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**EMBRACING LANGUAGE AWARENESS
AND LANGUAGE DIVERSITY
IN THE 21ST CENTURY**

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THE ISSUE

VOL. 15, N.1, 2019

by Letizia Cinganotto

The latest proposal for a Council Recommendation for a comprehensive approach on language learning and teaching has opened up new scenarios in the field of plurilingualism, language awareness and language diversity.

This Special Issue has the privilege to be co-edited by Kristina Cunningham, Senior Policy Officer, in charge of Multilingualism in the Directorate General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture of the European Commission, who was actively involved in the proposal. Her contribution “How linguistic diversity makes the case for language awareness - A short background to the proposed EU Recommendation” clearly describes the framework which represents the source of inspiration of this Special Issue.

“Language competences are at the heart of the ambitious vision to create a European Education Area. Being able to speak foreign languages is not only a competence needed for studying abroad and on increasingly international job markets. It also opens new perspectives and enables people to discover other cultures. [...] With increasing intra-European mobility as well as unprecedented levels of school children arriving from third countries speaking different languages, we need to reconsider the challenges and opportunities we are faced with, in order to make multilingualism a true asset of the EU”.

This is what the European Commission states as an introduction to the proposal for a Council Recommendation which embraces the concept of “language-awareness in schools”, in the context of increased diversity in the multilingual classes of our schools.

Considering the inputs provided by the European Commission in order to improve the quality of the learning pathways and the language learning outcomes of 21st century students and to reach the Barcelona objectives (two languages plus the mother tongue) re-launched by the European Commission, the Special Issue is aimed at gathering research, projects, initiatives in this field

which could represent “success stories” providing suggestions, studies, research outputs and practical ideas for re-thinking language education in schools.

The main aim of the Special Issue is to spread the proposal from a global perspective, getting school leaders, teachers, researchers, scholars and policy makers aware of the importance of language awareness and language diversity for a high quality and inclusive education.

INVITED PAPERS are highlights of the issue and we are grateful to their authors for tackling fundamental topics related to the proposal for a Council Recommendation, in particular: the Companion Volume to the CEFR with new descriptors published in 2018; language awareness in a comprehensive approach; competence-based learning, phenomenon-based learning and CLIL.

Piccardo, North and Goodier in their paper titled *Broadening the scope of language education: mediation, plurilingualism and collaborative learning: The CEFR Companion Volume* describe the main innovations introduced by the latest Companion Volume to the CEFR, which has reshaped language learning, teaching and assessing/evaluating, considering the new research trends related to the knowledge society. 21st century learners have different learning styles and needs which should be taken into account in planning and assessing a language curriculum. The authors highlight some of the main new dimensions introduced by the Companion Volume: mediation, plurilingualism, and collaborative learning.

Michael Kelly in his paper titled *Language awareness in a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning* argues that the broad scope of language awareness provides both opportunities and challenges for educators and policy makers. The contribution examines the experience of language awareness in the UK and suggests lessons that might be learned from its achievements and from the challenges it encountered.

Marsh, Díaz Pérez, Escárzaga in their paper titled *Enhancing language Awareness and Competence-building through a Fusion of Phenomenon-based Learning and Content and Language Integration* describe how the fusion of two innovative approaches in education can provide alternative pathways to the learning of academic subjects, including languages. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Phenomenon-based Learning (PhBL) are combined to achieve intended learning outcomes which include language awareness, attitude change towards language learning and transversal subject learning. It is argued that the fusion of CLIL and PhBL provides a blueprint

that can enable educational innovation to flourish in different contexts, such as the Finnish and the Mexican ones, even if the authors recognize that rarely educational models can be easily exported from one country to another. In this contribution the topic of language awareness is interpreted from a global perspective, starting from a European one.

Among the **PEER REVIEWED PAPERS**, **Alba Graziano**, in her paper titled *Learning second language through restaurant menu dish names* describes a training experience about how to teach LSP (Language for Special Purposes) in a CLIL environment. The general frame is a CLIL project with teachers in “Istituti Alberghieri”, whose final output is the compilation of a multilingual menu. The article also describes a careful Error Analysis conducted on a corpus of a hundred menus from the Italian region of Lazio.

Tim Chen et al. in the contribution titled *New Math Teaching Methodologies for English Language E-Learners Students*, analyzes the effects of augmenting Mathematics Lectures with pre-written handouts on the note taking of ELEL (English Language E-Learners) students and consequently on their academic performance. The paper describes the main outcomes of research conducted at the American University of Sharjah in UAE.

Aiello and Mongibello in the paper *Supporting EFL learners with a Virtual Environment: A Focus on L2 Pronunciation* discuss a pilot project exploring the implementation of a virtual environment for the improvement of English pronunciation, funded by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) as part of a wider e-learning program for Higher Education, using a speech recognition software program to provide live practice and feedback on pronunciation.

Magdalena Jiménez Naharro in *Moving towards a revolutionary change in multilingual education: Does CLIL live up to the hype?* presents a descriptive study, within the Spanish BIMAP research project, analysing the success factors of the CLIL approach in the teaching of foreign languages. After a brief historical introduction on the origin of this methodology, on changes in the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism and some underlying psycholinguistic issues which support it, the work analyses how language and content are integrated in the light of research carried out in the context of history classes.

Jaqueline Aiello in *Targeting Language Ownership and Awareness*

with Authentic Uses of English, describes a 12-week content-based course implemented with a class of secondary school students in southern Italy that aimed to enhance the levels of language ownership and awareness via authentic uses of English. Content from students' Italian language and literature class was linked to the theme of exile, viewed from historical and contemporary standpoints to inspire collaborative and multimodal learning pathways.

The paper titled *Online interaction in teaching and learning a foreign language: an Italian pilot project on the Companion Volume to the CEFR* by the co-editor of this Special Issue, highlights the main outcomes of a national project on the Companion Volume to the CEFR promoted by the Italian Ministry of Education in cooperation with INDIRE. Online interaction, one of the new descriptors of the Companion is the focus of the project involving a sample of schools from all over Italy.

Daniela Cuccurullo in the paper titled *Autobiographical narrative and intercultural awareness* provides a reflexive analysis of the efficacy of using autobiographical narratives for enhancing students' intercultural awareness, starting from the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters (AIE)* published by the Council of Europe in 2009, proposed as a framework that can help students reflect critically on specific intercultural encounters. It is an approach that offers a forward-looking model for managing cultural and language diversity.

We are grateful to the invited contributors and to the peer review authors for providing inspiring inputs, suggestions and ideas for reshaping future language learning scenarios in Europe and in the world.

Amri Tanduklangi et al. in the paper titled *Classroom Action Research in Teaching English for Senior High School Students through Blended Learning in Kendari of Indonesia* focuses on the problem of class teaching and solutions through classroom action research. One of the main problems in teaching is that students are less motivated to learn and therefore their English language skills are still lacking. An action research project is described, using the design of "action research spiral structure" advocated by Stringer (2007) which consists of three levels: look, think and act. The results show progress in teaching where students' summative grades are higher than the minimum requirement of completeness scores. In this paper the focus of the Special Issue moves from the European perspective to a global one, describing a case study in Indonesia.

Elisabetta Schietroma, in the paper titled "Innovative STEM lessons, CLIL and ICT in multicultural classes" describes some CLIL activities in

STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Maths), carried out in English, in French and in Spanish in some Italian secondary schools. Cooperative and constructive methodologies in multicultural classes, the learner's centrality, ICTs and laboratorial tasks are the core of these projects. CLIL resulted in a suitable approach to increase motivation, develop the key competences and promote integration.

We are grateful to the invited contributors and to the peer review authors for providing inspiring inputs, suggestions and ideas for reshaping future language learning scenarios in Europe and in the world.

Letizia Cinganotto

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EDITORIAL

by Kristina Lodding Cunningham



EUROPEAN COMMISSION
DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EDUCATION, YOUTH, SPORT AND CULTURE
Youth, Education and Erasmus+
Schools and multilingualism

How linguistic diversity makes the case for language awareness

A short background to the proposed EU Recommendation

It is a great pleasure for me to introduce this special edition of the Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society, devoted mainly to the European Commission's latest initiative in the field of multilingualism. The proposal for a Council Recommendation on a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning¹ (henceforth "the language Recommendation") was launched by the European Commission in May 2018. It is currently being negotiated with the Council of Ministers with a view to having it adopted in May 2019. Let us take a brief look at the challenges and opportunities at EU level that provide the backdrop to the language learning Recommendation.

Seventy million Europeans lack adequate reading and writing skills. At the same time, an increasing number of pupils are learning the language(s) of schooling as (a) foreign language(s) in school. On 1 January 2017, there were 36.9 million people born outside of the EU-28 living in an EU Member State, while there were 20.4 million persons who had been born in a different EU Member State from the one where they were resident². The increased mobility between EU countries and the rising number of third country migrants and refugees coming to the EU in recent years has contributed to greater (linguistic) diversity in European classrooms.

Most EU education systems today provide systematic support for school pupils with migrant background, to acquire adequate levels of the language of

¹ [Proposal for a Council Recommendation on a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning, COM/2018/272 final](#)

² [Eurostat: Migration and migrant population statistics](#), edition March 2018

their new host country. This is one of the findings in the latest Key Data on language teaching at school in Europe³, a periodical publication by the European Commission's Eurydice Network, which is exploring and analysing education systems across Europe.

There is also evidence that the foreign language teaching in many Member States fail to yield the intended results. In spite of the fact that the first foreign language is gradually introduced at an earlier stage (at primary level in a majority of EU Member States), the level reached by the end of secondary education is not always sufficient for further studies or professional use. The first (foreign) language learned is generally English, even if it is not compulsory as a first choice in all countries. If a second foreign language is taught in school, the level of ambition is even lower. Few countries have provisions for mother tongue support for learners with a different first language than the language of schooling. Therefore, a lack of multilingual competences is still an obstacle to further learning, as well as to learning mobility for young people.

In terms of language learning policy, the migration crises has in fact provided a new impetus for education reforms at national level. Increased linguistic diversity in schools across Europe has put the spotlight on the necessity for various aspects of language awareness, several of which are discussed in this publication.

On 14 November 2017, the European Commission adopted a Communication⁴, which sets out the vision for a European Education Area by 2025. Its ambition is to provide all European citizens, but especially young people, with access to high quality education. The essence of this strategy, including the need to boost language teaching and learning in Europe, was endorsed by the European Heads of State and Government at their Summit in Brussels in December 2017⁵.

A first step in this direction was taken through the revised Key Competences Framework⁶ including new, more inclusive definitions of literacy and languages. These concepts are developed further in the language Recommendation. The Recommendation embraces the concept of "language-awareness in schools", which is not new, but has taken on a new meaning in the context of increased diversity and the need to re-think language education in schools in Europe. The concept includes recognition of the multilingual competences of all pupils, including competences in languages that are not taught in their schools. Schools may distinguish between different levels of language competences needed, depending on context and purpose and corresponding to every

³ European Commission – Eurydice: [Key Data on teaching languages at school in Europe](#), 2017 edition

⁴ [Strengthening European identity through education and culture](#) – the European Commission's contribution to the Leaders' meeting in Gothenburg, COM/2017/673 final

⁵ [European Council Conclusions](#) 14 December 2017

⁶ Revised [Council Recommendation on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning](#), COM/2018/024 final

learner's circumstances, needs, abilities and interests.

In the process leading up to the publication of the language Recommendation the European Commission organised a number of thematic workshops and peer learning activities⁷ on the subject of “rethinking literacies and language learning”⁸. These workshops brought together academics, European and national experts in the areas of multilingualism, key competences and the integration of migrants, and representatives of the policy networks ELINET⁸, SIRIUS⁹ and KeyCoNet¹⁰.

It is important to stress that literacy deficiency is not primarily a concern for migrant students or more generally for students from a disadvantaged socio-economic background. There are large numbers of students with reading and writing difficulties from all strands of society. Understanding the reasons for this and devising remedies, promoting reading alongside the use of digital media are universal challenges that go hand in hand with the development of multilingual competences.

The key to success is partly to use ICT in education in such a way that interest in reading, writing, speaking and understanding different languages is stimulated and openness and curiosity fostered. The success of eTwinning¹¹ shows that there are many creative and committed teachers throughout Europe who are able to make a tremendous difference by introducing innovative teaching methods.

Content and Language Integrated Learning, CLIL, is discussed in several articles in this publication. Through the diversity of Europe's multilingual classrooms, this proven methodology takes on a partly new role, in the context of young migrants learning the language of schooling.

The ambition at European level to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of language education at school, is part of the wider picture of transforming schools into learning organizations within school education as a learning system. In the context of the European framework for cooperation in Education and Training (ET2020)¹² and especially in the context of the Working Group on Schools, the Commission facilitates the exchange of good practices and experiences among Member States. The Working Group has just published a report with the title “European ideas for better learning: the governance of school education systems”. The work involved close collaboration by governmental

⁷ European Commission web page on [multilingual classrooms](#) and on [education and migrants](#)

⁸ [European Literacy policy network ELINET](#)

⁹ [SIRIUS policy network on migrant education](#)

¹⁰ [European policy network](#) promoting the implementation of the Key Competence Framework in primary and secondary school education

¹¹ [eTwinning – the community of schools in Europe](#)

¹² [Current Working Groups](#) under the Strategic Framework for Cooperation in Education and Training until 2020 (ET2020)

policymakers and education stakeholders in a series of meetings and peer learning events over the course of two years.

My colleague Hannah Grainger Clemson, who is the coordinator of the Working Group, introduces the report and explains the Group's working methods in a recent article¹³ in the Learning for Wellbeing Magazine.

Another forum for good practices and expert contributions in the field of school education in general and language teaching and learning in particular is the School Education Gateway¹⁴, an electronic exchange platform for people active in the area of school education.

One nice aspect of our policy work in the European Commission is that we are able to bring together experts from different disciplines, both researchers and practitioners. Such meetings can create interesting cross-fertilisation between projects and amplify the impact of the collaborative work. In some rare cases, it can even lead to unexpected off-spring results. One prominent example is the cooperation between Dina Mehmedbegovic from the Institute of Education at University College London and Thomas Bak from the University of Edinburg. Their combined expertise and advocacy for openness to languages in all forms, shapes and colours, is shared through their web site Healthy Linguistic Diet¹⁵.

The reports¹⁶ summarising the preparatory work being carried out by the European Commission, its research networks and other consultants are all available for downloading. Along with research magazines such as this one, they will feed into the broad policy debate about the future of language teaching and learning, which will be triggered by the Council Recommendation.

I am immensely grateful for the tireless commitment and enthusiasm of Letizia Cinganotto, who will never leave any stone unturned in her quest for progress through the power of European collaboration. She initiated this special issue of the Journal and chased down some of the best pens in Europe and beyond to discuss various aspects of the Commission's Recommendation from their respective angles. My heartfelt thanks go to all of the contributors, who agreed to submit brilliant articles, which will enrich the scientific and public debate about language teaching and learning for years to come.

In summary, there is a multitude of interesting work going on at local, national, regional, European and international level. Through the current top level policy priorities to support the integration of migrants and to create a

¹³ [Learning communities: Supporting change in European school education](#)

¹⁴ [School Education Gateway](#) – language learning on Europe's online platform for school education

¹⁵ [Healthy Linguistic Diet](#) – think tank and discussion forum about language learning

¹⁶ [Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms](#)
[Rethinking language education and linguistic diversity in Europe](#)
[Migrants in European schools – learning and maintaining languages](#)

well functioning European Education Area there is a wide open window of opportunity to create real change in the way in which we achieve good levels of literacy and multilingual competences for everybody!

Kristina Cunningham is currently the senior expert in charge of Multilingualism in the Directorate General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture of the European Commission in Brussels. Before this, she worked as a translator for the European Commission and as a sales and marketing manager in the private sector. She holds a Master's degree in business administration and modern languages from the University of Gothenburg, Sweden, and a Certificate of Political Studies from the Institute of Political Sciences in Paris, France.
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All of the views expressed in this article are my own and do not reflect those of the European Commission or other parties referred to.

BROADENING THE SCOPE OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION: MEDIATION, PLURILINGUALISM, AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING: THE CEFR COMPANION VOLUME

Enrica Piccardo¹
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Tom Goodier³

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³ Eurocentres Foundation

The CEFR's action-oriented approach, including its concept of the user/learner as a social agent mobilising a plurilingual repertoire, represents a significant development from the communicative approach. The CEFR moves beyond the traditional four skills (spoken and written reception and production) to also include interaction and mediation, opening to a complex vision of the situated and integrated nature of language learning and language use. Advances in research highlight the need to overcome a vision of languages as stable, pure objects existing outside their speakers/users and a reductive view of learning as an internal cognitive process, meant to prepare for later real-life use. These theoretical advances have been flanked by bottom up developments bringing a more dynamic vision of language education that engages more meaningfully with the principles of the CEFR.

The time was therefore ripe to complete the CEFR descriptive apparatus with new descriptors for mediation and plurilingual/pluricultural competence.

for citations:

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This article outlines the conceptualisation, development and validation of these descriptors and their publication in the CEFR Companion Volume (2018), alongside a text clarifying the paradigm shift in language education implied by the notion of the user/learner as a plurilingual/pluricultural social agent. The goal is to promote quality, inclusive education for all, and in particular to further the recognition and valorisation of linguistic and cultural diversity and the promotion of plurilingual interculturality.

1 The CEFR

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR: Council of Europe, 2001) is generally accepted to have given a positive impulse to language education in Europe and beyond (Byram & Parmenter, 2012). As Piccardo (2014) and Piccardo & North (2019 in press) explain, the action-oriented approach proposed by the CEFR, along with core underlying concepts such as that of the user/learner as social agent, represent a significant development beyond the communicative approach. The CEFR descriptive scheme moves beyond the traditional four skills (as spoken and written reception and production) to include interaction and mediation. This shift opens to a complex vision of the situated and integrated nature of language learning and language use. With its focus on the agency of the user/learner, taking into account both the social and individual nature of language use, as well as the external and the internal context, the CEFR was very forward-looking in its time. In this way, the CEFR views learners as social agents who mobilise *all* their competences, including their general (i.e. personal, non-linguistic) competences, and strategies in the fulfilment of a task, with a commensurate improvement of those competences and strategies as a result. This vision is a call to move away from seeing language as a code to be taught, with subtraction of marks for mistakes, towards seeing *language as action* in experiential learning. With the recent publication of the CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors (Council of Europe, 2018), this forward-looking vision of the CEFR has been further defined and articulated, particularly, though not exclusively, in the areas of mediation and plurilingualism.

