can be achieved and meaning derived without understanding every discrete word.

In the example below, fifth graders (10-year-olds) who are in their second year of English, are being guided by the CLIL teacher in using scanning as a way to retrieve information from a difficult text. In this case, the teacher and the students search for the required information which is linked to key words such as sugar, preservatives (E 528 or others) and expiry date. Once the class collaboratively carries out a sample scanning task on the board, the students are asked to work in pairs and analyse the packaging of various products. Once they fill in their results in a chart, they present their findings to the class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Product</th>
<th>Sugar</th>
<th>Preservatives</th>
<th>Expiry Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jelly Beans</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>12/10/11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** CLIL home economics lesson, grade five, age: 10, topic: healthy food, Petroula Kouroukla-Skoullou, Lythrodontas/Nicosia, (Cyprus), school year 2008/9
**Teaching content specific working strategies**

Already at an early age CLIL learners are engaging with beginning versions of the discourse of specific curriculum content areas (compare McKay, 2006: 33). Therefore, content subject specific techniques such as carrying out surveys and presenting the results of the survey in a chart need to be introduced and practiced. The example below carried out in grade two shows the result of a survey on how many and what kinds of pets the pupils in the class have.

![Chart showing pet ownership in grade two](image)

**Source:** Student workbook, grade two, age: 8, chart on numbers and types of pets among pupils in class, Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/9

**Teaching with the help of advance or graphic organizers**

An advance or graphic organizer is information that is presented prior to learning and that can be used by the learner to organize and interpret new incoming information (Mayer, 2003). Examples are, among others: timelines, flow charts, semantic maps, and the like.

The example below stems from a biology lesson on wild boars in grade three. On their own, the students are required to retrieve important information on the wild boar from a picture. The graphic organizer provides the students with a structure into which they can write down the information they distil from the picture and thus potentially helps them to understand and learn the information better.
The wild boar
The wild boar lives in the ………………… .
It eats …………………, …………………, …………………. or a ………………… .

wild boar father:
  name: ………………… (…………………). colour: …………………
  big teeth (Zähne): ………………… (…………………)

wild boar mother:
  name: ………………… (…………………). colour: …………………

young wild boar:
  name: ………………… (…………………). colour: …………………

Source: CLIL biology lesson, grade three, topic: wild boars, Felicia Link, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/9

Using mnemonics
A mnemonic device is a memory and/or learning aid. Most often, mnemonics are verbal - such as a very short poem or a special word used to help a person remember something - but it may be visual, kinesthetic or auditory. Mnemonics rely on associations between easy-to-remember constructs that can be related back to the data that is to be remembered. This is based on the principle that the human mind more easily remembers spatial, personal, surprising, humorous or otherwise meaningful information than arbitrary sequence (adapted from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mnemonic). Echevarria et al. (2010) suggest using mnemonics to help students remember how to spell words, but mnemonics can also be used to internalise content knowledge or concepts. The example below was used by a teacher in her lesson on the constellation of planets in grade four and is adapted from a lesson found on the website http://www.teachingideas.co.uk/science/orderingplanets.htm where many other examples for mnemonics on the same topic can be found. Moreover, teachers can also ask the children to try to make up their own mnemonic devices.
Conclusion

This chapter has tried to show a variety of teaching techniques which have been identified as useful both from the existing literature but also from our experience in CLIL implementations in primary and pre-primary education. As shown in the table below, the techniques were divided into three broad categories (verbal scaffolding, content scaffolding and learning process scaffolding). Verbal scaffolding focussed on ways for making teachers’ input comprehensible for students as well as ways to encourage and support output production by students. Content scaffolding techniques focussed on helping explain content concepts and explaining tasks in the L2. Lastly, learning process scaffolding techniques that can assist learners in both CLIL and general learning contexts were briefly dealt with.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Scaffolding Techniques:</th>
<th>Content Scaffolding Techniques</th>
<th>Learning Process Scaffolding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input-oriented scaffolding techniques</strong></td>
<td><strong>Output-oriented scaffolding techniques</strong></td>
<td><strong>Explaining content concepts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using level-appropriate speech</td>
<td>Providing key vocabulary and/ or phrases</td>
<td>Using visualization techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>** Animating Language**</td>
<td>Using supportive error correction</td>
<td>Active discovery of concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building redundancy</td>
<td>Sufficient wait time for student responses</td>
<td>Allowing students to discuss or work on content concepts in mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher modelling</td>
<td>Allowing for Code-switching</td>
<td>Providing review of key vocabulary and key content concepts during lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaffolding through mother tongue use</td>
<td>Offering verbal scaffolding to students</td>
<td>Regularly checking understanding and giving feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering alternative ways of expressing understanding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1: Presentation of effective teaching techniques for CLIL

Not all the above techniques may be relevant for every teacher and every teaching context. It is hoped, however, that they can offer some insight for teachers as to what goes on in a variety of CLIL classrooms and perhaps offer them some guidance and ideas which can make their work both easier and more effective.
References


Clegg, J. (2001). “Education through the medium of a second language”. In Edelhoff, Christoph. Neue Wege im Fremdsprachenunterricht. (pp. 55-63). Hannover: Schroedel Verlag,


Chapter 6:
Guidelines for Evaluating and Developing CLIL Materials

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1. Introduction

This handbook chapter provides an overview of currently available CLIL teaching materials for the primary and pre-primary classroom and presents guidelines for developing and/or evaluating and adapting CLIL teaching materials that draw on EFL and subject content methodologies. The chapter will begin by discussing the relevance of teaching materials in CLIL. It will then provide an overview of currently available CLIL teaching materials in Europe (for English). It goes on to illustrate criteria for developing and/or evaluating and adapting CLIL teaching materials developed within PROCLIL. It presents examples of good practice from materials developed by experienced PROCLIL teachers. The chapter concludes with the recommendation that, in order to promote CLIL on a wider scale, the development and distribution of further materials is essential. A list of internationally available CLIL teaching materials is attached.

2. Relevance of teaching materials in CLIL implementations

“What CLIL teaching materials are there?” is one of the first questions from teachers new to CLIL. “How can I create my own?” often comes next. Interviews carried out
in PROCLIL show that primary school teachers often lack adequate teaching materials for Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL):

Q: What are the challenges of CLIL for you as a teacher?
A: Preparation is a lot more time consuming due to the fact that there are little or no teaching materials at all suitable for our curriculum. You have to prepare and research almost everything yourself, and that is very time consuming.

Q: What difficulties do you face [when teaching through CLIL]?
A: Teaching Materials, finding appropriate teaching materials. […] And the technical terms are a real challenge for teachers. You don’t talk about planets or hibernation every day. You need words that you don’t necessarily have ready at hand.

(Source: Interviews PROCLIL/Germany 2008/primary school teachers)

The lack of adequate CLIL teaching materials often makes the practical realisation of CLIL challenging. Where available, CLIL teaching materials are usually written for contexts and curricula different to one’s own. Clegg pointed out in January 2007 that “[t]eaching materials in CLIL programmes are a problem. […] Commercial materials are rare because there is normally hardly any market for them. The number of users is small; the books can often only be written to the requirements of a country’s national curriculum and do not easily sell across national boundaries” (Clegg 2007). Therefore, the development of teaching materials is often left to the individual teacher and can make CLIL lesson preparation time-consuming.

When PROCLIL started in October 2006, the teaching materials situation was similar in all partner countries - initial research for adequate material often did not produce any results. If Clegg (2007) says that commercial CLIL materials were rare in general, this was especially true for the primary and pre-primary classes: CLIL-coursebooks were available mainly for teaching at secondary level.

In some countries, such as Cyprus and Turkey, where no CLIL teaching materials in the sense of books were available at all, CLIL teachers mainly relied on adapting
target language materials, and on creating their own resources. Where available, CLIL materials usually needed to be adapted. Often, as in the case of Germany, the materials were not country specific (i.e. the available CLIL teaching materials were written for contexts and curricula different to one’s own, cf. Clegg 2007), but even where country specific published materials were available, as in Spain, they were frequently found to be inappropriate and are only now (2009) being gradually improved to better meet curricular aims.

While creating teaching materials always is a challenging task, this is especially true for CLIL materials, where content learning systematically merges with foreign language learning: “[…] the question of CLIL materials development and evaluation is such a great challenge because demanding, systematic content learning and foreign language learning come together simultaneously, because both are correlated with the selection of information and text choice and their methodological design from the beginning and need to be integrated (Vollmer 99: 243).”

The function of CLIL teaching materials with regard to the CLIL-approach used in PROCLIL (see Chapter 1) is important in setting the stage for successful CLIL implementation, i.e. to plan and carry out both subject-specific and foreign language learning processes. Therefore, teaching materials are regarded as a central tool in the lesson planning, organisation and the development/teaching of CLIL, which considerably affects the CLIL lesson and its success. To support primary and pre-primary school teachers in this regard, existing teaching materials were researched within PROCLIL, and guidelines for their evaluation and/or the design of new teaching materials were developed. To achieve the expertise for such an undertaking, representatives of content subject and foreign-language methodologies from different universities worked together to develop the list of criteria described in the course of this article (cf. Massler et al. 2008). These guidelines served as a basis for the development of teaching materials in PROCLIL, which can be found on the project website www.proclil.org.
3. **Currently available CLIL teaching materials in Europe (for English)**

With the increasing popularity of CLIL, new CLIL products are being developed internationally and nationally. They come in different formats, and can be categorized into:

- parts of coursebooks or coursebooks with CLIL elements (for example ‘Playway’, ‘Green Keystones’ (national/Germany)),
- magazines (‘Take off!’ (national/Germany)),

The above mentioned publications differ as regards their focus on language and/or content. The diagram below will be used later to describe the overall focus of each publication, thus hoping to offer support in choosing materials appropriate for one’s own context.

![Diagram showing focus on language and content](compare Hood 2005, in Coyle online)
3.1 Coursebooks, magazines and parts of coursebooks
Two primary CLIL coursebooks, ‘first choice’ and ‘Explorers’ are available in Switzerland. They are designed to be used for English language instruction through CLIL, i.e. they contain units on science, geography and history as well as on intercultural learning, but their main focus is on the English language. ‘first choice’ consists of 10 modules for grade 2 and 3 (7 and 8-year-olds) and prepares students for instruction with the coursebook ‘Explorers’ in years 4, 5 and 6. The focus of ‘first choice’ is predominantly on language (surface cross-curricular linking, MFL approach), whereas ‘Explorers’, puts a stronger focus on content (integrating language and recycling/deepening content). ‘Explorers’ includes a considerable amount of text work, thus requiring a high level of language proficiency of students.


Several German publishing houses offer magazines, special issues of magazines and/or parts of coursebooks with materials for CLIL. Westermann publishes the magazine ‘Take off!’ and published an issue of ‘Grundschule’ on CLIL (‘Bilinguales Lernen’, April 2007), both focusing on language as well as on content, while Cornelsen published an issue of ‘First Steps – Newsletter für den früh beginnenden Englischunterricht’ on the topic of sports. Several coursebooks for primary school English in Germany now include CLIL sections, e.g. ‘Playway’ and ‘Green Keystones’, as well as ‘Discovery’ (discovery pages); they focus, however, predominantly on the language aspect.

3.2 Supplementary materials and websites
In comparison with coursebooks, supplementary materials are low priced and can be used flexibly. They present a pool of ideas as well as instantly applicable teaching aids. However, they are usually only available on selected topics and cannot systematically develop language and content in the way coursebooks can.

Websites are increasingly popular due to their accessibility and wealth of materials. Some examples are: ‘Nina Lauder’, ‘Onestopclil’, ‘Richmond’. There are, however, many more websites and some offer free materials or allow teachers to exchange materials with other colleagues. The PROCLIL website has a good selection of helpful website links organised according to pre-primary or primary level and according to CLIL subjects taught.

4. Criteria for developing and/or evaluating and adapting CLIL teaching materials

Although more and/or improved CLIL teaching materials have become available from publishers over the past few years, the situation is far from satisfactory. Of course existing teaching materials from other countries or contexts can provide ideas. However, teachers still face the challenge of choosing and adapting those materials, and/or of creating the major part of their teaching materials themselves.

In the framework of PROCLIL, guidelines to help teachers and student teachers develop and/or evaluate and adapt teaching materials were developed. These guidelines are based on research findings from other projects, theoretical literature on CLIL, teacher training sessions, discussions with teachers and on observations of CLIL lessons and evaluations of lesson plans. Student teachers and experienced practising teachers involved in PROCLIL used the criteria to adapt and/or develop, test and evaluate teaching materials for their own contexts.

Teaching materials developed during PROCLIL are available on the PROCLIL website, which will be regularly updated in order to support CLIL teachers. Samples from those lesson plans and materials will be used in the paragraphs below so as to
explain and illustrate the criteria and how they are reflected in the CLIL materials developed within PROCLIL.

4.1 Aims/learning outcomes for content and language (specified)

In CLIL, teaching objectives are usually based on the content curriculum and language focus is decided based on the content aims. CLIL teachers determine – while based on the content’s curricular aims for a particular subject – what knowledge and skills need to be achieved both in the area of subject content and in the area of language skills. Questions to consider are: Which aims, with regard to language, content and study skills should be achieved? Are the content subject aims and linguistic aims clear? Do the language aims support the content aims? Do content curricular aims equal the content subject’s curricular aims in the L1? Is the concept/language appropriate for the learners’ level of competence? Does the content and/or the language need to be adapted?

Source: CLIL music lesson, “classroom instruments”, pre-primary (ages 4/5), Stella Michaelidou, Nicosia (Cyprus), 2007/2008

Source: CLIL music lesson, grade 3 (age 8), Unit ‘Woodwind Instruments – Introduction: What is sound?’, Gertrud Heine, Bodnegg (Germany), school year 2008/2009

The examples above were taken from a pre-primary lesson on music developed by Stella Michaelidou and from an introductory lesson to a primary unit on ‘Woodwind Instruments” developed by Gertrud Heine. Both topics were chosen from the L1 content curriculum, as were the content objectives for the topic. Then, based on the content aims, the teachers decided on the most important language. Based on that, they designed materials for hands-on experiences with classroom instruments (pre-primary example) and sounds (primary example), making the unit appropriate for the learners’ level of competence from both the content and the language point of view.
4.2 Target language and mother tongue (ratio English/MT)

CLIL teaching materials are usually written in the target language (English) to increase the amount and time of exposure to the foreign language; the use of the mother tongue requires careful consideration. If it is necessary to use teaching materials in the L1, skilled CLIL teachers make sure that English and mother tongue materials complement each other, so that mother tongue materials are not a mere translation of the foreign language materials. Questions to consider are: How much of the material is in English, how much is in the L1? If the L1 is used, why is it used (e.g. use of the L1 is essential for understanding)? Do English and L1 passages complement each other (versus mere translation)?


In the case of a unit on the topic ‘Grains’ developed by Petrula Kouroukla-Skoullou and Sophie Ioannou-Georgiou for grade 5 (age 10), all the materials were in English, except for a very specialized text on the role of fibres in nutrition (see excerpt above). Here the teacher decided to include an L1 text to deepen learners’ understanding, since a text in the target language (English) would have been beyond the pupils’ current level of English language competence.

4.3 Early foreign language teaching principles/techniques

CLIL materials also use principles/techniques of early foreign language teaching. These techniques can help minimise mother tongue use without minimising the subject content, even when the pupils’ language competence is low. This includes pre-teaching, repetition and recycling of key words and language structures and the
Guidelines for CLIL Implementation in Primary and Pre-Primary Education

careful balance between unknown and known language items. Well-designed CLIL materials focus on carefully introducing the new language and make sure that additional support is provided wherever necessary (language frames, etc.). Questions to consider are: Are key vocabulary and language structures introduced? What is the proportion of known to unknown words and structures? Are key vocabulary and language structures recycled? Do the students work with all the ‘four skills’ (speaking, listening, reading, and writing)? How relevant is the content vocabulary for everyday communication? Is the language appropriate for the learners’ level of competence?

The example above, a handout from a home economics lesson, shows instructions for a pizza recipe. The students are assisted by having the information broken into small chunks. In order to ensure and support understanding, key vocabulary is not just given to the students, but the students are invited to engage with the new words by having to match them with the pictures. This process is carried out both for the utensils and the ingredients of the recipe. However, for the ingredients the students also need to add the quantities wherever there is a box under a picture. This example shows how

Source: CLIL home economics, grade 5 (age 10), Unit ‘Grains’, Petrula Kouroukla-Skoullou /Sophie Ioannou-Georgiou, Lythrodontas/Nicosia (Cyprus), school year 2008/09
support is offered by breaking information into small chunks and adding visualization in order to ensure the language is accessible and appropriate for the learners’ level of competence.

4.4 Visual support (comprehensibility / clarity / layout)

Increased visualisation is a key point in CLIL teaching materials. It supports students’ understanding and motivation. Content knowledge can be visualized in different ways, e.g. through maps or graphs. Visualisations can either complement or support the understanding of written as well as spoken text, or replace written instructions. If worksheets are mainly self-explanatory or only need little further explanations by the teacher in the target language, pupils can more easily work independently. Questions to consider are: Do visual materials and written or spoken texts complement each other? Do visual materials support the understanding of written or spoken text? Do the materials make use of a variety of visualisations, e.g. maps, graphs, photos, films, etc.? Do the materials encourage/motivate students?

In this example, taken from a unit on the topic ‘Sunflowers’ developed by Anja Mühr for grade 2 (age 7), visualisations support the understanding of written instructions. The written instructions alone would have been too difficult for the students’ current level of understanding, but the added visual support enabled them to work independently, significantly increasing their motivation and encouraging learner-autonomy.

Source: CLIL science, grade 2 (age 7), Unit ‘Sunflower’, Anja Mühr, Weingarten/Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/2009
4.5 Content subject teaching principles/techniques

As was mentioned earlier, in CLIL teaching materials, topic selection and teaching principles/techniques follow the content subject’s syllabus and the language is chosen accordingly. The teaching materials deal with the subject’s content in the foreign language and are based on subject-specific teaching principles and techniques (e.g. action oriented learning/independent learning/discovery learning). Questions to consider are: Are the topics appropriate for the learners’ level of competence? Is students’ prior knowledge activated? Is there perhaps a substantial discrepancy between students’ language skills and students’ prior knowledge in a specific subject area? Are certain aspects of a topic, which might otherwise be too demanding for the students, pre-taught? Do the materials refer to or rely on students’ questions and/or experiences, i.e. are they relevant for the students? Do the materials encourage project work, experiments, etc.? Do the tasks support independent learning? Do the materials build up and promote subject-specific and/or global study skills (describing, analysing, researching, etc.)? Do the materials encourage pair or group work activities? Do the materials encourage students to reflect on their work?