Plurilingualism focuses on the interrelationships between languages in the social agent's holistic, dynamic and integrated language repertoire, based on a notion of partial competences that emphasises the glass half-full rather than half-empty, and acknowledges the lack of balance in people's intralinguistic and interlinguistic profiles. These were revolutionary concepts in 1996 when they first appeared in an early draft of the CEFR, and were intended to encourage learners and society to value linguistic diversity and the richness of plurilingual repertoires. However, the field of language education was, in general, slow to pick up on plurilingualism. In 2007 at the intergovernmental Language Policy Forum in Strasbourg, John Trim sadly said:

“This [*plurilingual*] approach meets better the realities of globalisation than various forms of purism which regard each language and culture as a separate entity, to be preserved and protected against the threat offered by alien forces. Most users of the CEFR have applied it only to a single language but its descriptive apparatus for communicative action and competences, together with the ‘can-do’ descriptors of levels of competence, are a good basis for a plurilinguistic approach to language across the curriculum, which awaits development.” (Trim, 2007, p. 51)

This call for development did not go unheard. Advances in research have increasingly highlighted the need to overcome a vision of languages as stable, pure objects existing outside their speakers/users and a reductive view of learning as an internal cognitive process, meant to prepare for later real-life use. These theoretical advances beyond traditional viewpoints have been flanked by bottom up developments in the practice of language teaching, and the shared international vision of language education has evolved towards a more dynamic one that engages more meaningfully with the core principles of the CEFR. The time therefore became ripe for a revision of the CEFR that would bring its descriptive apparatus to full completion and extend its scope for positive impact on learning and teaching through new ‘can-do’ descriptors in the CEFR Companion Volume (2018).

2 From a linear to a complex vision of language learning and use

Language education does not happen in a vacuum, it is dependent on the particular context and the contextual societal vision of what characterizes language and language learning/teaching. In linguistically and culturally diverse societies, languages take shape both at the level of each individual and at the level of communities. Cultures and identities are composites, structured at different levels, as are languages (Wandruska, 1979), similarly to the way fractals are (Larsen-Freedman, 2011). Both languages and identities look like neat, stable delineated entities from the outside but once they are seen from the inside they reveal themselves as unstable aggregates. The process of globalization gives rise to dynamic sociological landscapes where plurality and diversity are the norm, highlighting the need to reconceptualise language education. Unfortunately one very noticeable response is to try and reduce cultural and linguistic differences through the introduction of an impoverished form of English as a lingua franca, promoting this as a historically inevitable form of ‘progress’. The mistaken underlying belief is that equivalency between languages and cultures is assured in a transactional, ‘information-gap’ view of language, whereas in fact “Communication is the co-construction of meaning

in context – not the transfer of information across a gap” (Orman, 2013, p. 91). This tendency is a dangerous one: rather than examining a phenomenon from richly articulated different perspectives, a linear, monocular vision prevails that erases all cultural diversity and thus depriving individuals of multiple lenses to interpret phenomena.

Because languages are in fact the lenses through which we make sense of the world, acquire knowledge and articulate thoughts, alone or with others, through the process of *linguaging* (Swain, 2006). Having several languages means having several lenses, embracing a wider perspective, and, generally speaking, embracing interculturality (Byram & Wagner, 2018). This is increasingly important in our interconnected world faced with the ghosts of its past and present history. The potential of individual and societal linguistic diversity is a profound one, and should not be reduced to ‘being nice to one another’. Studies have started to show the benefits of several languages on the functions of the brain (e.g. Adesope *et al.*, 2010; Bak *et al.*, 2014, Malafouris, 2015) and on creativity (European Commission, 2009; Piccardo, 2017). The complexity of liquid modernity (Baumann, 2000) requires a ‘homo complexus:’ shaped by semiodiversity (Halliday, 2002), who is at ease with the unknown, embraces nonlinearity, and reflects and capitalizes on forms of mixing and meshing, of assemblage (Pennycook, 2017; Canagarajah, 2018). Complex societies need people who are able to thrive creatively in a complex paradigm.

If languages are potentially door-opening tools, language education has an important role to play in this process. Language education needs to move beyond the 1950s/60s paradigm of a linear, grammatically based syllabus in which learners (hopefully) acquire the ability to understand and produce a code, towards an approach capable of embedding both the individual and the societal dimensions in a broader educational frame. Different phases of pedagogic intervention contribute in an iterative, spiral pattern to awareness raising, enhancement of proficiency, and eventually autonomy. In such a new classroom landscape, where language learning follows dynamic, iterative, contextually and socially driven paths, mediation takes a crucial role with its capacity to enable and support the user/learner as a social agent in their development processes. Mediation was therefore the main focus of the development of the CEFR Companion Volume.

3 The interpretation of mediation

Mediation was introduced as the fourth mode of communicative language activity in the CEFR from the earliest versions in 1996. Simply stated, whereas production is concerned with self-expression, and interaction involves the joint construction of discourse to reach mutual understanding, mediation introduces

an additional element: the construction of new meaning, in the sense of new understanding, new knowledge, new concepts. Mediation usually involves reception and production – and often interaction. However, in mediation, in contrast to production and interaction, language is not just a means of expression; it is primarily a vehicle to access the ‘other,’ the new, the unknown – or to help other people to do so. Thus, mediation can be cognitive – in school or a training course; it can be relational – establishing the relationships, the space, time and conditions for successful communication; it can be cross-linguistic and/or cross-cultural. Such cross-linguistic/cultural mediation may be between subcultures, between (technical or colloquial) jargon and plain, standardised language as well as across named languages and cultures. On the other hand, it may in fact remain the whole time within one single variety of one language, since, if there is a barrier to understanding, it may not necessarily be language or culture that is causing it, but simply lack of information. On the other hand, it may not involve bridging barriers to understanding for other people, but rather a process of groping towards a new understanding, a eureka moment. This is generally achieved by articulating thoughts, frequently with others, in a process called ‘*linguaging*’ or, when all language resources are mobilised, *plurilinguaging* “a dynamic, never-ending process to make meaning using different linguistic and semiotic resources” (Piccardo, 2017, p. 9).

The CEFR made it clear that mediation can be across languages and varieties or it can also be within them. One can summarise this point in relation to the sections of the CEFR where mediation is introduced:

- Section 2.1.3: make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly
- Section 4.4: act as an intermediary between interlocutors who are unable to understand each other directly, normally (but not exclusively) speakers of different languages.
- Section 4.6.6: Both input and output texts may be spoken or written and in L1 or L2. (*i.e. they could both be in L1 or they could both be in L2*).

Nevertheless, in the context of increasing linguistic and cultural diversity that we discussed above, and with the introduction of the exciting concept of plurilingualism that we consider next, it is not surprising that both in the production of the CEFR and in its reception, it is primarily cross-linguistic and cross-cultural mediation that caught the imagination of project users. This is highlighted in the CEFR itself in two ways, *mediating communication* as an intermediary and *mediating text*.

German-speaking countries in particular were quick to adopt this approach to cross-linguistic mediation since, as Backus et al. (2013) point out, studies have shown that non-professionals are fully capable of performing such

mediation activities in informal situations. Cross-linguistic mediation started appearing in German curricula from the early 2000s (Kolb, 2016), in the HarmoS educational standards in Switzerland and, in the very detailed set of descriptors for mediation that appeared in *Profile Deutsch*, the CEFR content specifications for the German language (Glaboniat *et al.*, 2005). However, as Piccardo (2012) pointed out, the CEFR vision of the social agent, with its consideration of the social and individual, opened the way for a broader, richer interpretation of mediation. This includes social and intercultural mediation, Kramersch's (1993) notion of 'third space:' as an "alternative to linguistic and cultural confrontation[, a] plural area [in which] difference is pinpointed, negotiated and adapted" (Zarate, 2003, p. 95) by focusing on the ability to navigate the 'in-between spaces' thus developing what Kramersch (2009) calls symbolic competence.

Mediation in the sense of *mediating concepts* is also referred to in theories that have been recently informing language education, such as the socio-cultural theory (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). Mediation is a complex phenomenon that has been classified in many ways. Lantolf and Poehner (2014) cite Miller (2011) in identifying three orders of mediation: (a) metacognitive - originating in interpersonal communication and having a regulatory function, (b) cognitive - that has to do with culturally constructed tools that help construct concepts and knowledge, and (c) concerning the macro-level of institutions and society which influence both first and second order mediation. As Marginson and Dang point out:

"Vygotsky repeatedly emphasized the role of mediation in the development of reflexive self-determining human agency, or "active adaptation" (Vygotsky 1981, pp. 151–152). Humans internalized their own evolution while securing change in their environment, remaking both their conditions of existence and themselves." (Marginson & Dang, 2017, p. 119).

The CEFR's emphasis on the interaction between the social and individual, in relation to both the user/learner's internal competences and mental context and the external context of domain and situation, also reflects a complex, ecological perspective (Van Lier, 2004). In this view, learning occurs through "perception in action" (p. 97) when the social agent notices an 'affordance', an "opportunit[y] for action in the environment" (Käufer & Chemero, 2015, p. 166), which might be something the social agent needs in order to accomplish a task. Like Halliday, van Lier sees "meaning potential" (Halliday, 1973) as "the semiotic potential or the affordances" (Van Lier, 2004, p. 74) that are apparent. In exercising agency, one accepts invitations perceived in the environment. Mediation facilitates this perception of the relevant affordances.

Teachers perform this type of mediation all the time, as do user/learners when collaborating in small groups – provided they have clear goals and a sense of self-efficacy, as suggested by Bandura’s (2001) social cognitive theory of agency. This relates to theories such as situated cognition (Gallagher, 2009), situated learning and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the actional turn (Filliettaz, 2004) and collective intelligence (Levy, 2010). Then again, the user/learner can be viewed as a complex adaptive system (CAS), nested within the small group (another CAS), itself nested within the class in a fractal pattern. The interaction of these CASs with their environment leads to the emergence of – temporary – states of balance, which in turn will change over time, as presented in complexity theories (Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larson-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Such a broader conceptualisation of mediation has been pivotal in the revision of the CEFR. A broader view provides fertile ground for reconceptualising languages around the notion of the social agent that the action-oriented approach suggests. By developing mediation, the CEFR Companion Volume completes the CEFR descriptive scheme, making explicit the move beyond the four skills discussed above. At the end of a long process, the macro-categories that emerged for mediation activities were the following:

3.1 Mediating texts

Mediating texts (including video, graphic etc. as well as spoken text), by *Relaying specific information*, *Explaining data* verbally, *Processing text* or *Translating a written text* for someone else. *Note-taking* (in lectures, seminars, meetings, etc.), *Expressing a personal response to creative texts* (including literature), and *Analysis and criticism of creative texts* are also included under this heading. The first four categories listed above are common in professional and academic life at all levels, but particularly in teaching. Creese and Blackledge (2010) and Lewis *et al.* (2012) describe managing collaborative interaction or narrating text in different languages in multilingual classrooms. The mediation of creative text is of a different kind, reflecting the fact that in education and in everyday life, reading a good book or seeing a good film often leads to talking about it. The mediation of texts does not need to be limited to texts used in class. User/learners can be asked to read stories, read different versions of a fairy story or urban legend, research a topic on the web, and bring their findings to the class.

3.2 Mediating communication

Mediating communication by creating shared spaces that facilitate creativity,

openness and mutual understanding, (*Facilitating pluricultural space*), by *Acting as an intermediary in informal situations*, and by helping to avoid or solve critical situations or disagreements (*Facilitating communication in delicate situations and disputes*). The aim here is to facilitate understanding between user/learners who may have sociocultural, or sociolinguistic or personal differences in perspective, possibly in addition to speaking different languages. Mediating communication can involve acting informally as a linguistic intermediary between two parties, where research suggests that: "... lay interpreters can in fact achieve successful understanding in these situations, despite sometimes limited linguistic resources" (Backus *et al.*, 2013, p. 203).

Understanding the other requires an effort of empathy, keeping both one's own and the other perspectives in mind. Sometimes, as Backus *et al.* suggest, tensions and even disputes may arise that need to be acknowledged and faced in order to move further. This is the type of mediation associated with professional mediators – but treated here in the everyday sense of helping to resolve a misunderstanding, delicate situation or disagreement. It is not so difficult to imagine situations in today's diverse classrooms in which such lay interpretation may be useful. One can also imagine tasks which involve the L2 and L3 in situations in which two additional languages are being taught. Tasks reflecting this type of activity are already appearing in oral exams in Germany (see Kolb, 2016) and Austria (Piribauer *et al.*, 2015).

3.3 Mediating concepts

Mediating concepts involves, firstly, setting conditions for learning by *Managing interaction* (as a knowledgeable 'other') or *Facilitating collaboration interaction with peers* (as a group member), and secondly by *Encouraging conceptual talk* (as a knowledgeable 'other'), the kind of dialogic talk (Alexander, 2008) and languaging (Swain, 2006) that will help reach new conceptual ground by *Collaborating to construct meaning* (as a group member). The distinction between the two types echoes (in reverse) Halliday's "basic distinction between an ideational (representational, referential, cognitive) and an interpersonal (expressive-conative, social, evocative) function of language" (1975, p. 52). Collaborating in small groups increases user/learners' sources of mediation (van Lier, 2004; Walqui, 2006) and mediating for others in the group "is an opportunity to verbalise, clarify and extend their own knowledge of the subject matter" (Walqui, *op. cit.*, p. 168).

However, as Webb (2009) discusses, students do not automatically know how to explain, to reason, and to engage in reciprocal questioning – that is how to *collaborate to construct meaning*. Webb states that the students of teachers who have themselves received communication skills training – and

who then as teachers “asked more questions and carried out more mediated-learning activities (e.g. challenging students to provide reasons, highlighting inconsistencies in student thinking, prompting students to focus on particular issues, and asking tentative questions to suggest alternative perspectives)” (Webb, 2009, p. 16) – gave more elaborated explanations, themselves asked more questions, and built on each other’s contributions. That is, these students of teachers who had been trained to *encourage conceptual talk* tended to then do this themselves within the group, without needing further prompting from the teacher.

Piloting of the mediation descriptors suggests that, given appropriate, transparent descriptors, both learners and teachers can become more aware of mediation competences and strategies, as so move on from ‘ping-pong’ like interaction to more strategic construction of meaning. One teacher wrote: “*We saw how the participants moved from needing to clarify and confirm mutual understanding to interacting more effortlessly by building upon each other’s ideas and presenting one’s own ideas to invoke discussion.*”

4 Plurilingualism

Mediation and plurilingualism were introduced to language education at the same time with the CEFR, and as mentioned above, the interpretation of mediation that has received most attention is, not surprisingly, the cross-linguistic one. However, not all cross-linguistic mediation is necessarily plurilingual: it depends whether there is some reflection and focus on language awareness, on the similarities and differences between the languages.

The distinction between the terms plurilingualism and multilingualism, between pluriculturalism and multiculturalism is a very significant one. The prefix ‘multi’ underlines adding together discrete elements like numbers in a multiplication, people in a multitude; the prefix ‘pluri’ on the other hand is holistic, with the idea of plurality, of embedded difference. The distinction encapsulates the difference between the two opposing perspectives on linguistic and cultural diversity: empathy as opposed to otherness, living together as opposed to living side by side, interest as opposed to tolerance (Balboni, 2015). The reluctance of the English-medium literature to adopt a term originating in another language has led to an inflation of qualifiers added to the word multilingualism in order to overcome its fundamental limitation of suggesting discrete elements or “solitudes” (Cummins, 2008) rather than an integrated, holistic repertoire and awareness; thus we see terminology such as: *holistic view of multilingualism* (Cenoz, 2013); *active bilingualism, active multilingualism* (Cummins, 2017); *dynamic model of multilingualism* (Herdina & Jessner, 2002); *integrated multilingual model* (MacSwan, 2017); etc. However, this

holistic stance of plurilingualism does not deny the existence of separate, named languages, as proponents of translanguaging appear to do (e.g. García & Lin, 2016; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Otheguy *et al.*, 2015; Vogel & García, 2017). A plurilingual approach stresses the potential advantages for language awareness of considering interconnections, rather than pursuing the purist ‘target language only’ approach of the direct method, now past its centenary. As Cummins (2017) and MacSwann (2017) have pointed out, there is really little basis for negating the existence of named languages (E-languages) – whilst recognising their artificial, socially constructed character – from either the educational or linguistic points of view.

Plurilingualism describes “an uneven and changing competence, in which the user/learner’s resources in one language or variety may be very different in nature to those in another” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). From a plurilingual perspective, developing language competence is seen as dynamic and unbalanced; therefore the CEFR proposes the concepts of ‘partial competences’ and proficiency profiles of different kinds, further described in the Companion Volume. A plurilingual vision aligns with theories of ecology and complexity, and concepts of situated action and learning moving towards a nonlinear, more experiential, action-based conceptualisation of language education (e.g. Puren, 2009; van Lier, 2007). As Piccardo puts it:

“The new and potentially revolutionary aspects of a plurilingual vision are supported in three theoretical domains, each representing lenses through which the phenomenon can be effectively explored:

- (a) The psycho-cognitive perspective, which studies language acquisition mechanisms. A new connectionist paradigm is increasingly predominant in describing the functioning of the brain (Bickes, 2004, p. 38), and the brain of bi/multilinguals is no longer seen as the sum of monolingual brains but rather considered as a complex and distinct system (Bialystok, 2001; Perani *et al.*, 2003).
- (b) The sociocultural perspective, which posits that language acquisition occurs in the social sphere and is intrinsically linked to interaction and mediation between individuals, each possessing his or her own complex cultural system and all living within linguistically, culturally, and sociologically defined configurations (Lantolf, 2011).
- (c) The pedagogical perspective, a new complex vision of language teaching methodology, supported by the post-method movement (Bell, 2003; García, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2001).” (Piccardo, 2013, p. 603)

As mentioned previously, studies have demonstrated a cognitive advantage

to plurilingualism, including links to creativity. But perhaps the main argument in favour of plurilingualism is educational. Plurilingualism is a springboard to personal growth, self-awareness, language awareness, interculturality, political perspective and professional competence. The CEFR puts this point more modestly:

“... experience of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism:

- exploits pre-existing sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences which in turn develops them further;
- leads to a better perception of what is general and what is specific concerning the linguistic organisation of different languages (form of metalinguistic, interlinguistic or so to speak ‘hyperlinguistic’ awareness);
- by its nature refines knowledge of how to learn and the capacity to enter into relations with others and new situations.” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 134)

The definition with which plurilingualism is introduced in the CEFR has proven to be remarkably time-proof, and appears to encompass all the various ‘isms’ (Marshall & Moore, 2016) that have been ‘discovered’ since the publication of the CEFR. It is therefore worth quoting it in full, in the articulated version given in the Companion Volume:

“Plurilingual competence as explained in the CEFR (Section 1.3) involves the ability to call flexibly upon an inter-related, uneven, plurilinguistic repertoire to:

- switch from one language or dialect (or variety) to another;
- express oneself in one language (or dialect, or variety) and understand a person speaking another;
- call upon the knowledge of a number of languages (or dialects, or varieties) to make sense of a text;
- recognise words from a common international store in a new guise;
- mediate between individuals with no common language (or dialect, or variety), even with only a slight knowledge oneself;
- bring the whole of one’s linguistic equipment into play, experimenting with alternative forms of expression;
- exploit paralinguistics (mime, gesture, facial expression, etc.” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28)

For the Companion Volume, descriptors were developed for all these aspects of plurilingualism except for the last one. Here, informants consistently and without exception rejected references to paralinguistics (except in the context of sign languages) and therefore the attempt had to be abandoned.

Three scales are offered for plurilingual and pluricultural competence: *Plurilingual comprehension*, *Building on plurilingual repertoire*, and *Building on pluricultural repertoire*. In addition, the scales for *Identifying cues and inferring* and *Facilitating pluricultural space*, are relevant to this area, and most of the scales for mediating text refer to cross-linguistic as well as intralinguistic mediation.

5 Developing the descriptors

The project to develop the new descriptor scales took a design-based, iterative research approach (Van den Akker *et al.*, 2006). The first step was to collect existing descriptors that might be relevant, even if not validated, a process which included translating all the mediation descriptors from *Profile Deutsch* (Glaboniat *et al.*, 2005) into English, as well as recording interesting concepts and descriptions of behaviours from the literature and from reflection and discussion. This alone produced a huge number of possible descriptors. The second step was to define the main concepts and behaviours in the construct for the particular scale and formulate these into descriptors. That was then followed by small-scale consultations to select the better descriptors, improve formulations and discuss the proficiency level implied by them. As a result of these consultations, the descriptor pool was revised, pruned, and also expanded in certain areas.

The development process described above took from January 2014 to February 2015. After that, the draft descriptors entered a three-phase validation process that lasted from February to December 2015, with revisions, deletions and additions between each stage. The validation activities were based on those undertaken for the 2001 descriptors (North, 2000; North & Schneider, 1998), but on a larger scale in a mixed methods, sequential, qualitative and quantitative approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The first two main validation phases involved face-to-face workshops undertaken in participating educational institutions (listed in the acknowledgements in the Volume). By February 2015, 140 institutions had been recruited through Ealta, Equals, CercleS, UNiCert and other associations. The task in the first phase, in which about 1,000 informants took part in pairs, was to identify the scale to which each descriptor belonged, evaluate it for clarity, pedagogical usefulness and relevance to real world language use, plus suggest improvements to formulation. In the second phase, with 1300 participants working in pairs in face-to-face workshops at 189 institutions, the focus was on the level represented by each descriptor. The final phase was an online survey, conducted in English and French – with some 3500 usable responses – which replicated the assessment task with which the majority of the 2001 descriptors had each been calibrated with the Rasch

model (Linacre, 2015) to create the CEFR scales. These three main phases were then followed by two extra validation activities with volunteers: one to provide further validation of descriptors for plurilingual and pluricultural competence, and the other as the final step in the development of the new scale for phonological control (Piccardo, 2016). More details on the main project are provided in North and Piccardo (2016, 2019 in press).

The final analysis phase (February-May 2016) was followed by internal consultation with some 60 invited experts, plus formal consultation of member states, leading institutions and associations and over 500 individuals (June 2016 October 2015-February 2017). All but two scales (for mediation strategies) were considered helpful by at least 80% of both institutions and individuals and the most popular scales among member states were those for plurilingual and pluricultural competence. Altogether in the final validation phase and the consultation phase, some 4,000 comments were analysed – helping to slim down the number of descriptors. Just under 70 pilots were then carried out (January-July 2017) before online publication. At the time of writing, some 30 case studies are now underway as a follow-up to the formal launch at the conference “*Building Inclusive Societies through Enriching Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education at a Grassroots Level: the Role of the CEFR Companion Volume*,” which took place at the Palais de l’Europe in Strasbourg in May 2018.

Conclusion

The Companion Volume was published online in an initial version in October 2017 on the CEFR website,¹ the full version, including descriptors for signing competence, appearing online in February 2018 with the ISBN publication during 2019. Apart from a preface and introduction, the Volume is comprised of three parts. Firstly, there is a text on key aspects of the CEFR for teaching and learning languages. This clarifies the paradigm shift in language education implied by the CEFR notion of the user/learner as a plurilingual/pluricultural social agent. This section has straightforward short texts and visuals that may be useful in teacher education to help get across the multidimensional, action-oriented approach of the CEFR. Secondly, the Volume provides the complete set of updated CEFR illustrative descriptors, with new scales for aspects of mediation, online interaction, plurilingual/pluricultural competence, phonological control and signing competence. Finally there are a number of useful appendices, including one that provides examples for the personal, public, occupational and educational domains for the descriptors for mediation and online interaction, plus another that outlines the descriptor

¹ <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages>

development project.

The publication of the CEFR Companion Volume marks a milestone in the CEFR development process. This Council of Europe project started in the early 1970s producing *The Threshold Level* (van Ek, 1975), studies in needs analysis (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980) and learner autonomy (Holec, 1981), plus experimentation with self-assessment using ‘can-do’ descriptors (Oscarson, 1979). Following the 1991 Symposium in Switzerland that recommended the CEFR and ELP, there were a number of background studies, for example on existing frameworks and scales (North, 1993), on sociocultural competence (Byram *et al.*, 1996), on plurilingualism (Coste, Moore & Zarate, 1997) and on possible categories and levels for the framework (North, 1994). Implementation of the CEFR since its publication has been assisted by a user guide (Trim, 2001) a guide for language policy (Beacco & Byram, 2007), a guide for curriculum development (Beacco *et al.*, 2016), a manual for developing examinations (ALTE, 2011) and another for linking examinations to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2009), with an associated set of case studies (Martyniuk, 2010). The Companion Volume now completes the CEFR descriptive scheme and descriptor set, and the next publication will be a volume of case studies in utilising the Volume to further plurilingual and intercultural education.

The goal of this body of work is to promote quality, inclusive education for all, and in particular to further the recognition and valorisation of linguistic and cultural diversity and the promotion of plurilingual interculturality. Other, related, projects of the Council of Europe’s Educational Policy Division aim to protect the rights of linguistic and cultural minorities, assist in the linguistic integration of adult migrants, and promote education in competences for democratic citizenship (CDC project: Barrett, 2016). Readers are directed to the language policy website² for this wider perspective. In some respects, with its focus of mediation, plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, the Companion Volume brings the CEFR’s core philosophy closer to the wider context of the Council of Europe’s mission. Certainly it moves beyond a narrow view of modern language education, sharing many sources with the CDC project, and having relevance to CLIL³, language education for migrants, intercultural studies and, to some extent, education in the languages of schooling. This wider focus was overwhelmingly welcomed by informants in the consultation phase. The overall aim of the CEFR-related work, past, present and future, is to make a contribution at a policy level towards a Europe of plurilingually-proficient, interculturally-literate citizens. This is a long term project, with many decades behind it, but in the current political climate of rising nationalism and a seemingly stalled European project, it is more vital than ever.

² www.coe-int/lang

³ Content and Language Integrated Learning

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LANGUAGE AWARENESS IN A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

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The importance of language awareness has been highlighted in the most recent policy document of the European Commission, in response to the disappointing progress of European citizens towards the aim of proficiency in a first language and in two other languages. Language awareness has a long history and many meanings and is well placed to draw together a range of strategies aiming to improve language learning and teaching in European education. This paper argues that the broad scope of language awareness provides both opportunities and challenges for educators and policy makers. It examines the experience of language awareness in the UK and suggests lessons that might be learned from its achievements and from the challenges it encountered. In particular, targeted initiatives will be required to explore the barriers that remain to be overcome, new research will be required, along with the development of tools, strategies and collaborations to extend language awareness into areas where it can bring fresh benefits.

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1 Introduction

Language awareness has a long history and many meanings. At its most modest, it involves learners acquiring explicit knowledge of the patterns of grammar and discourse in the languages they are learning or using. At its most ambitious, it foregrounds the important ways in which language pervades all of human activity, especially the ways we think and communicate. As a result, language awareness is well placed to draw together a broad range of strategies aiming to improve language learning and teaching in European education. This paper argues that the broad scope of language awareness provides both opportunities and challenges for educators and policy makers. It examines the experience of language awareness in the UK and suggests lessons that might be learned from its achievements and from the challenges it encountered.

The importance of language awareness has been highlighted in the most recent policy document of the European Commission: *Proposal for a Council Recommendation on a comprehensive approach to the teaching and learning of languages*. (European Commission 2018b) The document is set in the context of the disappointing progress of European citizens towards the aim of proficiency in a first language and in two other languages. The Commission's proposal is that there is a need 'to invest in language learning by focussing on learning outcomes' and 'to improve language learning in compulsory education by increasing language-awareness in school education'. (European Commission, 2018b: 2)

The conception of language awareness is developed in the accompanying documentation, which explains that:

Language awareness in schools implies embracing an overarching approach to languages: teaching the language of schooling and supporting literacy and language development across the curricula, supporting the learning of ethnic-minority mother tongue(s), the teaching and learning of various other languages (including also dead languages and sign languages). (European Commission, 2018a: 15)

The 'overarching approach' involves three main areas of school education where language is recognised as having a crucial role, but which are most commonly treated as quite distinct issues. They address the three explicit social challenges of raising literacy, integrating immigrants from different language backgrounds, and improving the level of proficiency achieved by second language learners. Combining the three areas is the basis for a comprehensive strategy incorporating language awareness. For policy-makers, this has the advantage of enabling language related issues to be linked together in ways

that have not often been done, with the potential benefit of solving several social problems with a single approach. In addition, language awareness may have broader benefits, such as stimulating the motivation of learners to acquire more than one second language, and introducing language dimensions in the teaching of other subjects. The aim of securing these multifaceted benefits can be readily justified at a theoretical level, the difficulties in achieving the aim lie primarily in the practical challenges that must be addressed.

For educators in general, language awareness has the advantage of being conceptually satisfying. It shows the connections between a range of learning activities that are usually thought of as quite separate. It encompasses such capabilities as developing competence in one's own language, learning a foreign language, using language to build knowledge and understanding of the world, and developing the ability to reflect on the nature of language use by oneself and by others. In that sense, it links with the Socratic injunction to 'know thyself' and with the humanistic vision of the connectedness of all human life. At a theoretical level, the promotion of language awareness is almost self-evidently a valuable aim. However, the difficulties arise in the implementation of language awareness in teaching programmes, which must answer a range of practical questions. Which kinds of programmes? How much emphasis (or curriculum time)? Does language awareness complement or replace existing activities? And how can teachers acquire the necessary strategies and tools to implement it?

The Commission proposal begins to address the practical steps that will be required to support a strategy of developing language awareness. Before discussing these, however, it will be useful to examine the practical experience of educators who have sought to introduce the language awareness approach in one country, the United Kingdom, over a number of years. The challenges they have encountered and the solutions they have proposed may help to inform future thinking on the issue within a wider European context.

2 The language awareness experience in the UK

The emergence of interest in language awareness in the UK began in the early 1970s among language educators concerned with the teaching of English and of foreign languages in British schools. Their work was stimulated by a series of national reports that highlighted the poor levels of literacy in English in many schools, (Bullock, 1975; Kingman, 1988), the disappointing results following the introduction of French in primary schools, (Burstall *et al.*, 1974) and the challenges of including modern languages in the newly introduced National Curriculum in England. (Harris 1990) Many language educators contributed to the debates, (Brumfit, 1988; Carter, 1990), and the most prominent advocate of

language awareness was Eric Hawkins, whose book, *Awareness of Language*, became the standard work on the subject. (Hawkins, 1987) In 1992, a new journal was launched, with the title *Language Awareness*, to study the role of explicit knowledge about language in the process of language learning and to build bridges between the language sciences and other disciplines¹. This was followed by the establishment of an international Association for Language Awareness, which sponsors the journal and continues to encourage research and development, and to support advocacy of the approach².

The aspirations of the language awareness movement were to transform the paradigm for language learning, by showing links between the different types of language learned (national language as mother tongue, minority language spoken at home, second or foreign language) and by showing the cognitive importance of language in other disciplines. It promoted the vision of an awakening to languages, an ‘ouverture aux langues’, in the early years of schooling, followed by an apprenticeship in how to learn languages at secondary level, and a solid basis for learning whatever different languages were needed in adulthood. There is no doubt that many of the ideas have been influential in different areas of practice, but it has been an influence ‘en pointillé’, with some areas of impressive development but others where resistance has been met. For example, the argument for language awareness was largely accepted by educators in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, (Carter, 1990) and in the teaching of literacy and English as a first language. (Tulasiewicz, 1997) Language awareness is now an established part of methodologies for both branches of teaching³. The logic of this adoption in that learners develop their understanding of key terms and concepts used to describe language, and are able to apply this knowledge practically to facilitate language learning. A distinctive element of this approach is that learners acquire their metalinguistic understanding through English, the language they are learning, and thereby increase the scope of what they can articulate in that language. Discussion of metalanguage in the ‘target language’ appears entirely natural, since teachers and learners frequently do not have a shared first language.

On the other hand, although language awareness was strongly advocated by a number of foreign language teachers, they were not able to secure general agreement to their innovative proposals in primary school. On the one hand,

¹ See ‘Aims and scope’, *Language Awareness*, <https://www.tandfonline.com/action/journalInformation?show=aimsScope&journalCode=rmla20> (accessed 14 December 2018).

² Association for Language Awareness, Homepage, <http://www.languageawareness.org> (accessed 14 December 2018).

³ See, for example, the Cambridge English website, ‘Language knowledge and awareness’: <https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/teaching-english/cambridge-english-teaching-framework/language-knowledge-and-awareness-for-teaching/> (accessed 14 December 2018).

it would have been a significant departure from existing practice and on the other, it would have the effect of replacing the learning of a particular language by the learning of knowledge of languages in general. They had more success in adding awareness to secondary school foreign language learning, but the British programmes tend to favour cultural awareness rather than language awareness. (Department for Education, 2013) Cultural awareness is more clearly supportive of the learning of a particular language through an engagement with the cultures associated with the language. Language awareness, by contrast, tends to engage discussion of structural and comparative aspects of language through English, a language shared by teachers and learners, at the expense of the ‘target language’.

Some 25 years after he had first advocated the approach, Eric Hawkins offered his reflections on the barriers to success for language awareness. (Hawkins, 1999) Some of his concerns were specific to the United Kingdom. For example, he pointed to the inherent uncertainty over which languages would be needed by learners in their future development. This remains a problem in Britain, a predominantly English-speaking country where no particular second language will clearly be required by most learners. Young people may learn French, Spanish, German, Chinese or another language at primary school, may then switch to a different language in secondary school, and then discover that they need a different language in their adult life. This gives a cogency to the argument that students need an awareness of language diversity and the cognitive tools to learn a new language. In other European countries, where English has become the almost universal first foreign language, the argument from uncertainty has less force. It would, however, support the view that language awareness would prepare young people for learning a second foreign language, where there remains uncertainty around which language would be most appropriate.

Most of Hawkins’s analysis raises significant issues that are not nation-specific, and that need to be addressed in advocating language awareness to support the improvement of language learning across Europe. Of particular relevance is his view that there are tensions between different conceptions and priorities in language education. Three of these pose particular challenges for current attempts to promote language awareness:

- Tensions between different theories of language acquisition;
- Tensions between different purposes for language learning.
- Tensions between different groups of educators and practitioners;

At their most severe, these tensions may take the form of fundamental conflicts, but they may also be amenable to alleviation. The challenge to European language policy is to recognise the objective basis for these tensions

and to devise ways of alleviating them through development and collaboration. The next three sections will examine each of these areas in turn.