Source: CLIL science, grade 4 (age 9), Unit ‘Stars and Planets’, Lydia Kreft, Anna Lipfert, Ute Pilz, Florian Wolf, Freiburg/Bodnegg (Germany), school year 2007/2008

In the example, a page from a discovery booklet developed for a unit on ‘The Moon’, the materials are based on discovery and exploration (experiments), which are
appropriate techniques for the teaching of science. The students’ pre-knowledge was activated in advance using a ‘…what we know…’ poster and their questions and/or experiences were referred to in a ‘…what we want to know…’ poster (see Chapter 7). The experiments were performed in groups and with the help of manipulatives (model, torch). The materials allowed students to document their findings through drawings, thus avoiding written explanations that would have been too demanding in the foreign language. In the end, the students’ findings were discussed and reflected on in class, using the discovery booklets and the posters described above.

4.6 Differentiation
Differentiation is especially important in primary CLIL teaching materials because pupils can differ greatly with regard to their foreign-language and content learning levels. Furthermore, pupils have different ways of achieving learning, and their interests often diverge considerably. Through differentiation, pupils’ motivation can be maintained, something which is, as interviews with CLIL teachers and their pupils show, an essential factor for effective CLIL lessons (cf. Coyle, 2006, p. 7). Questions to consider are: Are different levels, learning styles and learning interests supported through the materials? Can the materials be used flexibly?

Source: CLIL science, grade 3 (age 8), Unit ‘Weather’, Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/2009
In a unit on the topic ‘The Weather’ (grade 3), CLIL teacher Ina Willauer-Bohle developed materials for observing the weather. Depending on their foreign language level, the students could either do this by drawing or by writing in English or (partly) in the L1. The materials were thus adapted to the foreign language competence of the individual learners.

### 4.7 Intercultural learning

Certain topics offer the possibility to encourage and/or extend intercultural learning, i.e. by using authentic material and/or by encouraging the pupils’ to compare their own culture to a different culture. This is, however, only possible with selected topics. Questions to consider are: Are the students’ encouraged to compare their own culture to a different culture? Do the materials avoid stereotypes? Is authentic material used?

The above example is taken from a unit on ‘Native Americans’ in a CLIL science lesson developed by teacher Gertrud Heine for grade 3 (age 8). The material encouraged the students to think in detail about the homes Native American tribes used to live in in different geographical parts of America. They did this based on pre-existing knowledge and knowledge discussed during the lesson; the teaching materials
clearly illustrated that different tribes built and lived in different homes, not just the stereotypical tepee. To expand on this, students also learned about the ways of life of different tribes and made models of Native American homes.

**Conclusion**

CLIL teaching materials offer vital support to teachers during the realisation of a complex teaching approach. Often a similar competence in both content subject and foreign language cannot be expected from all teachers. Therefore, appropriate teaching materials and, in the case of materials from publishing houses, detailed teacher guidance including background information on topic, language and methodological (principles/techniques) features is of great importance to ease teachers’ workload and thus to further support CLIL implementation.

PROCLIL made a start to this by researching teaching materials, developing guidelines for the design and/or evaluation and adaption of teaching materials and, most importantly, by uploading a large number of teaching materials developed by the project teachers on its website and making them freely available to interested teachers. However, in order to promote CLIL on a wider scale in primary and pre-primary education, the development and distribution of further materials either by publishing houses, programme leaders or individual dedicated teachers is essential.

**References**


**List of CLIL materials**

**CLIL coursebooks**


**Parts of coursebooks / coursebooks with CLIL elements**
Discovery. Braunschweig: Westermann/Schroedel/Diesterweg. (partly in German)
Green Keystones. Braunschweig: Westermann/Schroedel/Diesterweg. (partly in
German)
Lasso Sachbuch mit Englisch. Wien: öbvhpt. (partly in German)
Playway. Stuttgart: Klett. (partly in German)
Young World. Zug: Klett und Balmer. (partly in German)

**Magazines**
Take Off! Braunschweig: Westermann/Schroedel/Diesterweg. (partly in German)

**Supplementary Materials**
Learners*. Oxford: OUP.
Cornelsen/OUP.

**Websites (a sample)**
Nina Lauder: [http://ninaspain.blogspot.com/](http://ninaspain.blogspot.com/)
Chapter 7:
Assessment in CLIL learning

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1. Introduction

This chapter will deal with the assessment of students’ learning in CLIL teaching. Under assessment PROCLIL considers all methods used to gather information about children’s knowledge, abilities, understanding, attitudes, and motivation. It can be carried out through a number of instruments and can be either formal or informal (Ioannou-Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003:4).

Assessment in CLIL teaching at pre-primary and primary level basically follows the principles for good assessment practice valid for teaching young learners in any context. However, CLIL assessment differs from regular assessment in several ways. Firstly, due to the dual focus on language and content, CLIL assessment needs to account for the goals and objectives of two different subjects, including knowledge, competences, skills, attitudes, and behaviour, for both language and content as compared to one subject in the case of conventional teaching.

Furthermore, due to the relative newness of the CLIL approach, teachers are often fairly insecure about how to assess CLIL learning. This is understandable considering assessment in CLIL is, perhaps, one of the least developed areas in CLIL programmes. There is still a lack of official regulations for the assessment of learners’ attainment in CLIL teaching. In addition to this, most teachers, researchers and course book writers working with CLIL come from a foreign language teaching background and are typically not trained in the respective content subjects’ assessment and teaching practices. Because of this, the majority of the few available teaching materials in CLIL primarily focus on teaching and assessing language competences.
and not on the content of CLIL lessons. Therefore, evaluating students’ content learning is often neglected. Typically, the same lack of attention to assessment of content holds true for theoretical publications on CLIL teaching methodology as well. Having identified this existing need, and working within the model of CLIL teaching which has been adopted by PROCLIL (balanced dual learning), this chapter aims to theoretically as well as practically exemplify ways of assessing CLIL teaching learning outcomes with regard to both language and content.

This chapter will start out by describing how PROCLIL’s understanding of CLIL determines its conception of good CLIL assessment practice. Then, principles for assessment in CLIL teaching will be presented. The principles are informed by the theoretical and research background on current best practices in student assessment. These principles will be illustrated with the help of authentic assessment tasks developed by PROCLIL teachers or adapted by them from published CLIL course books.

2. A rationale for CLIL assessment

CLIL is still a rather novel approach and therefore students’ learning is often assessed by researchers or stakeholders other than students, teachers and parents in order to evaluate a programme’s success. This programme accountability function is not part of the assessment methods recommended here. Instead, assessment in this chapter deals exclusively with the assessment of the students’ learning. This chapter looks into ways of classroom assessment which are directly linked to the students, teachers and parents and have a direct and immediate effect on the improvement of the students’ learning.

The CLIL approach adopted by PROCLIL is one in which language learning does not dominate content learning but where the language serves as a means of instruction. Important too, is that the content that is introduced to students is mostly new to them and has not been previously taught in their mother tongue. Within this CLIL approach, teaching aims and methods originate from the content subject.
consequence, so does CLIL assessment. Language and content are both aspects of this dual-focused approach and both areas should be assessed. This means that in CLIL assessment there are two different sets of learning aims, of teaching methodologies, of assessment processes, and of administrative regulations involved. CLIL does not fall into any other previous category of learning. It is neither purely language teaching nor purely content teaching, nor is it immersion education. It is clear, therefore, that there is a need for a set of CLIL-specific guidelines to assessment.

This does not mean that assessment for CLIL will be a completely new area. On the contrary, the guidelines which follow are based on good assessment practices which have been established through practice and research in the field of education and of language learning. What is proposed, is a set of guidelines which will help teachers apply these established assessment practices while balancing the dual-focus of their teaching and the challenges that accompany such a task.

**Influence of context on assessment practices**

As with all sound assessment practices, CLIL assessment practices, means and methods, need to reflect and be suitable for the specific educational context to which they are applied. What is valid and good practice in one context, may not be appropriate elsewhere. For example; it is not permitted to teach writing or to carry out written tests in EFL learning in the second grade in the state of Baden-Wurttemberg, Germany (Verordnung über die Schülerbeurteilung in Grund- und Sonderschulen §2 Abs.4). It is, therefore, important to emphasise that assessment practices and examples presented here reflect specific teaching contexts and regulations, practices and methods valid within these given contexts. Teachers wishing to use these examples might need to adapt them to their individual context, especially since CLIL teaching contexts often vary widely (see Chapter 1). Some examples of factors which can vary from context to context and which directly relate to assessment are the duration of pre-primary and primary school instruction, the age at which students start learning their first foreign language and general official regulations governing education.
Having laid out the basic assumptions of our assessment concept, the following chapter will now turn to the key issues with regard to the assessment of students’ learning in CLIL.

3. Key issues in assessing CLIL learning

Understandably, devising assessment tasks and procedures that fit two different subjects involves many challenges. One of the many key issues is:

“The extent to which language and subject assessment are assessed at the same time and through the same tasks and activities. Where they are integrated, the impact of the mode of integration on the assessment outcomes needs to be understood. For example, if a child in a primary school assessment task in geography performs poorly, is it because of her limited understanding of the geography concepts or details, because she has not understood the question or because she cannot express her understanding clearly?” (Kiely, 2009, online)

This is a key issue which will be relevant and recurring in most of the discussion which follows and targets important questions in the area of CLIL assessment.

3.1 What is assessed?

It has already been emphasised that CLIL assessment should assess both content and language. It should also abide by good educational practice and aim to assess other main aims pursued by education in general, regardless of content area. Some of these areas are the students’:

- cognitive development,
- social and behavioural skills
- civic society skills
- environmental awareness
- technological literacy
The present chapter focuses, however, on what is specific to CLIL and as such it will focus on areas which are of primary importance to CLIL teaching:

- development in foreign language competence
- development in the content area
- development of positive attitudes towards both the foreign language and content area
- development of strategic competence in both the language and content

Another area which is central to the rational of most CLIL programmes is the development of intercultural awareness and promotion of intercultural education. It is an area of primary importance but, due to limitations of space, this area will not be dealt with in great depth here.

**a. Assessing foreign language learning**

In the CLIL model adopted here, it is clear that language assessment takes place in all aspects of CLIL teaching and learning and involves several different areas which need to be defined in more detail. Fundamental to CLIL is that instruction needs to teach students the language skills they need to master academic skills and knowledge. This means that children have to learn the specific discourse of their CLIL subject content areas such as science, social studies, physical education or mathematics. McKay illustrates how this occurs:

"Young learners are already engaging at an early age with beginning versions of the discourse of specific curriculum content areas (for example, ‘Pour sand into the scales. Is it heavier or lighter than the stone on the other side?’). As they progress through the elementary years, the content areas become more specialized, and the language used to talk about and learn the content becomes more linguistically complex and academically demanding.” (McKay, 2006: 33)

The language that McKay refers to is termed as CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), a term coined by Cummins in 1979, who first drew attention to the difference between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and
language skills and competences needed in more academic contexts. BICS allows an individual to function at various social, everyday situations and can usually be acquired through such social interactions with peers. This differs from CALP in that CALP encompasses specialised language skills that are important in formal or academic learning situations and usually take much longer to develop than BICs. Students who are fluent speakers may be proficient in interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) but they may not necessarily be proficient in their academic skills (CALP).

An analysis of student discussions in elementary school science has revealed that students mainly need to observe, measure, describe, explain, compare and classify scientific concepts (Bailey and Butler, 2003 quoted in McKay, 2006: 33). These communicative functions require specialised discourse and lexis. Language instruction within CLIL teaching needs, therefore, to account for that and teach, as well as assess, the respective CALP language skills. Indeed, CALP has been found to have a key role in students’ success in school when content-learning is involved.

Vocabulary may well be an area more specific and specialized than anything else. McKay concludes that:

“children, particularly those who are learning through a foreign or second language need to be taught explicitly and not ‘invisibly’ (Fairclough, 1989) in a way that ensures that they learn […] the language (vocabulary, structures, genres) of the new discourse. Assessment practices can help to make the language of content areas more visible to children and also to give teachers the chance to progress in academic language” (McKay, 2006: 34).

In addition to the students’ CALP skills development in the L2, it is necessary that CLIL teaching – and subsequently CLIL assessment - includes the L1 technical terms and expressions, which are seen important for the students’ future academic career.

Of course students’ BICS language skills are also necessary for the students’ balanced linguistic development. Students must develop these language skills for effective social communication, for example: greeting, disagreeing, inviting, apologizing, promising, etc. These skills also need to be taken into consideration during
assessments, especially if the students’ language learning depends entirely on CLIL sessions.

b. Assessing content learning

It has already been said that in most European countries CLIL teaching at pre-primary and primary level involves a wide range of content areas (e.g. science, geography, art, music, physical education, design and technology, etc.) and their respective sets of knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, and skills. Thus, it is impossible to provide details on the specifics of each content area’s assessment in CLIL. There are, however, general aspects which are relevant to all subjects; principally the need to assess knowledge, understanding, attitudes and skills acquired. There are a variety of assessment tools typically employed for each of these categories such as tests, essays, projects, mini-quizzes, etc. The central issue here is how can these traditional methods of assessment be employed when perhaps quite suddenly all the tasks need to be performed in another language.

Another aspect of many content areas is the importance placed on both the process as well as the product of learning. This might involve the assessment of different social and working formats (e.g. individual work, group or pair work) which also need to be addressed in the different assessment formats used in CLIL teaching.

c. Assessing attitudes and strategic development

Fostering desired attitudinal and behavioural skills or specific strategic competences such as problem-solving skills are important both in content and language. It is an area which can be of primary importance to CLIL given that students’ attitudes towards CLIL lessons might need to be monitored in order to avoid or remedy any potential feelings of insecurity or anxiety on behalf of the students. This is especially important for students who are just beginning to be involved in CLIL programmes.

In order to assess these areas, CLIL teachers can be assisted by alternative assessment techniques which are particularly suited to the assessment of attitudes and behaviours. Such techniques are self-assessment, student journals and the monitoring and
systematic observation of students’ development. The development of attitudinal and behavioural aspects is a long-term process and therefore needs to be assessed regularly and on an on-going basis.

4. Key issues in assessing CLIL learning – Guidelines for good practice

The following section will discuss important issues for assessment in CLIL. A number of guidelines are proposed which have been developed in light of current theoretical and research foundations of current best practices in student assessment as well as by the experience and insights gained through PROCLIL. These guidelines will be illustrated with the help of authentic assessment tasks developed by PROCLIL teachers or adapted by them from published CLIL course books.

   a. Integrating content and language.

It is argued here that both components - language and content – are assessed in an integrated manner. For one, we agree that good assessment practice should reflect teaching practice with regard to what and how something was taught (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou, 2003). In the case of CLIL it follows that content that was taught in the L2 needs to be assessed in the L2 as well. Careful assessment tasks should be devised so as to help learners show exactly what they have learnt while enabling them to use the L2. In case students lack adequate L2 skills to do so, they should either be supported to respond through non-verbal means or allowed to use their L1. Sometimes a mixture of L1 and L2 may be allowed in order for the students to express their content knowledge and so as not to put weaker students at a disadvantage. Overall, it could be argued that pre-primary and primary school children in CLIL programmes should be allowed to choose the language in which they respond to an assessment task, if the assessment task is targeting content knowledge. In fact, the information provided to the teacher by the students’ choice of language can provide valuable information as to their foreign language competence.
Researchers argue that to obtain the most useful information about the child’s language ability, it is best to have discrete assessment criteria for each that is assess language and content independently, (Bachmann and Palmer (1996) quoted in McKay, 2006: 257). This does not mean that content and language cannot be assessed in one task but rather involves having separate and clear criteria for each area; language ability and content knowledge. Separate marks may be given for each component, or one mark may be given for the total performance (McKay, ibid).

After all, as McKay elaborates further, teachers need to be conscious of the fact that even if the intent is to separate language and content in order to be fair, this is not completely possible. Children’s spoken or written responses on a topic may not show their true language ability if they do not know much about the topic.

The test on mixing colours below was carried out in grade one, six weeks after school and instruction in CLIL art classes had begun. All instructions were read out in the target language and if necessary translated into the L1. The test enabled students to show their content knowledge without requiring them to use the L2 since the assessment tasks evaluate content learning and not language. In fact, a pencil and paper test could not assess the young students’ language gains since at this level the students’ development is mostly in the aural / oral domain while reading and writing have not been taught at all. Consequently, by bypassing reading and writing, the students’ developmental language stage can be accounted for.

If the teacher’s aim had been to assess language, then she would have had to resort to other modes of assessment such as employing observation and oral / aural assessment tasks.

Source: CLIL art lesson, grade one, age: 7, mixing colour test, Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/9
b. Balancing content and language

Due to the current use of CLIL as an umbrella term (Mehisto et al., 2008), many different models fall under CLIL programmes. This can range from surface cross-curricular linking often found in foreign language teaching where content is dealt with superficially and language learning is at the forefront, to the other extreme seen in immersion programmes wherein several, if not all, content subjects are taught entirely in the foreign language and content teaching is of primary importance and language is sometimes not explicitly taught at all. The emphasis of course often varies even within a balanced CLIL programme. Teachers can sometimes find themselves focusing largely on content in one lesson while the concentration might shift in favour of language during another session.

Consequently, CLIL assessment needs to take into account whether the weight teaching laid during that time period on language and or content and should use assessment tools accordingly. Of course content should only be tested in the foreign language if it was taught in the foreign language. This aspect is particularly important to guarantee fair and transparent assessment. It follows then, as a rule of thumb, the lesser the CLIL input, that is the content taught in the foreign language, the greater need for tasks to be dealt with in the mother tongue or with as little language as possible. This demands that teachers, especially those using CLIL showers, keep track of what they have taught in L1 and L2 and conscientiously devise assessment tasks accordingly.

c. Taking learners’ developmental stage into account

Taking the learners’ developmental stage, such as their age, cognitive development and language competence, into account might at first glance seem too obvious a point to make given the recent experience with PROCLIL it is a salient issue that needs to be addressed. Sometimes seemingly obvious assessment tasks might prove to be out of step with the learners’ cognitive and overall maturity level as well as with their level of linguistic competence. To illustrate, a task inappropriate for children in pre-primary or in the first or second grade of primary would be to expect them to draw a correct sketch of a bee with or without labelling it, as their drawing skills are most
likely not sophisticated enough to adequately meet the requirement of drawing a realistic representation of a bee.