3 Tensions between different theories of language acquisition

Language learning has always responded to the predominant conceptions of language acquisition, which have been reflected in changing approaches to pedagogy. The traditional approach across Europe was the one based on grammar and translation, long associated with the learning of classical Greek and Latin, and adopted by foreign language learning in schools. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) Although this had been modified considerably from the method elaborated in the 18th century, it was still the underlying form of language teaching practiced into the 1960s, when it was confronted with a concerted challenge by what are now accepted as communicative approaches. The grammar-translation method was based on the acquisition of knowledge about the language, primarily its grammatical structures, into which the relevant vocabulary could be inserted, with appropriate modifications. Language was acquired by translating written material from one language into the other, thereby practising the different grammatical structures and extending the knowledge of vocabulary, particularly through the medium of writing. The communicative approach, on the contrary, took its starting point from the linguistics of Chomsky, which argued that people have an innate faculty for language acquisition, and that language is acquired by dint of exposure to large quantities of authentic material, particularly spoken language. The ascendancy of the communicative approach occurred at the same time as the language awareness approach was being promoted, with the result that language awareness could appear as a retrograde attempt to reinstate knowledge about language. Hawkins observed that: ‘Talking about the language and grammar became no-go areas.’ (Hawkins, 1999: 134)

During the 1980s and 1990s, the communicative approach softened to make space for some language knowledge, and there was some recognition of the contribution of contrastive linguistics as an aid to language learning through talking about language(s). However, the tension between communication and knowledge of language is still very evident in contemporary approaches to foreign language learning. The *Common European Framework*, for example, recognises the role of language awareness, especially in primary school learning, but compares language learning to learning to drive a car, with the implication that as competence increases, the role of self-reflection and declarative knowledge of the process will diminish. (Council for Cultural Cooperation, 2001: 12) In its forceful advocacy of plurilingualism, the *Framework* sees a role for communicative and intercultural competences in enabling learners to

build a plurilingual repertoire, but does not discuss the role of knowledge about language in this task.

Most branches of language learning and literacy studies now incorporate some element of explicit knowledge of language. There are suggestions that neuroscience now identifies ‘two separate but complementary routes of explicit and implicit learning’ (Bolitho *et al.*, 2003: 253), but there remains a tension between explicitly learning the structures of syntax, discourse or text on the one hand, and implicitly acquiring communicative competence on the other. The idea of separate but complementary routes to learning language holds the potential to resolve this tension, provided that both routes can be shown to support the same objective. More generally, the growing evidence about the neurophysiology of language use and language learning needs to be incorporated more firmly into pedagogy. (Mehmedbegovic & Bak, 2017)

Undoubtedly, a declarative knowledge of language can support the acquisition of language proficiency, but the ways in which it does so may differ quite significantly for learners of different language backgrounds. For example, learners seeking to improve their native language will have different needs from those seeking to learn the language of a country to which they have migrated, and different needs from those who are learning a modern foreign or classical language. It is also likely that the social background of learners will affect their response to knowledge of language. For example, learners from a literate elite background will learn differently than those from disadvantaged social backgrounds. Explicit knowledge may appear helpful to one group but may appear as an obstacle to the other. The same argument may well apply to learners from different cultural or educational traditions. As a result, the use of explicit knowledge to support language learning must take account of the wide variety of learners. This may provide some alleviation of the tension between knowledge and proficiency, However, the aspirations of language awareness go significantly beyond acquiring proficiency, and to that extent raise questions about the purpose of language education.

4 Tensions between different purposes for language learning

In his review of progress over 25 years, Hawkins pointed to the competing priorities between instrumental purposes for language learning and broader educational goals. He identified this as a fundamental problem and dramatized it as ‘Foreign Language as Education, not simply Instruction in a Skill’. (Hawkins, 1999: 134) To illustrate his point, he argued that language learning brings benefits that cannot be reduced to improved proficiency. The benefits included the personal enrichment opened up by the ‘sheer exhilaration of the journey into a foreign language and a foreign culture’. (p.134) They also

included three significant benefits for the learners' cognitive development.

First, learning a second language has a positive feedback on the learner's perception of their own language and culture. It may bring a new awareness of how language works and improve their mastery of their first language. It may encourage them to reflect critically about the attitudes and assumptions in their own culture, and in particular to question the stereotypes which are adopted unthinkingly. Second, language learning compels learners to match words and meaning. They become aware that words carry a subtle array of meanings and that different choices of word for the same object will evoke different responses from different audiences. 'Learning to mean' is the first step toward a critical language awareness that connects to a broader initiation into critical discourse analysis. Third, language learning develops the 'mathetic' function in learners: their capability to learn and acquire knowledge. Language learners use language to learn about the world and to go beyond what they are familiar with. Particularly in adolescent boys, it makes them more linguistically secure and better able to communicate in a literate and articulate manner.

These wider educational benefits of language learning are often rehearsed as reasons to study languages in schools, but they are not consistently incorporated into programmes of study, and are not always made explicit in the descriptors of learning outcomes. An example of this discrepancy can be found in the current national curriculum for modern foreign languages in England⁴. The purpose of study is stated in broad terms:

Learning a foreign language is a liberation from insularity and provides an opening to other cultures. A high-quality languages education should foster pupils' curiosity and deepen their understanding of the world. The teaching should enable pupils to express their ideas and thoughts in another language and to understand and respond to its speakers, both in speech and in writing. It should also provide opportunities for them to communicate for practical purposes, learn new ways of thinking and read great literature in the original language. Language teaching should provide the foundation for learning further languages, equipping pupils to study and work in other countries⁵.

As a statement of why languages belong in the curriculum, it sets out high aspirations: liberating pupils from insularity, opening them to other cultures, fostering their curiosity and deepening their understanding of the world. The

⁴ I am indebted to Bernardette Holmes and Peter Downes for their insights into the debates surrounding the ministerial guidance for language programmes. The presentation of it here is of course my own responsibility.

⁵ Statutory guidance: National curriculum in England: languages programmes of study', Department for Education website: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study> (accessed 14 December 2018).

text carries clear echoes of the humanistic vision of Eric Hawkins, sketched out above. It also echoes the generous ideals of the European Commission's language strategy document, *A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism*, which argued that speaking more than one language 'encourages us to become more open to other people's cultures and outlooks, improves cognitive skills and strengthens learners' mother tongue skills'. (European Commission, 2005: II.I.I) However, when language learning is broken down into its elements for practical implementation, these aspirations are subordinated to the principal goal of language proficiency. The same English national curriculum guidance sets out the subject content for pupils aged 7-11 (Key Stage 2), which begins:

Teaching may be of any modern or ancient foreign language and should focus on enabling pupils to make substantial progress in one language. The teaching should provide an appropriate balance of spoken and written language and should lay the foundations for further foreign language teaching at key stage 3. It should enable pupils to understand and communicate ideas, facts and feelings in speech and writing, focused on familiar and routine matters, using their knowledge of phonology, grammatical structures and vocabulary⁶.

More detailed activities include understanding and making meaning, expressing ideas and comparing grammatical features of the foreign language with those of English. However, their role is determined by the overarching aim of making 'substantial progress in one language'. Language awareness has a supportive but subordinate role.

The ministerial guidance certainly rules out the approach urged by some language awareness advocates, which is to devote the first years of language learning to a broad exposure to languages in their diversity and a discovery of the general patterns of language and discourse. An example of this, prioritising multi-lingual language awareness, was set out in a recent development project: 'Discovering Language'. In the pilot study, primary school pupils achieved a range of learning outcomes, including learning how different languages 'work', listening carefully to different sound patterns and intonation, becoming multi-culturally more aware and enjoying learning. Pupils also acquired language learning foundation skills which they could apply in secondary school, whichever languages they learn there. (Downes, 2014) Several primary schools have used this approach with success, but more are reluctant to adopt it because it appears to conflict with the government priority of making substantial progress in one language.

⁶ Statutory guidance: National curriculum in England: languages programmes of study', Department for Education website: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study> (accessed 14 December 2018).

This case clearly illustrates the tension between language awareness and language proficiency. While the case is specific to the UK, which does not select any particular language for primary school learning, the tension may be even more acute in countries where one second language is learned by the majority of pupils, and where the desire for proficiency in that language may be more acute. In most of Europe, English is the predominant second language, and there is likely to be resistance to any approach that detracts from making good progress in that language. Conversely, the advocates of a more multilingual approach to language learning may see the advantages of replacing the early study of English with the discovery of a rich array of languages through a language awareness programme. The tension between the two approaches is unlikely to diminish in the near future, and it is likely that in practice the benefits of language awareness will need to be integrated with the achievement of proficiency rather than presented as an alternative to it.

The tension identified here is not specific to language learning, and is to be found in most school subjects. Every discipline is able to present broad purposes that enhance its learners' lives, for example by stimulating curiosity, fostering discovery, encouraging critical thinking or opening new ways of seeing. These purposes are always in tension with acquiring proficiency in the knowledge and skills specified in the curriculum. It is often found that learning outcomes are limited to the acquisition of knowledge and skills, and in that case, the tension with broader perspectives is increased. The tension is further increased when the knowledge and skills are constrained by particular social requirements or career paths. The later stages of school and higher education are no doubt more likely to include these constraints, and there is always a risk that the acquisition of specific knowledge or skills can push out the broader purposes of personal development.

Identifying the risk is an important step towards managing it, and there are many methods for achieving a better balance between language acquisition and personal development. Some of these methods involve consideration of the whole curriculum, but some can be introduced into individual subjects. One subject-specific approach is to include values and attitudes more explicitly in the learning outcomes of a programme, whether as specific outcomes or as contributions to the broader purposes of education in the particular curriculum or sector concerned. An example of how this might be done is presented in the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education*, which identifies three groups of learning outcomes: Knowledge and Understanding, Strategies and Skills, and Values. (Kelly & Grenfell, 2004)

5 Tensions between different groups of educators and practitioners

Language awareness is seen by the European Commission as being able to provide solutions across the range of language education. It has already been suggested that this will require a degree of differentiation between different groups of learners. Experience suggests that it will also require a recognition of the different groups of teachers and educators. Eric Hawkins painted an unpromising picture of relations between these groups in the 1970s:

Twenty-five years ago, in the UK, the different kinds of language teacher (of foreign languages, English mother tongue, English as a second language, ethnic minority languages and the classics) remained sealed off from each other, in schools, universities and training colleges. Teachers of these subjects never went into each other's classrooms to hear what their colleagues were saying about language. They had not even tried to agree a common vocabulary in which to talk about language. (Hawkins, 1999: 124)

By the end of the 20th century, Hawkins lamented that ‘the absence of collaboration still blocks the development of a coherent language apprenticeship in the schools’, though he recognised that the Association for Language Awareness and its journal had promoted discussion of the issues. He also noted at least one pioneering project in the parallel training of foreign language and English teachers. (Pomphrey & Moger, 1999) Twenty years later, he would have had several more initiatives to report and in the UK a growing culture of cooperation between different groups. (Turner, 2001; Hawkes, 2013, Bedford, 2018) He would certainly have recognised the progress made by the *Common European Framework* towards providing a common vocabulary in which to discuss languages.

The distinct identities of different groups of practitioners are still very much in evidence, based partly in the different needs of the learners in their charge, which have already been mentioned and are undoubtedly the main priority of teachers. However, the way those needs are addressed is strongly influenced by the educational trajectory of the teachers, and by the particular social circumstances in which they work.

For first and second languages in schools, the educational trajectory of teachers is usually embedded in well-understood career pathways. Studies of European second language teachers have shown that the pathways vary significantly from country to country, and between the different phases of schooling, especially between primary and secondary schools. (Kelly, Grenfell, & Jones, 2003) For the most part, teachers follow a higher education programme, which leads to a degree and to a teaching qualification, often at

postgraduate level. In the course of this itinerary, trainee teachers are likely to be directed into studies targeted at the type of teaching they intend to pursue. Hence, trainees for primary school will have a general educational training, certainly including a focus on the language of instruction and perhaps on one or more other languages. In contrast, trainees for secondary school will usually specialise in the particular language they intend to teach, which may be the first language of the country or one or more second languages. As a result, secondary school teachers are likely to have pursued quite distinct courses of study and training, depending on whether they teach the national language or a foreign language. A further differentiation is that first language teachers are likely to be citizens of the country, often from birth. Teachers of second languages, by contrast, will in many cases have a personal background in the language they teach, often as citizens of another country where that language is spoken as a first language, and will hold qualifications obtained in their home country.

The different education and training pathways of first and second language teachers are reinforced by the professional organisation of their career. This is most evident at secondary level, where very often they will be located in different departments within their school. It is also visible in the external support structures, particularly in professional associations, which are typically organised separately for first and second language teachers. For example, in the UK, the Association for Language Learning is ‘the UK’s major subject association for those involved in the teaching foreign languages at all levels’⁷. It was formed in 1990 from the amalgamation of seven UK associations of language teachers, which mainly represented different languages. Its counterpart for first language teachers in the UK is the English Association, which aims to ‘further knowledge, understanding and enjoyment of the English language and its literatures and to foster good practice in its teaching and learning at all levels’⁸. It was formed in 1906 and received a Royal Charter in 2006. Both of the associations have extensive international links with similar bodies in other countries. Both associations have limited links with other groups of language teachers. The Association for Language Learning has links with teachers of ‘world languages’, including the minority or ‘community’ languages spoken in the UK, while the English Association has links with teachers of literacy. However, there is little evidence that the two associations have any contact with each other or make common cause on any issues of mutual concern.

This example of the professional life of language teachers is specific to the UK, but reflects a common pattern in other European countries: teachers of the

⁷ See ‘What is ALL?’, Association for Language Learning website, <https://www.all-languages.org.uk/about/what-is-all/> (accessed 14 December 2018).

⁸ See ‘About the English Association’ on the English Association website: <https://www2.le.ac.uk/offices/english-association/about-us> (accessed 14 December 2018).

first or national language have little contact with teachers of second or foreign languages. In addition, the relations between second language teachers are often fragmented by the existence in many countries of associations devoted to a particular second language (e.g. English, French, Chinese) or a group of cognate languages (e.g. Romance, Germanic, Slavic). The diversity is often reinforced by international networks with the same focus on particular languages, and by the activity of embassies and cultural institutes who seek to support the language of their home country. It should be noted, though, that over the last decade or more, embassies and cultural institutes have been active in combining their efforts to promote the learning of languages more generally and to avoid excessive partisanship in support of individual languages. This is a good example of the important value of cooperation.

While the itinerary of first and second language teachers in schools can be mapped with reasonable accuracy, the career paths of other language teachers are more varied and fluid. The teachers of a national language as a foreign language are increasingly numerous, particularly in the most popular languages. Entire educational industries have grown up to provide services in English as a Second or Other Language, in Français langue étrangère, and in other major languages. Though more recent than school-based teaching, career paths are beginning to be established, through the provision of certificates and diplomas, especially at postgraduate level. However, the higher education experience, national origins and linguistic profile of these teachers are highly diverse. Many of them chose this career at a relatively late stage and often gain experience of teaching in a variety of locations and in several different sectors, including the growing private educational sectors. For personal and professional reasons, they are often highly mobile and the majority are likely to have short-term contracts rather than settled long-term posts. This diversity is also found among teachers of the language of instruction to learners from other language backgrounds, especially teaching the children of newly arrived immigrants in schools, or providing services for adult migrants. For this reason, too, the organisations to which these teachers may belong are more diverse and more specialised in the services they offer. Even more diverse is the group of teachers of minority or 'community' languages, who work to support pupils' proficiency in their home language. Most are not full-time teachers and may offer their expertise on a voluntary basis, and outside the formal school system.

A final group that needs to be considered for engagement is teachers from other disciplines, who might be drawn into adopting language awareness in their pedagogy. In principle, this could involve teachers from any educational background and career path, affiliated to any professional association of teachers. Many supporters of language awareness espouse the notion that 'every teacher is a language teacher', at least to the extent that they are experts in the

language of their subject in their own language, even if they lack the ability to introduce other languages into consideration. Particular subject areas may lend themselves to adopting a more multilingual form of language awareness, such as music, history or geography, where a number of teachers have embraced content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and have recognised the added value that language diversity can bring to subject knowledge.

The attitude of these different groups towards language awareness inevitably displays a wide variation, based on the range of different itineraries and professional identities of the teachers and the educational needs of the learners. The kind of argument that will resonate with generalist primary school teachers may not appeal to a specialist teacher of foreign language in secondary school, for example, let alone to a specialist geography teacher. These differences appear as tensions from the point of view of advocates of language awareness, and imply that each of the teacher groups will need to be addressed in different terms in order to highlight the benefits that language awareness could bring in their specific circumstances.

A further complexity is introduced by the importance of other stakeholders in determining the pedagogical approaches to be adopted. A short list of stakeholders would include policy makers such as ministries, politicians, examination and inspection agencies, expert advisers and think tanks. It would include school leaders and managers, who often have an influential role in determining how a curriculum is implemented within a school. It would include parents, who may exercise considerable influence locally on schools and nationally on government policy, whether individually or through representative bodies. And it might well include learners themselves, who are often vocal in articulating their learning needs and may ‘vote with their feet’, by embracing or resisting particular approaches. The task of persuading these stakeholders to welcome language awareness will similarly require a flexible and differentiated approach.

6 Lessons to be learned

Language awareness has accompanied language learning to a greater or lesser extent for many years, taking many forms in different contexts. In practical terms the European Commission has proposed supporting the development of language awareness in schools and training centres by such steps as supporting the mobility of learners, enabling teachers to address the use of specific language in his or her respective subject area, strengthening learners’ competence in the language of schooling, valuing linguistic diversity of learners and validating language competences that are not part of the curriculum. It has proposed to support teachers and educators by investing in the initial and

continuing education of language teachers to maintain a broad language offer (including preparation for linguistic diversity in the classroom), promoting study periods abroad for students intending to become teachers, integrating learning mobility into the education of all language teachers and promoting eTwinning. (European Commission, 2018b: 14)

All of these proposals develop the portfolio of support that is already available for language education, and will be essential in giving a firmer presence to language awareness in the practice of language teaching. In addition, the foregoing discussion of challenges that have arisen in past efforts to promote language awareness suggests that targeted initiatives will be required in order to overcome the inherent tensions that accompany it. These have created barriers that will require research and development and collaborative projects if they are to be addressed effectively.

The tension between different theories of language acquisition underlies some of the barriers. The constant evolution of theories and of language pedagogies provides scope for a larger place to be negotiated for language awareness, no doubt in a reconceptualised form. This will need to be achieved through research by specialists in applied linguistics and language educators, working together as much as possible. The insights and understandings they reach can then be developed into approaches for particular language learning sectors, and potentially into tools that can be shared across sectors, meeting the ambitions of policy makers and educators to incorporate language awareness across different areas of language learning and extending it to other subject areas.