Again, it can be stated that the younger the child and/or the lower the level of the child’s language competence, the greater the need for assessment tasks to be dealt with either in the mother tongue or with as little language as possible. This requires teachers to put forth a variety of means and methods to devise appropriate assessment tasks. Of utmost importance here, among other means, is visualization. This can be seen in the task depicted below.

The first task shown is appropriate for grade one or two and assesses whether or not students know the plants. It also assesses if students know which part of the different plants one can eat. The assessment emphasizes the content knowledge and can be done in grade one or two without using any language at all. The task can also be modified quite easily in order to fit grade three students as well. In this case students have to match the name of the parts of the plants and additionally have to write down the names of the plants.

Source: Natural Science (adapted), 3, p. 36, CLIL biology teaching, grade one/two, age: 7/8 + grade three, age: 9, labelling the parts of the plant that we eat, Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/9
In CLIL teaching students might often know the information on which they are being assessed, but because of language proficiency issues, they are unable to demonstrate their knowledge. Therefore, adapting assessment materials to students’ varying language competences is of vital importance if teachers are to measure accurately the extent to which content objectives and standards are met. Based on recommendations made by Deschenes, Ebeling, & Sprague (1994) different types of assessment adaptations that permit teachers to adapt assessment to students’ language level (Echevarria: 2006, 175) may be employed. This section will look into adaptations in: range, time, level of support, difficulty and type of response.

**Range:** Adapt or vary the number of items learners are expected to complete. Determine percentages of correct responses based on the number of items assessed.

**Time:** Adapt or vary the amount of time the learner has for completing a task, such as providing more processing time and/or breaking tasks into manageable chunks. Unless there is a requirement to have a timed test, allowing additional time should not impact a student’s score or grade.

**Level of support:** Adapt the amount of scaffolding provided during assessments, by reading the task aloud, by translating if necessary, by providing additional visualization or by allowing the use of a dictionary.

For example, in the following test on ducks carried out in the third grade, students are supported in understanding the instructions as the teacher reads them out aloud. This is necessary because students in third grade in the state of Baden-Wurttemberg, Germany, for example, have only just started reading. Further help is provided by symbols indicating what to do when working on their own. For example, coloured pencils mean that they have to draw something, whereas letters stand for writing. On the second page of the duck test, required L2 words are printed at the bottom, thus helping weaker students.
**Difficulty:** Adapt the skill level, type of problem or task, and the process for how a learner can approach the task, such as allowing a calculator, giving simplified instructions or permitting a sketch or drawing instead of a written answer. Thereby, the expectations that the learners should know the content are not reduced, while the teacher makes it easier for students to demonstrate their understanding.

An example is shown in the assessment tasks given below where students need to show that they know where an animal lives – either in the jungle, the desert, or at the North Pole. Although both assess the same knowledge, one requires students to know the words for the different habitats and to be able to copy using the Latin alphabet, whereas the other task requires neither. So the same task could be adapted quite easily to fit either pre-primary or primary grades one and two or even grades three and four. Thus, it serves as an example of how a task can be adapted with regard to the language knowledge it requires.
**Source:** Natural Science (adapted), 3, 5, CLIL biology teaching, grade one, age: 7
Or grade two, age: 8, topic: where do animals live? Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg, (Germany), school year 2008/9

**Source:** Natural Science (adapted), 3, 5, CLIL biology teaching, grade three, age 9, topic: where do animals live? Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg, school year 2008/9

**Product/Type of response:** Adapt the type of response the learner is allowed to provide, such as permitting drawings, a hands-on demonstration, a verbal, and, if necessary, a translated response.

The assessment task below is part of a test that was carried out after teaching a unit on describing weather, measuring weather conditions and discussing weather-appropriate clothing in the third grade. This task assessed if students were able to observe and record the weather at the time the test was taken. Learners were allowed to either draw or write down their observations, thus, it was adapted to learners’ varying foreign language competence.
d. Assessing product and process

It is important to document each learner’s development through formative assessment and to provide ongoing feedback in order to foster learning. This too is a requirement for good assessment practice. Learners need to be given feedback on the strategies they are using, on the levels of their effort and be given overall guidance as to their learning process.

This can be achieved through focused and systematic observations, collections of learning documents (task sheets etc.). A very good assessment practice is the use of portfolios. Portfolios are a systematic “compilation of an individual child’s work showing his/her language abilities, effort, and language development over time. It usually includes samples of written work, audio or video recordings, drawings, teacher’s notes, tests peer and self-assessment forms, and reviews of books read.” (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou, 2003). Although the above definition refers to language development, the rational of portfolios is suited to any kind of learning. They allow for differentiation between students, a clear view of the development of each child in all aspects of learning – attitudes, skills, behaviours and competence – and can particularly assist in assessing both the fine nuances of the child’s development in attitudinal and behavioural issues as well as her development in learning strategies and skills. Finally, they can encourage reflection and can be a way of creating a collaborative reflective evaluation of the child’s progress by bringing together the learner, the teacher and the parents in evaluating the work presented in the portfolio.
The example shown below focuses on the assessment of the process of learning and can be used in grade one. The topic is describing and observing weather conditions. The weather chart is displayed in class. Each day the whole class notes down the weather conditions on this chart in a plenary session. As an ongoing task at home each student records the observed weather conditions over the course of a week in the booklet illustrated below. The student has to draw the weather and wind conditions, to write down the temperature, as well as to draw the weather-appropriate clothes to wear on each day. At the end of the week some children present their booklets in front of the class while all are collected and checked by the teacher afterwards. Thereby, the teacher receives feedback on how individual students manage the task with regard to content over the course of a week. Additionally, through the plenary presentation students’ language output can also be assessed.

The students can then choose if they would like this entered in their portfolio and can write a note (in L1) reflecting on how they enjoyed the activity and/or how well they feel they learnt to record and talk about weather conditions.

Source: CLIL science teaching, grade one, age: 7, weather chart & weather diary, Ina Willauer-Bohle, Wolfegg (Germany), school year 2008/9
e. Making CLIL assessment transparent as regards which language will be assessed and how much language will count

When introducing CLIL, teachers need to make it clear to students and parents alike in which language students are expected to do the assessment tasks. Different possibilities exist and decisions need to be evaluated for each context and possibly also for each test or task separately. Parents need to be assured that the students will be offered language choice or that students will not be tested in the L2, unless the targeted items have been taught in the L2.

In the case of older students, when assessment tasks become more direct and when students are more aware of assessment procedures, teachers might decide that students can always use either L1 or L2 or they tell their students which language to use before the test. Language use in the test can be indicated through the use of flags or through written instructions for each specific task.

This assessment task was carried out after a teaching unit on stars and planets in the fourth grade. The task was to write a postcard from a planet and to tell the addressee certain aspects about one’s planet. In the example shown the student uses predominantly English but included several sentences in German. The students knew beforehand that:

- Content tasks could be answered in L1 (unless required differently).
- Wrong spelling didn't count (neither in L1, nor in L2). Every answer the teacher could understand by reading it out aloud to herself/himself would be correct.
- Wrong spelling counted if words were already given in L2 and only needed to be copied in the answer.
f. Assessing at systematic and regular intervals

Continuous and systematic assessment through varied forms of formal and informal assessment is beneficial both for students and teachers. Regularly assessing students’ understanding provides teachers who are new to CLIL with more concrete information on when and how learning occurs within their CLIL lessons. Teachers can use feedback from their students’ outcomes for further lesson planning as well as for evaluating their own work in regards to finding out how effective their teaching has been or how successful their chosen methodology or materials were. All of this will eventually help them to feel more confident in their CLIL teaching.

Also students need to be provided with regular assessment and feedback on the outcomes of their learning. It is for them a fresh and demanding process and it is extremely important that they are given feedback as regards their progress, their efforts and the techniques or strategies they use in their learning.

A general rule of thumb is to plan multiple and diverse types of assessments. Having the students perform a test or using the same test type repeatedly provides only limited information. Alternative assessment techniques can balance the norm-
criterion-referenced tests teachers are usually required to give. These alternative techniques include performance-based tasks, portfolios, journals, and projects, as well as self and peer-assessment (Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou, 2003). These offer a range of advantages since they allow for responding to a wider range of learning types, styles and intelligences. They also encourage development of autonomy and promote the development of self-reflection and a wide range of other learning strategies. Finally, they are closer to the learning tasks students carry out in class as well as more akin to authentic real-life tasks which cannot easily be recreated through pencil-and-paper tests.

Below, a number of informal assessment procedures are described. They offer several advantages and can be used with CLIL learners of all ages: they can be carried out in between and/or at the end of lessons or teaching units and are not time-consuming to carry out or to evaluate, and provide teachers and students with instant feedback.