The tensions between different purposes for language learning similarly generate obstacles to language awareness. The key challenge is to achieve a suitable balance between language acquisition, knowledge of language and personal development. Undoubtedly the balance will vary between language learning contexts. Further research and development is required, involving educators and policy makers, to tease out the complexities, and especially to bring to the surface aspects of language awareness that can create a bridge between language proficiency and personal growth. This would help to give educational specificity to the Slovak proverb that ‘*Koľko jazykov vieš, toľkokrát si človekom*’ (The more languages you know, the more of a person you are) (European Commission, 2005: 2). The results of these reflections need to be embodied not only in policy documents but also in tools that can readily be adopted by teachers in classrooms. Beyond this, the learning outcomes of teaching programmes need to be reviewed to provide explicit recognition of the values of personal development that are still mainly implicit in documentation.

Tensions between different groups of educators and practitioners present a number of barriers to the extension of language awareness. Fortunately, this is

an area where the European Commission and member states can readily build on progress that has already been made. The major task is to ‘break down the silos’, and on past experience, this can be significantly enabled by encouraging cooperation between different groups and different countries. The experience of many projects funded by national governments or by European programmes is that innovative thinking can be facilitated by bringing people together from different directions and that new relationships can be established between groups that had little previous contact⁹. A particular focus for cooperative projects in language awareness could be pedagogical materials for teachers, and further development of teacher education, including continuing professional development.

Foregrounding language awareness in a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning is an ambitious project, which promises significant social and educational benefits. It can draw on half a century of experience during which some areas of language education have successfully embraced language awareness. And it can learn from the other areas in which language awareness has had a more limited impact. Targeted initiatives will be required to explore the barriers that remain to be overcome and the steps that are needed to address them. This will involve new research and the development of tools and strategies that can support the extension of language awareness into areas where it can bring fresh benefits. It will also require the collaborative projects and new networks of educators and practitioners who will take forward the implementation of proposals. None of these initiatives is beyond the power of European bodies and nation states to put in place. If policy makers provide the necessary resources and support, they will be able to shape developments that not only strengthen the learning and teaching of languages across different areas, but also offer many learners and teachers the wider cognitive and cultural benefits that enhanced awareness of language can bring.

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- ⁹ here are many examples of such cooperation, but the projects undertaken or sponsored by the Conseil européen pour les langues/ European Language Council since the mid 1990s provide an excellent sample in the area of higher education languages. See ‘Projects’ in the CEL/ELC website: <http://www.celelc.org> (accessed 14 December 2018).

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ENHANCING LANGUAGE AWARENESS AND COMPETENCE- BUILDING THROUGH A FUSION OF PHENOMENON-BASED LEARNING AND CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATION

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This article describes how the fusion of two innovative approaches in education can provide alternative pathways to the learning of academic subjects, including languages. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Phenomenon-based Learning (PhBL) are combined to achieve intended learning outcomes which includes language awareness, attitude change towards language learning, and transversal subject learning. Enabling a form of pragmatic social constructivism, both CLIL and PhBL are heavily identified with types of integrative educational practices common to Finland. Following an introduction to each practice, the article describes the use of this fusion approach with high school students in Mexico where the level of additional language competence is generally low. Acknowledging that there are rarely educational models that can be exported from one country to another, it is argued that the fusion of CLIL and PhBL provides a blueprint that can enable educational innovation to flourish in different contexts.

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1 Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was launched in Europe during the 1990s as part of an exploration in re-thinking how we learn languages. It was developed in Finland as a type of open-source framework. The original definition “CLIL is a dual-focused approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Marsh, 1994) was intentionally inclusive. The strategy at that time was to pull together a community of researchers and practitioners who had common interests which could be strengthened, if aligned, through an inclusive and generic cross-curricular ethos (Marsh, 2013).

The experimental piloting and conceptualization of CLIL derived from work pioneered in Finland and the Netherlands. It became a largely grassroots innovation driven by educators and researchers in Europe. Adopting the term as an identity marker, this community of professionals voiced the view that the status quo situation of unacceptable language fluency outcome levels throughout Europe could be changed. Change required examining why after so many hours of conventional language learning, ability levels to actively use and think in the target language were so low. The desire for change provoked the question of whether different practices could be developed using available resources in real-life school contexts to achieve substantially better outcomes. Explicit support by the European Commission further enabled a swift uptake of interest across a range of experts in different countries to explore means by which to boost multilingualism through accelerating the successful learning of additional languages (see, for example Marsh, 2002).

Phenomenon-based Learning (PhBL), developed in Finland since the 1980s, (e. g. Rauste-von Wright, 2001) has become a key innovation in the 2016-2017 revised Finnish National Curriculum Framework (Halinen, 2015). It is a curricular technique by which to enhance intellectual development through use of recognized student-centered methods. Posited as a form of pragmatic social constructivism the concept incorporates the philosophical ideas of John Dewey, G. H. Mead, and the educational work of Richard Prawat (1989). It can be viewed as following the perspective of concept-based social constructivism. Realized as a form of transversal *learning across the curriculum* it has taken project-based learning to a new level of educational function through heavy focus on not just *doing* but also thinking skills and understanding.

Frequently student-driven, PhBL involves problem-solution-type learning sequences following what is widely termed as an inquiry-based approach (See Barrow, 2006; Lesmes Celorrio, 2017). It is supported by understanding of high impact educational practices (see, for example Hattie, 2012), and also recent discussion about the learning preferences of digitally astute young people

(Carey, 2015; Greenhow *et al.*, 2009).

Content and Language Learning (CLIL) and Phenomenon-based learning (PhBL) are examples of innovative practices achieved through both curricular integration and educator teamwork. Each involves re-conceptualizing subject teaching (e.g. languages, mathematics, physics, chemistry), and enabling change management in schools (see, for example Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010; Lonka, 2018)

Although both CLIL and PhBL require certain prerequisite conditions to put them into action, each allows a wide degree of freedom according to context and purpose. Each are relatively resource-light, but demanding in relation to organizational practices. To implement CLIL and PhBL a school needs to provide systemic support and recognition, and assessment procedures need adjustment. The major steps are in re-thinking teaching and learning practices, especially in relation to desired learning outcomes, and adjusting scheduling and learning environment arrangements.

In Finland PhBL is usually carried out through the first language in schools and colleges. But the fusion of CLIL and PhBL enables a further additional language development dimension to be realized. One aim of this fusion may be to develop Language Awareness and go beyond seeing language skills as purely utilitarian in education (see, for example Bruner, 1983; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Hawkins, 1999).

Language Awareness includes how language is used to achieve specific goals in communication; metalinguistic awareness of how an additional language reflects back on the first language; how academic genre differs across disciplines; how language is used to exert power and influence; and Halliday's (1978) "mathetic" function (combining the development of language-for-learning with language-for-action). It is described by van Lier as "an understanding of the human faculty of language and its role in thinking, learning and social life. It includes an awareness of power and control through language, and of the intricate relationships between language and culture" (1995, p. xi). In relation to PhBL this would include the culture of different disciplines and domains.

Both invite disruption to the status quo. Each is an example of innovative curricular integration. The introduction of CLIL in 1994 and formal recognition of PhBL in the Finnish national curriculum 2016/2017 can be viewed as emergent examples of curricular innovation. There are signs that other forms of curricular integration are becoming a norm in outstanding educational systems, schools and colleges. Examples include the uptake of environmental science, computational thinking and programming, career guidance and navigation. Each involves creating across-the-curriculum learning environments where single subject learning is taken out of the silo, integrated with other subjects, and

applied through state-of-the art student-centered methods and other subjects.

2 Assumptions in Implementing PhBL and CLIL

Children entering school now are likely to retire from working life around the year 2080. The competences they require for their adult lives requires both domain-specific knowledge and systems thinking. They will need ability to adapt knowledge, competences and skills, to manage emergent working and social life demands. Domain-specific knowledge alone, will not prepare them for this future.

Only a small amount of learning takes place within the confines of a school environment. Our understanding now of learning environments is that in school we have a mandate to provide a foundation for continuous out-of-school learning, thinking and competence-building.

The affective dimension of learning is crucial for success. Emotions drive attention. Attention drives learning and memory. Self-confidence, awareness, and a positive sense of self are crucial attributes that educators need to develop in young people. The affective dimension is positively driven by relevance. Learning needs to be perceived by all stakeholders, students, teachers, guardians, and employers as relevant.

Individual and collective teacher efficacy is essential if schools are to realize the potential of all students. These teachers need to believe in the capabilities of their students, and also in themselves as being able to nurture the personal and intellectual development of their students.

Digital technologies are having an impact on how young people think, behave and learn. The proliferation of devices, access to the Internet, and time-in-use continues to grow. For digital technologies to be safely incorporated into the upbringing and educational experience of young people it is essential to view what their use brings into the lives of young people, and what it can take away.

Education can be viewed as *one of the most talked about and least acted on* features of societies, and it can be resistant to change. There is a need to challenge traditional profiles and contexts of learning. If top-down directives are issued it can take 20-30 years for systems to adjust and yet the speed of change in our current societies does not allow such a lag between decision-making and realization. Education has been subject to short-term political directives in countries, and teachers, the front-line operational experts, have often not been given sufficient autonomy and resources to function as well as they could in schools as professional communities. Many examples exist which do not fit this picture but there is a widely held view that schools need to change, and need the means

by which to change.

Rather than operating as engines for progress and value creation for the wider societies, education in schools often evolves through first order change. First-order change is where small adjustments are made slowly over time that do not have a significant impact on existing power structures, teaching and learning traditions, and attitudes.

Second-order change involves transformative actions that require new ways of thinking and interacting, and the exploration of new *vistas* of opportunity. The fusion of PhBL and CLIL invites an opportunity for second-order thinking and action. One key reason for this is that it is the teachers themselves who innovate through creating high impact teaching (Hattie, 2012) and learning environments. Second-order change is possible if potential gatekeeping forces are controlled, including lack of recognition, time, collaboration, and inappropriate forms of assessment which can create systemic disjuncture that undermines efforts to implement innovation.

When examples of curricular integration such as PhBL and CLIL flourish in certain environments, they need to be identifiable and articulated. Articulation follows from conceptualization, and if this is too rigid then any innovation cascade is at risk of faltering. One power of both PhBL and CLIL is that their definitions can cover a wide scope of activities. For example, conceptualization of the term CLIL derives from the use of the phrase *dual-focused* in definitions such as “a dual-focused approach in which an additional language is used for the learning of both content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to pre-defined levels” (Marsh *et al.*, 2011, p. 11). For PhBL a similar definition is where knowledge of different academic subjects is applied to create a single transversal learning experience in which a real world problem is examined from diverse perspectives.

Curricula usually have academic subjects taught as separate and often fragmented domains. This encourages myopic thinking perspectives that do not reflect the holistic ways by which people perceive the real world.

“Language is not a domain of human knowledge (except in the special context of linguistics, where it becomes an object of scientific study); language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge” (Halliday, 1993, p. 94).

Language learning benefits from a “threefold integrated perspective of learning language, learning through language, learning about language” (*Ibidem*, p. 113). This can be viewed as the foundation that underpins CLIL.

21st century education needs to develop a worldview through holistic learning that enables systems thinking. This can be understood as the *knowledge triangle* in which teaching and learning should involve integration of practices

in education, innovation and research. Students need to identify and see interdisciplinary patterns. They need to understand the inter-dependency of the knowledge and understanding of different subject domains which can be utilized for real world problem solving, be this academic, pragmatic, work-based or personal. They need to see learning as relevant and practical, and not only theoretical, and develop collaborative teamwork skills. This can be viewed as the foundation that underpins PhBL.

3 Case: High Schools, Jalisco, Mexico

During 2017-2018 an experimental project involving the fusion of PhBL and CLIL was co-designed by experts in Finland, Spain and Mexico. The concept was to be piloted in a context where long-standing constraints are deeply embedded in an educational system, but confidence and readiness to change the status quo and introduce innovative practices is strong.

Guadalajara is Mexico's second largest city, located in the state of Jalisco. Over the last decades the state has steadily lost economic influence. One of the identified weaknesses is a lack of workforce foreign language competence, especially in English. Having experienced some 500 hours of English teaching only 15% of high school graduates were, when entering higher education, at Level B1 of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Universidad de Guadalajara, 2016).

Studies have demonstrated that whilst curriculum, teaching competence, course content, and methods play a role in explaining such poor outcomes, one key area of interest is the attitude of teachers and learners towards learning languages. Another is that learning English as a subject has tended to be predominantly through grammar-based language instruction (*Ibidem*).

In 2018 the University of Guadalajara covers more than 50% of all the high school and higher education students in Jalisco (280,297). In 2015 it launched a Language Policy to improve the learning of languages alongside a strategic action plan to remedy the situation. One action was to explore ways to counter the negative attitudes of adolescents towards the learning of English, and towards themselves as foreign language learners.

PhBL-CLIL projects were designed for an initial 15 high schools. 10% of the volunteer teachers were language teachers. The number of teachers in one school per project ranged from 2-6 persons. The students were generally in their first year of high school (aged 15 years). The group formation of teachers was carried out according to the principle that not all members would be expected to actively use English, but that their involvement would be significant if they could contribute to the development of teaching and learning practices used.

This PhBL-CLIL pilot had 3 objectives:

1. To raise the self-confidence and motivation of young people to learn and use English
2. To co-design a prototype of a learning environment that accelerates the learning and acquisition of both content and English
3. To build teacher competences to use innovative student-driven learning through PhBL-CLIL methods by which to raise teaching and learning standards (of both content and language)

Themes were selected according to curriculum learning standards for each subject, the subject areas of each school-based teaching team, and the interests of students.

Each project involved 25 hours of student contact time and was co-designed with the teacher teams in training sessions (30 hours) where the principles of PhBL and CLIL were blended. Versatile content and language scaffolding resources were designed to enhance learner-centricity and autonomy, and to help students navigate learning paths.

PhBL-CLIL phenomena (from Greek *Phainómenon* the obvious, what can be seen) included environmental sustainability, heroism, happiness, physical health, myths, ethics, music, identity, pregnancy, and well-being.

3.1 Case Example: Adolescent Pregnancy

Student teams examined unintended adolescent pregnancy through the lens of multiple actors and inter-disciplinary perspectives. This is a topic of considerable relevance to the lives of the students as the adolescent birth rate is high in Mexico when compared globally (UNFPA, 2016). In Jalisco it is of acute societal concern. From January to July 2016 17.5% of all births were to mothers aged between 10-19 years old (IIEGEJ, 2016). The final outcome was designed as an awareness-raising workshop for young people on sexual behaviour entitled *Passion or Pressure?*

Combining the principles of PhBL and CLIL techniques the project generated an unconventional learning environment. This was partly due to the integrative inter-disciplinary approach involving empowerment of students to take responsibility for processes and outcomes; relevance of the learning experience to the lives of the students; techniques for competence-and confidence building; and even with widely diverse levels of language proficiency, the use of English to source, process and accomplish aspects of tasks. The pedagogies used were new to the students as was the experience of studying through a collaborative project involving teachers of different disciplines. These pedagogies also invited use of mobile devices to support learning (see, for example Binterová & Komínková, 2013; Cinganotto & Cuccurullo, 2015).

Students approached the subject from different academic perspectives. They assumed intentional responsibilities and roles (parents, medics, social workers, career advisers, female and male students, economists, religious, and legal figures) to enhance cooperative learning through simulations in creating and assessing cases involving young people of different ages and relationships. This also involved modelling activities for students to teach and transfer knowledge about issues relating to fact, fiction, prejudice and feelings.

Anchoring to prior and background knowledge was often in the form of visuals such as drawings, photographs, video and statistics (such as looking at family histories and regional early pregnancy statistics). Critical discourse activities, especially through image and text, were used to enable students to compare, evaluate, and describe how peer, social media, fashion, and other pressures impact on encouraging sexual activities, alongside protective behaviour and contraception.

Drama and simulation was used to act out verbal and non-verbal communication in managing different types of situation through face-to-face role-play, and to demonstrate the emotional and physical experience of a young woman as she goes through the stages of pregnancy.

Open-ended questions, often carrying new concepts, were used for situation appraisal and reflection on student's views on unexpected pregnancies during the module, alongside assessment of prior knowledge about sexuality, behaviour, choice, and peer pressure.

Student outcomes were included in a single demonstration designed for adolescents. This involved use of a wide range of language-supported activities, games, predictive tests, role-play, simulation, statistical analyses, and interactive voting.

In summary:

- Students looked at a single phenomenon, one which they themselves perceived as relevant to their lives, from different real-world perspectives.
- The phenomenon was examined from different 360°-type perspectives.
- Versatile scaffolding resources were used to support and guide the student's conceptual learning of the phenomena through the additional language.
- Learning included the development of skills in creativity, learning, thinking, social communication, problem solving, and the fostering of academic participation. One key area was the development of skills in using digital devices and eLearning environments.
- A key objective was to enable students to develop their own preferred ways of thinking in order to develop lifelong learning strategies for both

- problem-solving and other forms of learning.
- Assessment was team-based, and rarely individual.

Concluding Comments

Since inception in 2016, this PhBL-CLIL approach has been regarded as largely successful. In 2017 it was formally ratified into the curriculum as *an across-the-curriculum* learning event named *Trayectoria de aprendizaje especializada (TAE) Ser Global*.

One typical type of criticism about any educational innovative initiative stems from applying a fragmented research approach, and not looking at an initiative with respect to the ‘bigger picture’. The Jalisco pilot was evaluated according to a form of knowledge mobilization whereby a set of inter-linked parameters were examined in relation to impact.

Over the years, both CLIL and PhBL have attracted criticism in learning environments ranging from those which may be highly-resourced in Europe, through to less-well-resourced in sub-Saharan Africa. Sometimes, possibly through intentional tunnel vision, criticism is used to defend established interests (for example textbook producers, assessment organisations, and political entities) which, wanting to maintain the status quo, use fragmented research and inquiry perspectives to undermine the introduction of innovative practices.

One example is that CLIL ‘only serves the elite and neglects the majority of young people’. Another is that ‘PhBL students will become confused by mixing the logic of different subjects such as maths, chemistry and the humanities’. Fragmented criticism can undermine the logic of enabling innovation through integration. It is rarely helpful in encouraging the development alternative pathways by which to adapt education and raise standards desired in educational processes.

Systems-thinking is not only what we need to embed in school learning, but also in the search for identifying transformational processes in education. This has been the approach adopted at the University of Guadalajara (Foreign Languages Institutional Program) in searching for language learning solutions that can be applied in situ with existing infrastructure and resources.

CLIL and PhBL are learning approaches in their own right. Combined, they can provide lever for positive change with respect to learning, the learning of content, and the learning of languages.

There are rarely models suitable for educational export, but there are blueprints where educators worldwide can explore means by which to ensure that their schools and systems engage with an *educational leap* as significant

as the *generation leap* taking place amongst the young people in our schools.

Witnessing how PhBL-CLIL works in very different social environments such as Mexico and Finland is testament that content and language teachers can make change happen if provided with the inspiration, guidance, and systemic support.

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LEARNING SECOND LANGUAGE THROUGH RESTAURANT MENU DISH NAMES

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Keywords: LSP teaching/learning, CLIL, food language and translation, restaurant menu pragmatics

This article follows research carried out by the author on the semiotics and pragmatolinguistics of restaurant menus. The context is a training experience about how to teach LSP (Language for Special Purposes) in a CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) environment with teachers in Istituti Alberghieri. The final output is the compilation of a multilingual menu, in the shared conviction that a communicatively effective menu in different languages can enhance the quality of restaurants and make them successful with tourists. The "little texts" composing dish names prove to be interesting under the lexical and the syntactical viewpoints: these are the language levels playing the most significant role in the info-marketing strategies adopted by menus and the ones presenting the greatest difficulties in translating from Italian into French or English. A careful Error Analysis conducted on a corpus of a hundred menus from the Italian region of Lazio proves a successful scaffolding strategy and a practical metalinguistic tool

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to lead learners—CLIL teachers and students alike—to the production of their own menus, even more when combined with cooperative learning, gamification, graphic facilitators and... lots of fun!

1 Introduction: the context and the target

The learning experience covered in this article is in the frame of the National Plan for the training of teachers (PNF: *Piano Nazionale della Formazione dei docenti*, 2016-19), which envisages using CLIL methodology for the development of teachers' linguistic competence (§ 4.4). Thanks to a relatively long-standing experience in CLIL courses (Langé & Cinganotto, 2014; Graziano *et al.*, 2018), a series of systematic interventions along the three years is being carried out in cooperation with geographical area Roma 11, based in Civitavecchia, with the IIS 'Stendhal' as a lead school, consisting in introductory seminars to CLIL for high school teachers, followed by three English language courses with specific CLIL backgrounds—hotel management, economy & finance and tourism. This article provides an overview of the training course carried out during the school year 2017-18 and aimed at teachers in the hotel management/food and wine curriculum. The objective was to develop the competencies needed to create a *multilingual menu* to be presented at a final school event offering buffet food prepared by the students. The course consisted of six modules to be taught over the course of six lessons (24 hours) and of individual/group work (10 hours), including interactive online work on the dedicated space of the UniTusMoodle Progetti platform, and lasted between mid-March and mid-May 2018.

Initial scope of the course was to involve more *Istituti Alberghieri* of the area. Unfortunately, since Italian vocational schools are not compelled to implement CLIL, the interest of teachers was limited. The group of participants belonged to the IPSEOA 'Lucio Cappannari' in Civitavecchia, and its size is not significant. However, because all of them had been familiarised with the CLIL methodology in the previous school year and most possessed experience abroad, they realised the importance of further improving their communicative and linguistic competencies by focusing on the specific content they teach rather than on a general, mainstream, selection of foreign language and topics. Thus, what was first meant as an ordinary B1+ second language course ended up becoming a highly metalinguistic course in LSP with the trainer applying language and contents integration to teachers' professional language improvement (something not so habitual in teacher training yet).

Moreover, the high number of school subjects involved (kitchen, bar, economy, food science, Italian, English, French), the ability to cooperate, the willingness to keep abreast and the right amount of playfulness that characterised this group of teachers translated in high-quality work, worth being

presented as a good practice model in terms of both language and methodology training.

2 Methodology: the CLIL environment

Following CLIL pedagogical principles, a veritable *CLIL team* was formed on the diverse competencies already mentioned. As is natural in the context of adult education, a *cooperative learning* approach was adopted: part of the decision-making process was left to group discussions, sharing pertinent teaching experiences and creating solutions together. The trainer, yet in charge of the timetable, never had to impose a preordained roadmap on the trainees, who, after a certain turning point, even anticipated her requests with their spirit of initiative. Most relevant was the contribution of the second-language teachers in the CLIL team, who proved crucial in providing their colleagues with the necessary linguistic scaffolding on the basis of peer-collaboration, often supporting or even replacing the trainer in her more ‘academic’ role.¹ The simultaneous presence of three languages at a time established a spontaneous code-switching regime in the class interaction and acted as a constant drive towards the comparison of different languages and cultures. This showed in practice how the introduction of a second/third language as an “additional language”, so often theorized in CLIL, does not result in the annihilation of the mother tongue at all, but rather in a higher *metalinguistic awareness*, which is in turn the only guarantee of autonomous and permanent learning.²

An atmosphere of good feelings and relaxation was favoured by icebreaking activities inspired by the humanistic pedagogy, which always also served as an introduction to the language work of each day. At the beginning of the first meeting, the classic introductory ‘identity card’ revisited by Moskowitz (1978, pp. 50-52) was filled with favourite cooking procedures and dishes in the L2 in order to revise known vocabulary. The session on the marketing relevance of restaurant menus was preceded by storytelling or the graphic representation of personal memories and feelings connected to the best/worst restaurant experience. The session on culture-bound food terminology and its problematic translation was introduced by a game where participants were asked to come up with the highest possible number of idioms based on food in the three languages alongside their possible correspondences in the other

¹ The creation of CLIL teams within schools including the teacher of a specific subject, L2 teachers, lecturers, language assistants and, at times, also external experts, is suggested by section 6.5 of the *Norme transitorie sul CLIL* (25/07/2014). Cinganotto et al. (2017) analyse the apparently secondary but crucial role of L2 teachers and Cinganotto (2018a) analyses the different roles within the CLIL team.

² This is also highlighted by scholars studying the effects of internationalization and CLIL in school systems on ELF (English as a Lingua Franca): see Lopriore (2014) and Morbiducci (2017).

languages. The use of fun language, debate³ and ‘hot seat’, guess games and visual stimuli or graphic facilitators was promoted all along, starting from the trainer’s power point presentations enriched with the suggestive characters of the animated film *Ratatouille*.

Thanks to this fruitful spirit of cooperation and to the more practical turn of mind impressed by teaching in a vocational school, it was easy to adopt a *task-based approach* (Ellis, 2003; Tardieu & Dolitsky, 2012). The final output of our course—the multilingual menu—was given a practical context with the idea of the end-of-school year event. In order for trainees to be able to design an appropriate menu, one of the most fundamental linguistic concepts that had to be acquired was the radical arbitrariness of languages. This is a concept that often escapes the non-language teacher, especially when some key-words in their discipline are used ambiguously and tend to blur the distinction between ‘things’ and ‘words’. Take the very word *menu*, denoting both the actual food after culinary preparation offered by a restaurant and the list of names or short texts presenting that food on cards, on a website or on any other media. After *outdoor* and *internet research* aimed at starting a personal collection of menus and after some guided observation on the specimens collected, it became clear that a menu can be a complex act of communication, a multimodal and multimedial text in a highly polysemiotic context. Its function, both to inform and market, is mainly achieved through the linguistic level represented by the names of the dishes (Graziano & Mocini, 2015).

The discovery that one can talk about the same dish in so many ways, at times totally independently of the actual food combination, unearthed an unsuspected plethora of language resources and creativity in the three languages. Before taking up the challenge of compiling the final menu, the group went through a phase of experiential learning that involved the analysis of the corpus of a hundred menus from Lazio formerly used by the author for her own research (Graziano, 2015; 2017). The activity was supported by *scaffolding* interventions to help inductive learning—Q&A, brainstorming, matching exercises, charts, guessing games and so on—and by easy theoretical frameworks or mind maps. Three main metalinguistic areas were targeted by these activities:

1. acquisition of Jean Marie Floch’s (1990) marketing ideologies (*referentielle, mythique, oblique, substantielle*), which served to identify four different ‘styles’ of restaurant menus and create taxonomies based on each specific rhetorical strategy enacted through dish definitions. This was initially applied to the Italian version of the menus under scrutiny, which triggered off linguistic creativity in the mother tongue

³ Besides being as old as Greek rhetoric, debate as a teaching strategy is not new to second language teaching (Alasmari & Ahmed, 2013). More recently it has been applied both in its competitive and non-competitive forms to contents teaching and CLIL environments in European and Italian schools (Cinganotto, 2018b).

- and helped improve the final menu first and foremost in Italian;
2. familiarization with the most relevant translation strategies used for the English versions of the menus, grouped in the two wide categories of “domesticating” and “foreignizing” (Venuti, 2000). The scope was to acquire a comparative view of the three language systems, to ascertain what the most used and useful translation strategies in this field are and try and experiment the ‘difficult’ renderings of both culture-specific terminology and “oblique” or “substantial” metaphors;
 3. application of Halliday’s (2004) grammar of the noun group specifically for the syntax of the English dish names to convey the idea that a competent translator/compiler can facilitate the customer’s imaginative response, create expectations and anticipate pleasures of the palate by skillfully distributing the components of a dish description in the pre-modifying and post-modifying slots of the noun sequence, whilst conveying faithful information about each food preparation.

In tackling with macro- as well as micro-linguistic issues regarding the discourse of food, the author’s metacognitive objective always was to illustrate how the theoretical study of languages is wider and more complex than the ‘basic’ morphology to which L2 and non-linguistic teachers are still used to. This idea is inspired by the pragmatics of communication resulting in a grammar based on communicative use, functions and rhetoric (Halliday, 1993). It goes without saying that the hope is that the same idea will eventually reach the students, regardless of the specific school subject, since it cannot be disputed that “every teacher is a language teacher: teachers, quite literally, have little else to teach, but a way of talking and therefore seeing the world” (Postman & Weingartner, 1971, p. 102).⁴

3 Error Analysis as scaffolding

Recourse to Error Analysis as the pivotal SLL strategy of this training experience was dictated by more than one reason. The pedagogy of error, dating back to such diverse theoreticians as Célestin Freinet, Carl Rogers and Maria Montessori, goes hand in hand with a learner-centred education favouring processes of ‘natural learning’ through active, operative, experiential and inductive approaches. This welcomes the chance of making ‘mistakes’ and learning from them as an unavoidable and essential step towards the achievement of knowledge and competence. This line in general pedagogy has been fully embraced by First/Second Language Acquisition theories like Stephen Krashen’s Natural Approach and Stephen Pitt Corder’s Interlanguage.

⁴ See also Wellington & Osborne (2001) and Love (2009).

Both promote progress-making in language acquisition through contexts of ‘authentic’ communication, appreciate ‘errors’ as a natural developmental stage in the transfer from first to second language and prefer limiting correction to monitoring or, even better, self-monitoring activities.⁵

The CLIL methodology, for its part, would subscribe to Krashen’s “‘Great Paradox of Language Teaching’: Language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning” (Krashen & Terrell, 1995, p. 55) as well as to Carl James’s remark (1998, p. 258): “The way learning proceeds is by learners doing their own error analyses, something that learners are naturally inclined to do but often need teacher guidance in doing so effectively”. With its focus on the acquisition of content through a language medium, the CLIL approach helps to distinguish which mistakes should be avoided because they are responsible for misunderstandings and which might even be considered sparkles of ‘creativity’ in SLL, as hinted to by one of the three angles in Do Coyle’s (2010) Language Triptych, i.e. “language *through* learning”.

Motivated by such pedagogical premises, after working on the Italian menu dish names and their marketing strategies, the trainees were challenged to try some spontaneous translation in cooperation with the L2 teachers. This led them to make the mistakes which helped them identify the most challenging aspects of the work and to take some “global decision[s]” (Chesterman, 1997, p. 107) in terms of translation pragmatics. This was done before observing how similar problems are tackled in the average Italian restaurant menu. For example, practice brought the group to discuss if it is true that culture-bound terminology is the most difficult to render in a different language, or that one should prioritise information over marketing in the case of impossible equivalents. The final paragraph of this report will tell how this group of teachers managed to solve such dilemmas.

The use of Error Analysis is motivated by another reason, which is intrinsic to the textuality, object of this learning process itself. Almost anyone who has happened to peruse the English version of a menu in an Italian food service establishment has seen a number of inaccuracies, malapropisms or real blunders that give way to complete misunderstanding. The number of ‘mistakes’ is such that it clearly represents THE problem of the restaurant business in our country. While many scholars all over the world agree on the semiotic and linguistic complexity of menus and dish names, it seems that the owners and managers of even four- and five-star Italian restaurants overlook the huge potential of this

⁵ Mistake-making both through quantitative error analysis and the practice of an innovative teaching methodology was the object of the Erasmus+ project entitled *Guerrilla Literacy Learners*, in which a team of trainers and technicians from Università della Tuscia took part in the years 2014-16. For more information, see www.pleasemakemistakes.eu and the project manual (Graziano *et al.*, 2016).

genre and entrust their English menus to a random automatic translation tool without asking a professional translator to edit them. The teachers were easily persuaded about the importance of giving their students some guidelines about how to talk about food with an international, efficient and correct language. By dint of practice, they also realized that going through the linguistic inaccuracies in menus can be fun. Activities involving community research and personal observation, followed by some statistics and by their graphic representations, might actually appeal to students.

The crucial decisions on marketing and translating strategies were followed by a reflection on the language levels where single, circumscribed ‘mistakes’ could be found. Simply put, this was a revision of metalinguistic categories for the L2 teachers and an introduction to some basic linguistic knowledge for the others. A huge number of *spelling* mistakes was spotted, scoring the highest percentage. The following were the most frequent, to be found in almost all the menus, even those produced by the most expensive and popular restaurants: **bisquits*, **erbs*, **lattuce*, **rise*, **prowns*, **shellfish*, **souce*, **swardfish*, **tomatos*, **wipped cream*, **withe wine*. The group also found many single occurrences such as the hilarious **brad* (bread), **chesses* (cheeses), **claims* (clams), **code fish* (cod fish), **meet* (meat), **racket* (rocket), **soap* (soup), **jacked* (jacket) *potato*, **mushed* and even **smashed potatoes* (mashed potatoes). Carelessness or laziness were identified as the reasons for the frequent dropping of the capital letter with adjectives of origin (e.g.: **roman bacon*, **italian cheese*, **french dessert*, **norwegian salmon*, etc.), while the use of French foreignisms in the English versions seldom proved to increase the quality of these texts with all the possible variations for *sauté* and *sautéed* (**sauté*, **saute*, **souté*, **sauteé*, **sauted*) and other ‘horrors’ like: **profitteroles*, **creme brulee/broulè*, **vinegrette*, **milfoil* and even **fois grass*. It was agreed that an easy remedy to such lousy mistakes could be Microsoft Word’s spellcheck tool.

At the level of *lexicon*, there was great surprise at the frequency of zero translation and omissions, even when a specialised dictionary would suggest direct equivalents,⁶ and at macaronic translations where even the despised Google Translate offers more sensible solutions: *kitchen* (for *cuisine*), *covered* (for *cover charge*), *first/second* (to mean *starter/main course*), *contour* or *outline/s* (instead of *side dish/es*); *housemade* for *homemade*; *crayfish* when *shellfish* is intended; *broth* for *stock*; *slices* to render the Italian *tagliata/fettina* instead of *escalope/s*; *roasted* instead of *roast*, often confused with *grilled*; *fish fry* or, worse, *frying of fish* for the simple *fried fish*; *mix* used as a noun instead of *selection/assortment*, and just to finish in a crescendo of laughter: *pumpkin*

⁶ Reliable gastronomic dictionaries available online are Cranchi (1983¹); Edigeo (2010)..

flowers/blossoms/shoots to mean *zucchini/courgette flowers*; *polyp* for *octopus*; *narrow-minded* for *bisque* (it. *ristretto*), *tossed* and even *brushed up vegetables* instead of *sautéed*. In order to carry out a more systematic error analysis at this linguistic level, sub-groups were assigned a case study in technical terminology, particularly cooking procedures and acronyms (an area where mistakes typically occur) and culture-bound food names (e.g. the Italian pastas, cheeses and cured meats⁷). This activity of lexical research was supported by the tool GLOSSARY in the Moodle platform, which allowed the interactive recording of personalised vocabulary and represented an invaluable means of revision and improvement for teachers who are already quite proficient in the specialised terminology of their profession.

Moving from nuclear lexicon to *lexico-grammatical* and *morpho-syntactical phenomena*, the greatest translation issues particularly from Romance languages like Italian and French into English, the teachers were challenged with a guessing game and a practical test requiring a change of discourse genre. Confronted with three dish names in English without the Italian original, they were asked to derive the recipes or the layout of the ingredients in the dishes: *Cous cous salad: small vegetables (carrots, zucchini, peas, peppers, chickpeas)* (Giò, RM); *Steamed seabass with oyster and seaweed jelly flavored with star anise* (Oliver Glowig, RM); *Gratinated anchovies served with Roman courgettes, tomato and puntarelle salad* (L'Olimpo, RM). The first dish was made as a cold dish with baby carrots, courgettes and peppers before discovering that the original Italian was *Cous cous tiepido in salsa di verdure: dadolata di verdure (carote, zucchine, piselli, peperoni, ceci)*—a couscous in a warm soup of diced vegetables. The jelly in the second dish puzzled the cook, as it seemed to contain both oyster and seaweed (somehow far-fetched even for nouvelle cuisine!). The Italian version clarified that the *oysters* were plural and that they were to be served raw, together with the seabass (*Branzino al vapore con ostriche e gelatina di mare al profumo di anice stellato*). Lastly, the side vegetables to the third dish gave way to many different interpretations and ample debate: were they meant to be served all separate or were they the individual components of a single salad? Should just the tomatoes and the *puntarelle* (chicory shoots) go together? The obvious solution was the first one (*Millefoglie di alici gratinate, zucchine Romanesche, pomodori e puntarelle*), if only for the pluralization of all the ingredients.