**Thumbs up/thumbs down:** Generally, this is used for responding to questions that elicit “agree/disagree” responses. It can also be used for yes/no questions or true/false statements. Older students may be more comfortable responding with “pencils up/pencils down”. Students can also indicate “I don’t know” by making a fist, holding it in front of the chest, and wiggling it back and forth (Echevarria et al., 2006: 172).

**Number wheel:** A number wheel is made from tag board strips held together with a round-head brass paper fastener. Each strip has a number printed on it, with 0-5 or 0 -10, or a-d, depending on teachers’ needs and students’ ages. Students use their individual number wheels to indicate their answers to questions or statements that offer multiple-choice responses. Possible answers are displayed on the board or perhaps overhead transparency and the teacher asks the questions or gives the statements orally (Echevarria et al., 2006: 173).

For example, if you are teaching a lesson on ducks in the third grade, you could write the following on the board: grass, snails, birds, flies. Each child has a number wheel and you say, “Show me what ducks don’t eat”. Students then find the number strip 3, and holding their number wheels in front of their chests, they display their answers.
Number 1 to 3 for self-assessment: Teachers could use this quick and easy activity to have students self-assess the degree to which they think they have met a lesson’s content and language objective. At the end of the lesson, as teachers review the objectives with the students, teachers ask them to indicate with one, two, or three fingers how well they think they met them:

1 = I didn’t meet the objective
2 = I didn’t meet the objective but I made progress toward meeting it
3 = I fully met the objective (Echevarria et al., 2006: 174).

Of course, these sentences need to be explained beforehand or given in the L1.

An easier way for very young learners is to use smiley faces. The goals evaluated will need to be presented to the young students clearly and then the children decide which smiley face represents them and how they feel. Smiley faces can be given to the children in the form of cards which they can pick up and show the teacher or they can be used in the form of surveys where the children can draw the face which represents how they feel (smiling/happy, sad, angry or indifferent). Such surveys can be easily used to assess students’ attitudes towards their learning experience as a whole. Students’ attitudes towards their lessons are key to their success so it is important to carry out frequent informal assessments as to how they feel about their CLIL lessons.

Outcome sentences: At the end of a lesson or a teaching unit, a teacher posts sentence starters on the board or transparency such as: “I wonder …”, “I discovered…”, “I still want to know…”, “I still don’t understand…”, “I still have a question about…” Depending on students’ language level this might need to be done in the L1. Students then, individually or in pairs, finish the sentence starters and return them to the teacher for evaluation (Echevarria et al., 2006: 170).

Collecting “I know/I want to know” expressions from students through sticky-notes: It can be used at the beginning of a unit to find out what students already know and what they would like to know about the topic in question. At the end of the unit, teacher and students read again what students had written down at the beginning and find out what was correct or maybe wrong as well as what they now know or which of their questions remain unanswered.
g. Encouraging students to discuss their learning with others

Opportunities for interaction and discussion between teacher and students but also among students themselves are valuable assessment and learning activities (Max, 1997; Schönknecht & Klenk, 2005). These discussions aim at encouraging elaborated responses about lesson concepts, at initiating conceptual change, and at improving students’ willingness to learn and to make an effort (Schönknecht & Klenk, 2005: 24). Therefore, these discussions should accompany the learning process (“What have I done already?” “What is difficult?” “Where do I need help?” “Which task do I have to do next?”), reflect on learning outcomes (“What did I do well?” “Where can I improve?”), and discuss learning and working strategies (“How did I do it?”). These kinds of self-evaluation and peer-evaluation are important and should be incorporated into students’ learning. Considering they require metacognitive thinking and good language skills they are most likely to be carried out in the L1.
Conclusion

Assessment serves several purposes, among others, teachers receive feedback on the students’ learning outcomes and attitudinal development and are thereby enabled to evaluate their own work and provide an improved learning experience for their students. Thus, success in CLIL teaching relies considerably on effective assessment as an ongoing part of classroom processes. What makes assessment in CLIL teaching rather challenging is that grading students’ CLIL attainment should be based on converging but different sources of information as teachers have to assess students’ language development at the same time as assessing their progress in the content areas. In order to make all this possible, different formal and informal assessment procedures were described in this chapter. Teachers using this handbook might need to adapt the presented assessment methods and procedures to make them appropriate for their classrooms and teaching contexts. Basically, this is a question of when to use which methods, for what purposes and how.

References


**Published teaching materials referred to:**

Chapter 8:
Stories as a tool for teaching and learning in CLIL

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Introduction

The implementation of CLIL, in its dual-focused perspective, calls for teachers and practitioners to attend not only to the linguistic, content, communicative and cognitive components involved in this approach but to recognise the intercultural factors involved as well (cf. Johnstone et al. 1998; Marsh 2000; Mehisto et al. 2008; inter alia). Presenting new content and language to young learners from a cognitively challenging perspective can foster student interest and motivation, two essential elements involved in any good learning. In this chapter, we deal with the use of stories as a fundamental learning tool which facilitates access not only to language and content but also to culture and cognition. Their effectiveness, however, highly depends on the careful selection of materials and the application of appropriate methodology in each case. The first part of this chapter presents a general framework for the use of stories in CLIL exploring their main characteristics, dimension and potentiality in the classroom. The second part of the chapter provides guidelines regarding the effective implementation of stories in preprimary and primary education CLIL programmes and is illustrated with examples of stories, activities and tasks used in PROCLIL.
1. Stories in CLIL: A Framework from theory to practice

Stories can prove to be effective tools for children to develop those essential principles involved within a CLIL approach that include not only language and content but also communication, cognition and culture. Stories, hence, can contain the key 4Cs (content, cognition, communication and culture) to make any CLIL experience succeed (cf. Coyle, 1990). More specifically, stories can provide a natural and meaningful learning context to learn about a particular content focus using specific language within a CLIL perspective (cf. Curtain 1995; Dickinson 2001; Richards & Anderson 2003; inter alia).

1.1. Stories and Language Learning

For young learners, stories can offer a valuable way of contextualizing and introducing new language, making it comprehensible and memorable (Wasik & Bond 2001; Wright 2000). Frequently, stories are associated to daily life experiences, children’s feelings and memories, and to cultural and intercultural values which enrich and expand the classroom world. They also deal with a variety of topics which directly relate to curricular content: animals, family, traditions, emotions, environment, history, experiments, etc.

Linguistically, stories present grammar, vocabulary, and formulaic speech within a meaningful and structured context that supports comprehension of the narrative world and the content the story is related to (Glazer & Burke 1994; Jennings, 1991; Koisawalia, 2005). Reading or listening to a story offers a joyful experience in ‘feeling’ the sounds and ‘viewing’ the form of a new language. Stories are often about interesting topics which may serve to present, practice, consolidate or extend children’s knowledge on a particular thematic area related to any school subject.
1.2. Stories and communication

Stories, when used effectively, can also enhance children’s interaction and communication not only with their teacher but also with their peers. Reading or listening to a story related to a specific content can make children react to it verbally, non-verbally or both. This enables them to construct knowledge and express ideas, even with the very limited language they may have at the early stages of a CLIL programme. In fact, stories prove to be fantastic resources in a CLIL context to provoke children’s reactions to meaning, content and form. Stories provide learners with a reason to participate in the classroom, to repeat certain formulaic phrases, chunks or words, to role play part of a dialogue, or to express what and how they feel. The use of stories in the classroom can encourage children to interact with each other and communicate their feelings, ideas and knowledge. Stories give children opportunities to retell the story and even create alternative endings. As a consequence, stories can help learners increase language fluency and advance in their content knowledge. A story can serve to introduce, practice or review content covered in the curriculum as well as related and complimentary subjects. In sum, when used creatively, stories become incredible bridges to use and understand a new language and a great source of content which will progressively prepare students to interaction and global communication about a large variety of themes and topics discovered through stories in the CLIL classroom.

1.3. Stories and Culture

Stories are windows open to the world. They bring in views about different people, new countries and diverse cultural values. Stories help children show a curiosity about other cultures, far-off lands and ‘exotic’ peoples from other parts of the planet. Using stories in the classroom can prepare learners for openness, awareness, tolerance and acceptance towards other ways of understanding life. In this sense, learners can acquire more sensitive attitudes towards others which will make them better prepared European citizens for trans-national relationships. In addition, and related to this intercultural dimension, stories about different cultures can help integrate children from different migrant backgrounds present in the CLIL classroom. In fact, stories can
reveal themselves to be excellent resources for explaining and understanding cultural and historical backgrounds, processes, actions and consequences involved in a wide number of topics while at the same time the children are experiencing an enjoyable learning atmosphere.

1.4. Stories and Cognition

Stories often involve multimodality since the linguistic and thematic information is commonly complemented with pictures and, in some cases, with sounds, which help children reconstruct the storyline (Kellerman, 1992; Meyer, 1990). Stories involve predicting, guessing or searching for meaning and linking it to prior knowledge on a topic. In this sense, stories become scaffolding tools for the learning process which, first, help children feel supported by listening to or reading about a topic from a partially familiar framework, that is, the story or tale. Second, stories allow learners to progress step by step in their own construction and reconstruction of knowledge (cf. Gibbons 2002).