The most chaotic variety of singular and plural nouns was observed in the same menu or even in the same dish name, thus triggering off the need to clarify the concept of mass and its consequences on the English morphology:

⁷ Special attention was paid to *guanciale* (cured pork cheek). It was noticed that this dominant ingredient of the Lazio cuisine was seldom distinguished from *pancetta* and invariably translated with *bacon* even by menus enacting the most extreme referential/objective style.

Raw prawns, Raw shrimp. (Assunta Madre, RM)

Sardinia oyster, Sicilian king prawns, Sea urchin, Local squid. (Trattoria del pesce, RM)

Mezzi paccheri pasta with sea foods; Mediterranean stewed sea bass with grilled scampo, potato, olives and capers. (Café Romano, RM)

Grilled prawn; Clams in white wine sauce; Escalope of veal with mushroom. (Meo Patacca, RM)

White fish tartare garnished with fresh fruit, raisin and pine nuts. (Roscioli, RM)

Indeed, mass nouns are not extraneous to a Latin-based mind (in the same cultural domain we thought of the Italian *riso*, but even *tagliolino* and *tagliatella*). Thus, it did not take long to understand that it all depends on the speaker's communicative intention so that one can conclude that most nouns are pluralizable in English, even more so with the evolution of the language (*food* and *foods*), whereas only a few elements of reality are conceptualized as undistinguished quantity and resist as totally uncountable (in this domain most common examples are *seafood*, *squid*, *octopus*, *spinach*, *spaghetti*). In many cases it was suggested that the two numbers of the same noun distinguish two different ingredients (e.g.: *pepper/s*)—so that in the following dish names the second is clearly wrong:

Sea Bass carpaccio marinated with fennel (= finocchiella) and marjoram; Salad with fennel (= finocchi), orange and pomegranate (Ditirambo, RM);

whereas, on the other hand, tendentially countable nouns may well be used in gastronomy as uncountable when they indicate an ingredient instead of single food, thus making the following translation choices to say the least confusing:

Vegetable soup (leek, carrots, celery, zucchini, cauliflower, cabbage and basil); Mixed grilled vegetables with pepper (carrots, zucchini, eggplants, fennels, mushrooms) (Cabiria, RM).

Furthermore, because the seemingly haphazard use of singular/plural nouns in adjectival position (like in the second two examples of the guessing game) required clarification, a more general discussion about the typical English word order became unavoidable. The first thing to be noticed was that if adjectives are morphologically invariable so must nouns used with an attributive function be, making all the following occurrences in the Lazio menus wrong: **Prawns cocktail*, **Potatoes dumplings*, **Chestnuts mousse*, **Vegetables/mushrooms/tomatoes soup*, **Mussels and clam sauce*, **Endives and anchovies tart*. Secondly, the intrinsic nature of the English syntax as preferably pre-modifying

as opposed to the Italian normally post-modifying syntax emerged through the observation of how apparently difficult it is to render the sequence of genus and species in the menu textuality: some would use the prepositional phrase (PP) introduced by *of*, closely reproducing the Italian word order, some would show a typical interlanguage formation by resorting to the Saxon Genitive—probably looking more English!

*Use of PP introduced by of	*Saxon Genitive
Tart of pistachio	Shrimp's cocktail
Foam of coffee	Yogurt's cream
...with cream of chickpeas with rosemary	...on bean's puree
Escalope of veal	Fennels' and oranges' salad
Fondue of chocolate	Almond's crumble
Vegetables of the season	Fish of the day's tartare

Even more surprising sounded to everyone's ears adjectival past participles postponed to nouns, against one of the most well-known rules of English word order: **Beef steak grilled*, **Scampi steamed or grilled*, **with vegetable mixed*, **Season vegetables boiled*, **Filet with green pepper or roasted*.

Correction of these non-standard occurrences and improvement in the general question of how to distribute 'pieces' efficiently inside the purely nominal sequence of menu dish names was facilitated by the introduction of a grid with Halliday's logical/experiential categories to continue filling in after the example given by drawing on the collected menus.

Pre-modifier				Head	Post-modifier
<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Post-deictic</i>	<i>Epithet</i>	<i>Classifier</i>	<i>Thing</i>	<i>Qualifier</i>
			Lamb	chops	served with herbs
		Fresh	homemade	noodles	with porcini mushrooms, bacon, parmesan
Our			seasonal	vegetables	
The	best		raw	fish	of the day

The focus on the frequently mistaken use of Classifier and Qualifier brought to the acquisition of notions, which revealed relevant during the productive phase—the creation of the international menu:

1. the Classifier slot should contain past participles indicating cooking procedures or (one or more) specifications of the "Thing" constituting the Head of the sequence, absolving, so to say, the function of *theme* (the topic, the given) of which the Qualifier is the *rheme* (the comment,

- the new);
2. in the distribution of elements allowed by the play between English pre- and post-modifying syntax,⁸ the Qualifier carries the greatest informative *and* marketing purport, so that it should contain all the valuable information (place of origin, quality indications, nutritional scales) as well as side ingredients, aromas, dressings or special preparations, whether one decides to go for a referential menu style or for a more metaphorical one;
 3. the metalinguistic implication is that word order in this textuality plays a hardly underestimated semantic and pragmatic function which can make all the difference. This is shown by the following examples regarding the indication of origin: in the first, it is informative as it denotes a different kind of agricultural product; in the second, it has a marketing effect, since it adds the aura of a traditional or authentic speciality; in the third and unfortunately most common case, it is simply wrong!

Adjective indicating origin	Prepositional phrase from +	*Saxon Genitive
<i>Parma/S. Daniele ham</i>	<i>Cold cuts from Bassa Parmense</i>	<i>Norcia's/Parma's ham</i>
<i>Umbrian olive oil</i>	<i>Pasta from Gragnano</i>	<i>Tuscia's oil</i>
<i>Pachino/Vesuvian tomatoes</i>	<i>Pecorino cheese from Fossa</i>	<i>Pantelleria's capers</i>
<i>Sicilian broccoli/Roman chicory</i>	<i>Red onion from Tropea</i>	<i>Bronte's pistachios</i>
<i>Argentinean/Danish beef</i>	<i>Fassone beef from Piedmont</i>	<i>Sauris's pork cheek</i>
<i>Cantabrian anchovies with Val Susa butter</i>	<i>Anchovy fillets from the Cantabrian Sea</i>	<i>Amalfi's lemon sorbet</i>

A final test containing some of the most glaring and most suggestive 'mistakes' was administered at the end of the course. Participants were asked to identify in which linguistic and pragmalinguistic category such mistakes could be rubricated and to suggest an improvement.

Sformatino di verdure stagionali e gamberetti su concassè di pomodorini al profumo di finocchietto selvatico = *Flan seasonal vegetables and shrimp on concassè tomato-scented fennel*. (Borgo Le Torrette, San Lorenzo Nuovo, VT)
 Lombrichelli all'amatriciana = *Lombrichelli all'amatriciana* (Antica Sosta, VT)
 Insalata di indivia belga, pere e noci = *Endive salad, pears and nuts*. (Il Roseto, RM)
 Bacçalà con latte di mandorle, topinambur e alghe all'aceto di Barolo = *Cod with almond milk, Jerusalem artichoke and Barolo vinegar scented seaweed*. (Oliver Glowig, RM)

⁸ The combination of long pre- and post-modifying sequences resulting into complex modification is a common feature to all ESP texts (Gotti, 2003; 2005).

Fegatelli alla “MACELLARA” = *Pork liver traditional style*. (Angelina al Testaccio, RM)

Calamarata allo scoglio con ragout di triglia, cozze, vongole e calamari = *Calamarata with mullet ragout, mussels, clams and squids*. (Time, RM)

Trancio di ricciola alla piastra con lime e basilico = *Lime-basil grilled amberjack fillet*. (Ponte Rosso, Sabaudia, LT)

Carpaccio di tonno con julienne di spinaci freschi e spicchi di lime = *Slices of raw tuna topped with fresh spinaches, extra virgin oil and lime dressing*. (Cabiria, RM)

Culatello di zibello DOP 24/30 mesi = *Culatello of zibello DOP 24/30 months*. (Romeo, RM)

Abbacchio a scottadito = *Grilled “finger burnt” lamb ribs*. (Cesare, RM)

...and many, many more.⁹

Final output and conclusions: the multilingual menus

*Right beneath the surface there are seeds of possibility
waiting for the right conditions to come about*

Sir Ken Robinson

When, after the first meeting, the group of teachers agreed on the type of meal and food that could be prepared and served in the school, they came up with the following menu, which was also enriched by the school logo and a well-wishing motto on a white background with a black font:

Brunch on the road	Brunch en tour
Quiche Lorraine	Quiche Lorraine
Caesar Salad	Salade Caesar
Parmigiana estiva	Parmigiana Estivale
Queen’s Muffin	Tartelette de la Reine
From the bar	Au bar
Mojito (with basil and Pachino)	Mojito au basilic et aux tomates Pachino
Spritz (with saffron)	Spritz au safran

Apart from the—only apparent—simplicity of the dishes, something which could not be discussed for organizational reasons, but the idea was good. The menu was the result of former Erasmus exchange experiences in the same school, during which students had prepared buffet dinners for the guest partners. The menu connected food to travelling and it was international as to

⁹ For a more complete list of examples with comments see Graziano (2015).

the choice of dishes. Yet, something was not completely right: was the menu to be considered Italian or English? When it came to the beverages, wasn't the menu more of an English-based hybridization? The French version was wholly monolingual and missed the variety which characterised the English version. There seemed to be no more language to learn. Without changing the *dishes*, little by little the teachers got convinced that they needed to work on the *names* of the dishes. The following is the result after four more meetings, the training described above and innumerable improvements and revisions:

Italian

Menu REFERENZIALE	Menu MITICO	Menu OBLIQUO	Menu SOSTANZIALE
Torta salata al formaggio con uova e pancetta	La Quiche Lorraine	Incontro tra pancetta e uovo in una piazza di formaggio	Torta profumata al formaggio su letto di pancetta croccante
Insalata di lattuga romana con crostini di pane soffritti, formaggio parmigiano, pollo, pancetta e uova sode, condita con succo di limone, olio di oliva e salsa Worcester	L'Insalata dell'Imperatore	Mosaico di pane, parmigiano, pollo, pancetta e uova su un quadro di insalata verde con macchie di salsa Worcester	Insalata verde con crostini di pane, uova vellutate, julienne di parmigiano, pollo e pancetta croccanti e gocce di salsa Worcester
Parmigiana di melanzane grigliate e mozzarella di bufala con salsa di pomodoro e basilico e cialda di parmigiano	La Parmigiana alla "Calabrese"	Millefoglie estivo di melanzana, pachino, bufala e basilico	Delizia di melanzane con tricolore di mozzarella, pomodoro e basilico in cialda croccante
Muffin di farina integrale con zucchero di canna e mirtilli di bosco	Il Muffin della Regina	Mongolfiera ai mirtilli	Gustosi mirtilli rossi immersi in un soffice tortino caldo
Cocktail analcolico di ginger beer con zucchero di canna e zenzero guarnito con foglie di basilico verde e pachino	Il Mojito dello Studente	Arcobaleno frizzante di zenzero, basilico e pachino	Fresco mojito allo zenzero piccante con profumo di basilico e colore di pachino
Aperitivo di prosecco, bitter e acqua frizzante aromatizzato allo zafferano	Lo Spritz del Professore	Proemio rigenerante	Vin spruzzato con gocce dorate di zafferano

English

REFERENTIAL Menu	MYTHICAL Menu	OBLIQUE Menu	SUBSTANTIAL Menu
Savoury flan filled with cheese, bacon and eggs	The classic Quiche Lorraine	Close encounter of egg and bacon in a square of cheese	A fragrant cheese tart on a bed of crunchy bacon
Romaine salad with browned croutons, parmesan cheese, hard-boiled eggs, chicken and bacon seasoned with a vinaigrette of lemon, extra-virgin olive oil and Worcestershire sauce	Caesar Salad in Civitavecchia	A mosaic of croutons, eggs, parmesan, chicken and bacon in a frame of green salad with spots of Worcestershire sauce	Green lettuce with croutons, velvety smooth eggs, crunchy chicken and bacon, parmesan julienne and drops of Worcestershire sauce

REFERENTIAL Menu	MYTHICAL Menu	OBLIQUE Menu	SUBSTANTIAL Menu
Grilled aubergine casserole with layers of buffalo's milk mozzarella, tomato sauce and fresh basil leaves topped with parmesan wafer	Aubergine Parmigiana "Calabrese" style	Summer mille-feuille of aubergine, buffalo mozzarella, tomato sauce and basil	Aubergine delight with the colours of the Italian flag in crunchy parmesan
Bran quick bread muffins with cane sugar and cranberries	The authentic Stars and Stripes Muffin	Cranberry hot-air balloons	Tasty cranberries plunged in a soft warm cupcake
Alcohol-free cocktail with ginger beer, cane sugar and ginger garnished with fresh basil leaves and cherry tomatoes	The Student's Mojito	Sparkling rainbow of basil, ginger and Pachino	Fresh mojito with spicy ginger and a scent of basil and cherry tomato
Prosecco aperitif with sparkling water and a dash of bitter liqueur scented with saffron	The Teacher's Spritz	A reinvigorating incipit	An aperitif of sparkling wine with golden saffron drops

French

Menu REFERENTIAL	Menu MYTHIQUE	Menu OBLIQUE	Menu SUBSTANTIAL
Tarte salée au fromage, aux œufs et aux lardons	La Quiche Lorraine	Alliance de saveurs de lardons fumés et d'œufs dans un lac blanc de fromage	Tarte parfumée au fromage sur un lit de lardons croquants
Salade de laitue romaine au poulet grillé, aux œufs durs, aux croûtons, aux copeaux de parmesan et aux lardons fumés assaisonnée d'une vinaigrette et de sauce Worcester	La Salade de l'Empereur	Sur une toile de salade verte voilà la mosaïque colorée de jaune d'œuf dur, d'or du poulet et de blanc-rose de lardon	Salade verte aux œufs durs, au poulet grillé, aux copeaux de parmesan et aux lardons fumés
Parmigiana de tranches d'aubergines grillées alternées à la mozzarella, à la sauce tomate, au parmesan râpé et aux feuilles de basilic, décorée de gaufre au parmesan	La Parmigiana à la "Calabrese"	La mer et le soleil dans une millefeuille d'aubergines, de tomates et de mozzarella	Délices d'aubergines, au tricolore italien de basilic, de mozzarella et de tomates
Muffin de farine complète au sucre de canne et aux myrtilles des bois	Le Muffin de la Reine	Un tour dans les nuages sur une montgolfière rouge tapissée de myrtilles de bois	Myrtilles des bois savoureuses et plongées dans un muffin moelleux et chaud
Cocktail sans alcool au sucre de canne, au gingembre, aux tomates de Pachino et au basilic	Le Mojito de l'Étudiant	Arc-en-ciel pétillant de ginger beer, de gingembre, de tomates et de basilic	Mojito frais au gingembre piquant et au parfum de basilic et aux tomates Pachino
Apéritif avec du prosecco, du bitter et de l'eau gazeuse, aromatisé au safran	Le Spritz du Prof	Départ dynamique : à vos amours...à votre santé...allez !	Arrosé de vin et de gouttes dorées de safran

No need to comment further, I believe! The last touch was the actual production of the four restaurant menus—referential, mythical, oblique and substantial. The French, Italian and English versions were collected according to the four menu types, printed with an appropriate character font as parallel

texts on one side of four laminated cards and given an appropriate title on the top (*Laboratorio enogastronomico CLIL – Menu realizzato dalla classe 2^aC e 4^aAE IPSOEA ‘Cappannari’* for the referential; *Menu Stendhal* for the mythical; *Tra cibo e poesia* for the oblique; *I 5 sensi* for the substantial). On the back side of the menus, four paintings were chosen, each echoing the four menu styles: Arcimboldo’s *Autumn* for the referential menu, a watercolour of Stendhal in Civitavecchia for the mythical menu, Magritte’s *Nuages* for the oblique menu and Klimt’s *The Kiss* for the substantial menu.¹⁰

A final word on the evaluation of the project work and achievements: an easy but appropriate evaluation rubric for both teachers’ and students’ international menu, in four styles or even just one, in one or more languages, was elaborated and suggested by the trainer on the final day:

The menu as a learning outcome: was it «tasty» as work?	The menu as an output: is it «tasty»?	The menu as language: is it «tasty»?
Have you learnt something new?	Is the layout well designed?	Is the language coherent with the menu style?
Have you learnt to cooperate?	Is it coherent with the restaurant style?	Is it informative?
Have you learnt to learn?	Is it user friendly?	Is it attractive?
Have you improved digitally?	Is it attractive but also elegant?	Is it correct?

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¹⁰ It is possible to take a glimpse of the menus (as well as of the actual food dishes) by watching the slideshow at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CFfyPpxMdf0&feature=youtu.be>. Notice the pun in the mythical menu for the parmigiana dish, translated into English with a debatable “Calabrese style”: nothing to do with the Italian region Calabria, it is to be intended as a sort of cryptic dedication to the bar and room service teacher, whose surname was Calabrese, but also as a parody of similar expressions in the traditional Italian menus. These teachers have attained humour in English!