Retelling or remembering the plot individually or in a joint task can enhance learners’ cognitive and social skills. Identifying characters, comparing behaviours, contrasting actions or defining terms or concepts, for instance, clearly develops concrete thinking skills. Reasoning, finding alternative and creative endings or solutions or resolution to conflicts found in stories, evaluating happenings or attitudes can also improve creative and abstract thinking. Stories, therefore, promote the incorporation of cognitive and learning strategies in the CLIL classroom resulting in better understanding and learning.

1.5. Stories, multiple intelligences and individual learning styles

This account of the potentiality stories can bring in a CLIL setting also reflects the notion of incorporating the idea of attending to individual learning styles together with multiple intelligences. As was discussed here, and will be developed in the second part of this chapter, stories are defined as multimodal entities which can cater
to linguistic, visual-spatial, musical, sequential or logical, kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Stories allow children to create movement, drama and dance, to focus on pictures and art, to listen to music and sing along. Stories permit learners to focus on interpersonal environments, solving problems, setting goals or expressing emotion. Stories also provide possibilities of curriculum development, while expanding learners’ knowledge on a particular theme. They can also provide opportunities for assessment of the learning process and learning outcomes. All of these are examples of a multiple intelligence approach to learning which also recognizes individual learning styles, capacities and perceptions as regards understanding and responding to the same experience, content, topic or story (cf. Campbell et. 1996; Gardner 1993, 1999; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Nolen, 2003).

It is clear then that stories have the potential to be an invaluable tool in the practical implementation of CLIL. As with any tool, however, the realisation of its potential lies in how it is applied. Consequently, the second part of this chapter presents some general guidelines on how stories can be included in CLIL programmes. It begins by discussing key principles which should guide story selection and then presents some general guidelines as regards the classroom implementation process for stories. Examples are shown from PROCLIL classes which also exemplify the points made in the general framework presented above.

2. Implementing Stories in CLIL

2.1 How to choose a story

One of the most important factors in the success of storytelling-based lessons is the actual choice of story. Perhaps initially a teacher might wonder whether to choose an original, authentic story written in the target language or whether to choose a story written or adapted especially for language learners. Although there might be occasions where the latter option would be acceptable, there are numerous advantages in using authentic stories. Perhaps the most important advantage is the fact that children are offered an early chance to become familiar with and participate in one of
the main aspects of a culture: that of its literary heritage. Authentic stories are valuable artefacts of a foreign culture – either the CLIL language culture or other cultures which may be addressed during lessons – and thus help in promoting the intercultural learning aspect of CLIL.

There are a number of points a teacher should take into consideration when selecting a story. These differ according to whether the story is aimed at pre-primary and young primary students or whether it is aimed at older primary students. The students’ age, interests and developmental level should always be taken into consideration. For younger children, in particular, the selected story should have:

- **A clear storyline:** This is very important in that it allows the children to follow and understand the story without being entirely dependent on linguistic input while allowing them to use their existing knowledge of the world and already acquired frames of reference.

- **Plenty of repetition:** What is meant here is the type of repetition that comes naturally in a story and not repetition that is artificially manufactured for language learners. Traditional stories often have this type of repetition, as for example “Goldilocks and the three bears” (‘too hot’, ‘too soft’, ‘too hard’ and ‘my porridge’, ‘my chair’, ‘my bed’), “Chicken Licken” (“Where are you going?”/“What’s the matter?”/ “I’ll come with you”) or “The Gingerbread man” (“You can’t catch me”). Repetition can also be found in modern children’s literature. Examples are books such as “Brown Bear, Brown Bear” and “Polar Bear, Polar Bear” by Bill Martin and Eric Carle. This kind of repetition is particularly helpful in that it offers the child more opportunities to hear the language and to view the language in action in various contexts.

- **Opportunities for participation:** A teacher needs to always create opportunities for students to participate in order to keep them engaged in the storytelling process, to maintain their attention as well as to check their understanding. It is, therefore, very helpful if the story lends itself naturally to such
opportunities. Stories well-suited for use in CLIL classrooms may allow for the children guessing what will come next, discussing the picture, repeating a key phrase along with the character or replying to characters’ questions.

- **Helpful illustrations:** Illustrations are an art form so teacher preferences will undoubtedly come into play and it is important that the story selected is one which the teacher likes and enjoys reading. It is, however, also important that one takes into consideration the clarity of the illustrations, whether the book pages seem too cluttered, whether the illustrations are appropriate to the specific children (not scary or culturally-inappropriate) and whether they actually support the understanding of the text by offering valuable contextual information.

- **Appropriate linguistic level:** The language used in the story should be at a level where children can understand most of it (with appropriate help). It is important that the children are able to understand most of the language in the story. Research shows that students need to know about 95% of the vocabulary in a reading text in order to understand it (Nation, 2001). A story, however, that is narrated to the students and suitably adapted to their level is recommended by Nation (ibid) as a good way to encourage incidental vocabulary learning. With younger learners the stories are either narrated or read to them so the percentage of known words need not be so high if the teacher can support understanding through linguistic modifications, enhanced intonation, facial expressions and use of visuals.

Many of the points presented above can also apply to older learners. Nevertheless, children’s interests change as they grow older and the story selected for older learners, should not only be at an appropriate language level but should also be age-appropriate catering to their particular interests and be stimulating and attractive to them. If an older learner is a beginner in the L2, finding such a story might be difficult and teachers might resort to adapted/simplified versions of stories. There are however numerous suitable authentic stories and the variety increases as the learner’s L2 competence develops.
Finally, in a CLIL framework it is important for all learner ages alike that the topic of
the story is linked to curricular content and aims. In the framework of CLIL teaching,
where language is combined with content learning, the story can either be the content
itself, a springboard to content-focused work or perhaps an additional supplement to
the main content of the lesson. A general objective which always underpins the use of
stories is of course that of encouraging children to develop positive attitudes towards
books and reading. Examples of stories used by teachers in PROCLIL and the subject
and linguistic goals which they were used to achieve are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Subject Goal</th>
<th>Linguistic Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Very Hungry Caterpillar</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Eric Carle</td>
<td>-consolidate the life-cycle of a butterfly</td>
<td>-become familiar with the names of fruits (apple, pear, plum, strawberry, orange)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(unit taught in 4 lessons)</td>
<td>-be able to make and explain a chart using numbers from 1 to 10</td>
<td>-be able to recognize and name the above fruits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-be able to sequence a story</td>
<td>-become familiar with the phrase “I’m hungry”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>--be creative through drawing</td>
<td>-become familiar (passive learning) with the names of the week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-learn a song</td>
<td>-revise numbers, colours and the structure “I like...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-respond rhythmically and with appropriate movements to the lyrics of a song</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polar Bear, Polar Bear</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Eric Carle and Bill Martin</td>
<td>-become familiar with a number of jungle animals (lion, hippopotamus, flamingo, zebra, snake, elephant, leopard, peacock)</td>
<td>-identify the animals based on aural input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(unit taught in 3 lessons)</td>
<td>-acquire positive attitude towards the animals</td>
<td>- name at least three of the above animals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-become aware of endangered animals</td>
<td>- follow and comprehend a basic story in L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does a Kangaroo have a Mother, too?</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
<td>The children should:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Eric Carle</td>
<td>-become familiar with the animals referred to in the book (kangaroo, lion, dolphin, monkey.....)</td>
<td>-recognize and name at least three of the animals in the story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(unit taught in 3 lessons)</td>
<td>-learn more about the above animals (where do they live?, what do they eat?)</td>
<td>-follow and comprehend a basic story in the L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-learn that all animals have animal families (mother, father, children)</td>
<td>- make questions about the animals (i.e. Does a lion have a mother too?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-develop positive attitudes and respect towards animals and all creatures in general</td>
<td>-answer the questions about the animals as in the book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-be able to work in pairs- play and speak in a steady beat clap/move to the rhythm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The rainbow snake
Australian Aboriginal myth
(part of unit on Australia)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The children should:</th>
<th>The children should:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- learn more about the culture of Australia’s native people, the Australian Aborigines</td>
<td>- be able to understand the main idea in a short story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- develop appreciation towards the myths and legends of other cultures</td>
<td>- tolerate unknown words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- compare creation myths between theirs, the Aboriginal and other cultures</td>
<td>- be able to infer meaning from context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Examples of subject-specific and language-specific goals in storytelling-based lessons taught by PROCLIL teachers.

The table above shows sets of curricular aims which were served by storytelling-based lessons for pre-primary and early primary age groups, as well as for older children. The examples illustrate how stories can be used to promote curricular aims from a variety of subject areas such as science, maths, music, geography or environmental studies. In the example of “The Very Hungry Caterpillar” shown in the table, the same story was used to promote science, maths, literacy, art and music curriculum aims.

2.2 How to use a story in class

Once an appropriate story has been selected, the teacher needs to prepare how it is going to be introduced and used in class.

Before the lesson

Before going to class the teacher needs to decide if a story will be told/ narrated or read to the children. Both can be effective options, but telling a story creates a unique atmosphere in the classroom which links to the ancient tradition of storytelling and which is popular with children. In addition, telling a story allows the teacher to maintain eye-contact with the children and modify her verbal input by animating her language with enhanced intonation, facial expressions and gestures as well as by pointing to particular objects or characters in the book. Finally, telling a story allows teachers to be more in tune with the children’s general reactions and feedback; something which can help the teacher better adapt her input, pace or general storytelling technique to the children.
A key stage in preparing for the story should be a dry-run rehearsal where the teacher actually narrates the story exactly the way it is intended to be done in class; complete with opportunities for participation and adaptations/modifications of the language used. This is very important since often preparing by simply reading the story silently or without verbal animation and gesturing cannot help teachers to recognize potential difficulties in the narration. Often a story looks misleadingly easy. It is only when the teacher rehearses her role as a mediator between the story and the children that difficulties may appear. A rehearsal allows teachers to find solutions such as simplifying sentences, using known vocabulary items or not including peripheral information in the narration of the story. For example, substituting the words ‘boa constrictor’ to ‘snake’ or ‘devour’ to ‘eat’ can make the story more accessible to early language learners.

**During the lesson**

Usually there are three stages in telling (or reading) a story: the pre-storytelling stage, the while-storytelling stage and the after-storytelling stage.

**Pre-storytelling stage**

The *pre-storytelling stage* helps prepare the students so that they can better comprehend the story. It involves raising their interest and motivation to hear the story so that their attention will be focused. It also involves setting the scene and creating the context for the story so that the children can use their existing knowledge and experiences to better understand and associate with the story. Finally, if the story involves vocabulary which is new to the children, this is the stage where certain key words can be introduced in order to make the learning curve smoother.

Sometimes, in order to achieve the above goals, teachers go ‘in role’ and, assisted by relevant props, become a character from the book or a ‘special’ storyteller.
At other times teachers of young learners use puppets at the pre-storytelling stage. These puppets may be related to the story and serve to stimulate curiosity and interest as well as to set the scene. Examples below show a puppet monkey used to introduce the story “Monkey and Me” by Emily Gravett. The monkey resembles the one illustrated in the story and was used to come into class, meet and greet the children and then introduce his friend ‘Mimi’, thus introducing the term and concept of a friend.

Along the same lines, the first storytelling-based lesson for “Handa’s Surprise” introduced a black female doll. The children were encouraged to discuss where they thought she could be from, what her name could be, what kind of house she probably lived in, what could possibly be her favourite fruit and what kind of pets she had. This discussion was mainly in L1 and activated interest, set the scene, and actively involved the learners in bringing all their pre-existing knowledge on the surface.
Furthermore, during this discussion the teacher reviewed known and relevant vocabulary (colours and fruit) and introduced key new vocabulary which would later appear in the story (wild animals).

**While-storytelling stage**

The *while-storytelling stage* mainly involves activities which aim to engage the students, maintain their attention and assist them in understanding the story. Basically these are activities which aim to position the learners as active participants in the storytelling (or story reading) process rather than have them being a passive audience. Older learners can also read stories by themselves and can be assisted through activities such as filling in diagrams or tables or completing pictures or lists based on the story.

Nevertheless, even older learners are appreciative of a good oral narrative and opportunities for an oral narration of a story can have the same type of while-reading activities as the ones recommended for younger learners. Such activities can include asking the students to guess the continuation of the story, identifying and discussing pictures or characters in the story or asking about possible justifications of character actions in the story (perhaps in L1).

There are also activities which involve movement and action and which may be more suitable for times when the students are listening to a second reading of the story. Students can, for example, be given cards representing characters or objects in the story. Whenever they hear their character/object mentioned in the narration, they have to get up. Another variation is giving students cards which they need to place on a picture or on the board to represent events as these are being narrated in the story.

The example here is a while-storytelling activity carried out during the second reading of “*There was an old lady who swallowed the sea*” by Pam Adams.
Source: While-storytelling activity for “There was an old lady who swallowed the sea”, Unit: “The sea”, grade 2: age 7, primary school in Nicosia, Cyprus.

The picture of the old lady was placed on the white board and the children were given cards with the different sea creatures. When the story mentioned that a particular creature was swallowed by the old lady, a child with the card representing that creature would come up and stick the card on the old lady’s tummy.

Another example of a while-storytelling activity is for students to be given masks relating to characters in the story and for them to get up when these characters are mentioned and perform certain actions.

If the students are listening to a narration of a favourite and familiar story which they have been working on at school, a while-storytelling activity might be to perform the story actions in the form of a ‘silent’ play. The students are given roles and as the teacher narrates the story, they perform the play.

Source: Preprimary school, ages 4/5, students perform to an oral narration of a musical story. Teacher: Maria Masoura, Limassol, Cyprus.
After-storytelling stage

Finally, the after-reading / after-storytelling stage is a chance to check students’ understanding and also to engage further with issues presented in the story either by relating them to the students’ own lives or by exploring them further through suitable content-related activities. This is usually where further work promoting and expanding the subject content goals takes place. The story can act as a springboard for a wide range of curricular activities.

One of the after-storytelling activities a pre-primary class engaged in after reading “The Very Hungry Caterpillar” was to discuss about their favourite fruit. The students were later assisted in creating their own chart and engaged in discussion and analysis of their results.

Another story used was “The Gruffalo” by Donaldson and Scheffler. It helped to review the topic of animals and plants in the forest. A big book and flashcards were used as resources and a final performance was prepared as an after-storytelling activity. The performance, which dramatized the story, further consolidated the children’s knowledge in the focus area..

Source: After-reading activity (creating and analysing a graph) for the story “A Very Hungry Caterpillar”, Pre-primary school, ages: 4/5, Teachers: Maria Sieli, Maria Themistokleous, Tseri/Nicosia, Cyprus.

Choices made in after storytelling/reading activities mainly depend on the curricular aims the teacher is planning to achieve. The example of teachers’ planning below, shows that the aims for using “Handa’s Surprise” by Eileen Browne were mainly intercultural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Subject Goals</th>
<th>Linguistic Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handa’s Surprise</td>
<td>The students should:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by Eileen Browne</td>
<td>-develop intercultural awareness</td>
<td>-become familiar with the names of wild animals:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(unit taught in 4 lessons)</td>
<td>-become familiar with the African environment (fruits, animals, landscape, music)</td>
<td>monkey, ostrich, zebra, elephant, giraffe, antelope, parrot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-become familiar with the way of life of children from African countries</td>
<td>-revise colours: black, brown, red, blue, orange, white, green, purple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-be able to understand not everyone lives under the same conditions (i.e. understand there are different types of houses, styles of nutrition, pets, ways of dress, music, etc.)</td>
<td>-revise fruit: pineapple, apple, strawberry, plum, banana, mango, kiwi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-be able to distinguish wild from domestic animals</td>
<td>-revise animals: dog, horse, duck, cat, bird</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Teachers’ planning: Maria Sieli and Maria Themistokleous, Tseri Pre-primary School, Nicosia, Cyprus*

The story was revisited during four lessons. There was no need for extensive pre-storytelling activities in the later lessons but the while-storytelling and after-storytelling activities changed in every lesson. After-storytelling activities included listening and dancing to Kenyan music, classification of wild and domestic animals, creation of an African landscape while working in pairs (see below) and having to select what objects, animals and people, were appropriate for their African landscape.
Finally, another after-storytelling activity was for the children to create jewellery for the story’s main character, Handa. The children worked with clay and created necklaces which they all wore while they danced and sang a Kenyan song which was again taught as an activity linked to “Handa’s Surprise”.

Children enjoy stories and often want to continue working on them. If the classroom has English (or other activity corners, which the children may use during free-activity time, it is a good idea to have activities related to the story they have been working with. Working on these activities is optional for the children but experience has shown that children enjoy revisiting the stories. Story-based activities for the activity corners may involve drawing pictures from the story, flicking through the pages of the
actual book, working on puzzles based on the story or dressing up as the characters in the story.

**Source:** Children drawing in the activity corner and children’s paintings created during free activity time, from a variety of pre-primary schools and inspired by different stories.

**Conclusion**

This chapter has argued for the value of stories in CLIL programmes for young learners of pre-primary and primary education. When young learners are faced with new content in a foreign language, stories represent an excellent opportunity for teaching and providing comprehensible input in a coherent, meaningful and pleasant way. Stories easily link to a variety of curricular aims and typically involve willingness to listen to the storyline which is a prerequisite for engagement in a rich motivating language experience (cf. Wright 1995). Stories also provide many opportunities for the provision of a cluster of important factors central to CLIL: content, communication, cognition, and culture (cf. Coyle, 1990).

Moreover, this chapter has discussed how storytelling-based activities can encourage language and content learning by providing opportunities for rich experiences where
the students’ characteristics as young learners as well as their learning styles and intelligences are catered to. Finally, practical guidelines which can assist teachers in effectively selecting and employing stories in their CLIL teaching were presented and these were illustrated with a variety of authentic examples from CLIL classrooms. It is hoped that both the discussion and the examples have made clear how valuable a resource stories can be and that teachers may be motivated and encouraged to employ this rich resource in their teaching.

References


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*Claudia Steiert* worked as a Research Assistant to Professor Ute Massler at the University of Education Weingarten, Germany, where she was responsible for the local project management of PROCLIL and contributed to the major parts of the project. She taught courses on CLIL methodology, was involved in pre-service and in-service teacher trainings on CLIL, researched CLIL implementation and presented at international and national conferences. Her research focus is on CLIL teaching materials. Claudia Steiert currently teaches at a primary school in Vogt/Germany.