<http://www.gcranchi.com/dizio/>

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SUPPORTING EFL LEARNERS WITH A VIRTUAL ENVIRONMENT: A FOCUS ON L2 PRONUNCIATION

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Keywords: English as a foreign language; Higher Education; L2 Pronunciation; Learning Management Systems; Voice Recognition

The article discusses a pilot project that explored the implementation of a virtual environment for the improvement of English pronunciation, funded by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) as part of a wider e-learning program for Higher Education. A speech recognition software program, *SpeechAce*, was embedded within the e-learning course to provide live practice and feedback on pronunciation to 372 undergraduate students at the University of Naples "L'Orientale" in 2016-2017. The project team was composed by Professors of English Oriana Palusci and Katherine E. Russo, who designed and coordinated the project, and e-tutors Jacqueline Aiello and Anna Mongibello, who generated the online course on Moodle and monitored students' activities. The virtual class was created to foster awareness of English sounds and to practice pronunciation, an area that is often neglected in the Italian education system due to the large number of enrolled students. This paper first describes the project in depth and draws

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on the quantitative analysis of the students' performance in combination with authentic online listening input. Then, data collected in pre- and post-program questionnaires are analyzed to examine the impact of participation in the online project on self-perceived pronunciation proficiency and L2 self-confidence, and to unveil participants' opinions and experiences in this virtual environment.

1 Introduction

Pronunciation plays a significant role in spoken interaction and is directly connected with language proficiency and students' self-confidence. Nonetheless, pronunciation teaching is often neglected in English language teaching (ELT), being treated as a "low priority area of study" (Derwing and Munro, 2005, p. 382). Harmer (2001) maintains that while the vast majority of English language teachers "get students to study grammar and vocabulary, practice functional dialogues, take part in productive skill activities and become competent in listening and reading," these teachers "make little attempt to teach pronunciation in any overt way and only give attention to it in passing" (p. 183). This is because English as a foreign language (EFL) assessment and evaluation mainly rely on written exams. Research has showed that the more the learners' oral skills improve, the more self-confident they become, especially in social interactions within and outside the classroom (e.g., Celce-Murcia, 1987). As a matter of fact, pronunciation is the one aspect that can cause communication breakdowns in social interactions and creates the most anxiety to EFL learners (Dewaele, 2007; Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008). Given that the success of "spoken communication is grounded on the communicability not only determined by correct grammar and profuse vocabulary but also on the correct interplay between segmental and suprasegmental features making up pronunciation" (Marzà, 2014, p. 262), on the basis of 'bad pronunciation' and accented speech, students may be discriminated or stigmatized (Busà, 2008; Lippi-Green, 2012; Moyer, 2013). Limited pronunciation skills can therefore affect learners' self-confidence (Pourhosein, 2012; Donovan & MacIntyre, 2004). On the other hand, since accents are closely linked to personal and group identity, EFL learners may resist sounding like native speakers (Jenkins, 2009; Russo, 2014). Thus, while "different elements of language are learnt with varied success [...], pronunciation appears to be the most problematic area" (Szpyra, 2015, p. 5). This is one of the primary motivations that compelled us to concentrate on this aspect of language learning in the e-learning course we offered to EFL learners at the University of Naples "L'Orientale" (UNIOR).

2 The pilot project at UNIOR

2.1 Course design

The course, funded by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) and part of UNIOR's *Progetto di Formazione a Distanza*, a wider e-learning program for Higher Education coordinated by Prof. Giorgio Banti, was developed on the *e-learning L'Orientale* Moodle platform. It was divided into six units leading through the exploration of some main features of English pronunciation (consonant and vowel sounds, rhythm, intonation and stress, etc.). One of the objectives was to make the participants aware of different varieties of English used around the globe. We also wanted to show how cultural appropriations can affect pronunciation, which ultimately leads to language contact questioning the hegemony of British and American standard forms, and to new standard varieties whose compounded names (South African English, Indian English, Canadian English, for instance) “display the non-British nation as first stem, thus recognizing status to an older linguistic tradition still resisting full assimilation” (Palusci, 2010, p. 10).

Every unit consisted of two parts: a theoretical one which included videos, explanations and examples, and a practical one, made of exercises designed by the e-tutors, exercises using *SpeechAce* along with forums that prompted students to reflect on the course content, sharing their experiences and opinions. In addition to the units, an introductory section and a welcome message were also offered in order to explain the general objectives of the course. Students could expect to *discover* which features of English pronunciation they needed to work on the most in order to communicate more intelligibly; *improve* their ability to understand conversations in English, and *learn* strategies for practicing pronunciation on their own. At the beginning and at the end of the course, students were asked to complete pre- and post- program questionnaires that will be discussed in detail in the next sections.

The length of the course varied. Initially, the students were given three months with single units available only for 12 days each. This was decided in order to guide students through a progressive path, focusing on one unit and one aspect of English pronunciation at a time. Nonetheless, feedback highlighted that most of the participants who dropped out could not handle the 12-day deadline per unit. For this reason, starting with the group enrolled in November 2016, we decided to leave the practical sessions open for one entire month, so that the students did not have to face multiple deadlines and could progress at their own pace.

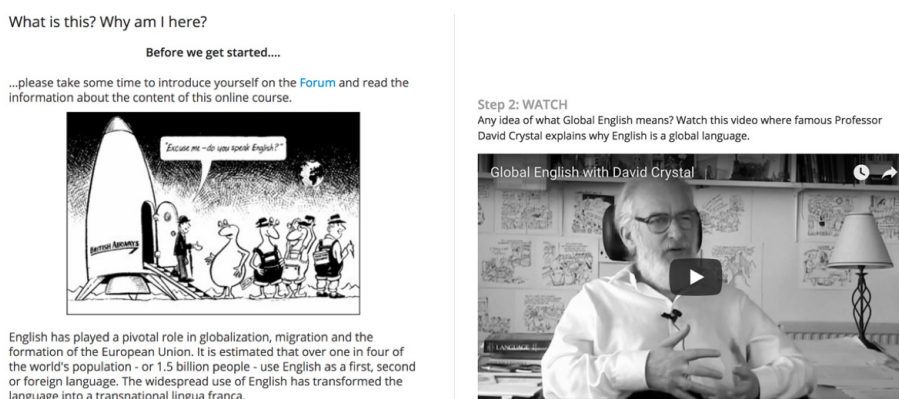


Fig. 1 - Screenshots of the online course

2.2 Participants

Four hundred and fifty students signed up for the course. However, only three hundred and seventy-two completed all the activities. The students were divided into three groups: the first group obtained access to the online course in March 2016, the second in November 2016 and the third in June 2017, after the project was refinanced in March 2017. The groups were composed by a majority of females (80%), whose ages ranged from 20 to 29 and averaged at 20.10, as the pre-course questionnaire showed. All students were in their third year of university, enrolled in the Linguistic and Cultural Mediation program, a bachelor degree program where English language knowledge is assessed through three written and oral English language exams, one per year. Students are generally granted 144 hours of English teaching classroom per academic year in order to prepare for their annual English Language exam. The online pronunciation project was meant to present the students with additional non mandatory hours of practice and a specific path to improve their oral skills. Only in March 2016 and partly in June 2017, the online course overlapped with in class teaching hours, which may explain why a percentage of students (18.6 and 26.7, respectively) dropped out during both of these turns.

2.3 Voice-recognition software

In recent years much attention has been devoted to Web 2.0-based technologies as teaching tools for language learning in virtual environments meant to tailor learning activities and trigger students' participation. Broadly, it has been found that the use of computer technologies play an important role in the development of both interest and competence (Barron, 2003). Among the many computer-based applications, automated speech recognition technology is proving to be a powerful tool for the improvement of students' abilities in

the field of EFL teaching and learning. However, while numerous experiences relying on the potential of e-learning and blended learning in general have been investigated and documented (Blessinger & Wankel, 2008; Garrison & Vaughans, 2008), very few experiments have examined the effectiveness of voice recognition technologies (Poulsen *et al.*, 2007), especially as an instructional tool integrated in language learning software programs for EFL students at a university level. Based on our research, none embedded voice recognition software programs on Moodle, the most used Learning Management System at higher education levels. A thorough investigation of the available technology for Moodle led to *SpeechAce*, a speech recognition system that can be added to any Learning Tools Interoperability compliant learning system. *SpeechAce* provides syllable and phoneme level feedback to students' oral performance. The software procedure entails that students record samples of their audio in response to pronunciation exercises. These audio recordings are then automatically processed by the system, generating an output that illustrates to users the location of the mistake, if present. The software was set on Standard American English.

Pronunciation exercises were created in accordance with each unit's main focus. In Unit 1, for example, students were asked to practice with particularly challenging sounds such as syllabic consonants, consonant clusters and the difference between voiced and unvoiced consonant sounds. Figure 2 shows an example of an exercise testing the correct pronunciation of the voiced consonant sound /dʒ/ set on the software's standards: the students had to record their voice while pronouncing the word "ingenuity" and then verify their spoken output. An "expert audio" file could also be played as a guide track. After processing the results, the software provided a "checked response chart" that allowed the students to see how they performed in pronouncing each syllable. The chart also provided a feedback on the position of lexical stress along with a short automatic message clarifying the level achieved.

A total of 49 sets of word- and sentence-level pronunciation activities, each containing an average of 10 exercises, were generated using speech recognition technology. Every exercise included a native speaker audio file model and a phonetic transcription. An additional 20 exercises were designed using the Moodle timed quiz tool and were meant to assess students' acquired knowledge about English pronunciation features; and seven forum discussions – one for each unit and an initial one where students were asked to introduce themselves – invited students' input and were monitored by the e-tutors. Students completed 84% of the exercises, spending on average 18 minutes on each and generating 8100 speech recognition requests.¹

The students received an average quality percentage for each attempt, then

¹ Data provided by the *SpeechAce* developers team.

translated by Moodle into scores from 0 to 10. Students were scored according to the percentage of accuracy of their attempts. One full point was given for each exercise upon the achievement of a percentage of accuracy up to 100%. Therefore, for each exercise, poor performances (0 to 30% accuracy) were scored from 0.00 to 0.30; medium performances (30 to 50% accuracy) from 0.30 to 0.50, medium-high from 0.50 to 0.70 (50 to 70% accuracy) and very successful performances from 0.70 to one full point (70 to 100% accuracy). Exercises could be repeated more than once.

Average Quality: 100%. Good job! Full grade awarded.

Checked Response

Syllable	Phoneme (IPA)	Quality (%)	Stress
in	i	100	OK
	ɪ	100	
ge	dʒ	100	
	ə	99	OK
nu	ɪ	100	
	u	100	Stress More
i	ə	99	Stress Less
	i	100	
ty	t	100	
	i	100	OK
Average Quality		100%	

Expert Audio

Syllable	Phoneme (IPA)	Stress
in	i	
	ɪ	
ge	dʒ	
	ə	
nu	ɪ	
	u	Primary
i	ə	
	i	
ty	t	
	i	

Fig. 2 - Example of exercise created using *SpeechAce*

2.4 Students' performance

As seen in the pie chart in Figure 3, 60% of the activities registered medium-high performances, translating into 31 exercise sets out of 49 which were completed with final medium-high scores. More specifically, 79% of the participants obtained between 0.50 and 0.70 points per exercise question, while the remaining percentage oscillated between 0.30 and 0.50, in some cases even lowering to 0.20. There were 13 activities, though, that saw a slight decline in students' performance: if we refer to the pie chart, we can see that these correspond to the 29% of the course registering much lower rates, with students being scored between 0.00 and 0.30 per exercise question. It was noticed that the exercises that created more troubles were the ones testing key vocabulary, minimal pairs, and full sentence pronunciation. For instance, an average 20% of the students showed difficulties in articulating phonemes in words such as “journalist”, “discounted”, “capacity”, especially with regard to vowel sounds, consonant sounds and diphthongs that do not have equivalents in Italian. The feedback received from *SpeechAce* highlighted problems in differentiating /ɪ/ from /i:/, as in “introvert” or “attributes”, and in realizing /ʌ/ in minimal pair exercises (“cap” and “cup”, for instance), which registered lower percentages

of accuracy. There were also issues related to the contrast between /s/ and /z/ as in voicing the difference between “advice” and “advise” in minimal pair sets of exercises.

Another area where difficulties arose is that of rhythm, stress and intonation. In particular, data retrieved from performances relating to the sets of exercises that tested the pronunciation of sentences revealed a generalized problem in addressing stress at the syllabic level in activities where students were asked to voice full sentences. About 26% of the students failed to reproduce the right stress in sentences such as “Wild salmon was his absolute favorite” or “Mohammed was listening to hours and hours of lectures on brain plasticity”, and 10% of participants obtained between 7 and 0 points total in sets of this kind (which included 10 questions per set), making an average of 6 attempts before giving up.

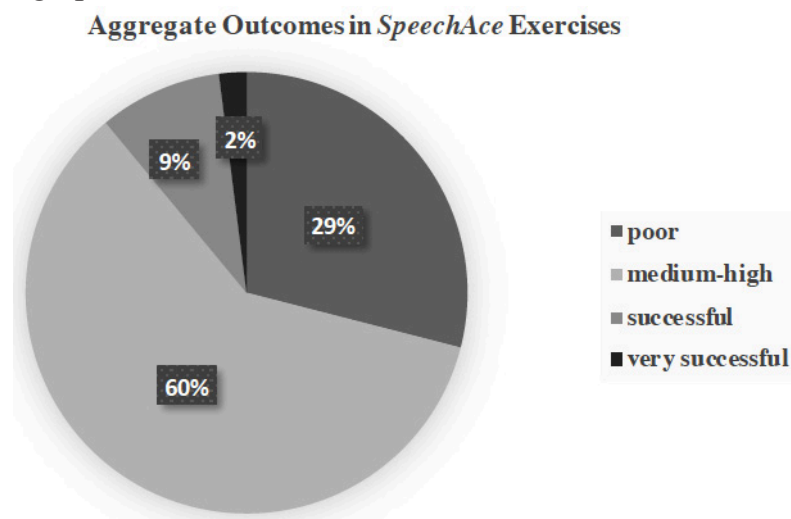


Fig. 3 - Pie chart showing students' performance in sets of exercises

Overall, as the pie chart shows, the students managed to maintain medium-high standards in 60% of the exercises. They performed better in 9% of the activities, rated as “successful performances” in the chart, being scored between 0.70 and 0.80 per question. Finally, in 2% of the course activities they did even better, getting an average of one full point per exercise question.

3. Pre- and Post-Program Questionnaires

3.1 Questionnaire Data Overview

Students who enrolled in the online course completed a pre-program questionnaire at the start and a post-program questionnaire at the end of the project. The questionnaires asked for participants' background information,

attitudes towards pronunciation, self-perceived assessments of pronunciation skills and confidence levels (for which items were adapted from the questionnaire in Russo, 2014), and opinions on the project (post-program only). In this paper, we draw on questionnaire data to investigate the following research questions:

1. What are participants' views concerning (their) English pronunciation and its instruction?
2. Were there differences in participants' self-perceived ratings of their pronunciation skills and confidence levels in pre- and post-program questionnaires?
3. What were the participants' experiences and opinions about the course?

This section analyzes data collected in the first round of the project, which began in March and ended in May 2016, from a subset of 108 participants who submitted both pre- and post-program questionnaires. The average age of this subsample was 22.15 years and 85.2% were females while 14.8% were males. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and paired-samples t-tests for pre-post program comparison using SPSS version 23. For open-ended responses, the concordance program *AntConc* was used to assemble word frequencies, and thematic and content analysis were used to code open-ended responses and identify common themes and patterns.

3.2 Pronunciation

Pre-program questionnaires prompted participants to indicate how much they agreed with a series of statements concerning pronunciation in English.

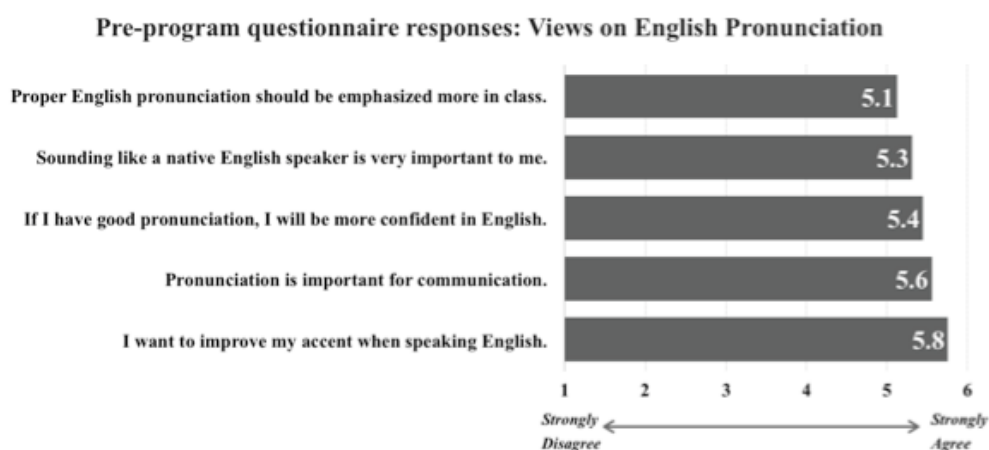


Fig. 4 - Bar graph illustrating pre-program questionnaire responses to items about English pronunciation

As illustrated in the bar graph, on average, participants most strongly agreed that they wanted to improve their English accent and that pronunciation was important for communication. Additionally, participants linked ‘good’ pronunciation to confidence, and they believed that sounding like a native English speaker was important to them. They also agreed, overall, that more emphasis should be placed on pronunciation in their English class. As a whole, these responses, which depict L2 pronunciation as a significant aspect of L2 learning, suggest why students joined and actively participated in the virtual environment.

3.3 Self-Perceived Proficiency and Confidence

Questionnaires gathered data on participants’ self-perceived ability in English pronunciation skills with questions that prompted participants to rate: their overall pronunciation in English; their pronunciation of English vowels; and their pronunciation of English consonants. To answer research question 2 and to determine whether there were differences in participants’ self-perceived assessments of pronunciation skills at the start and at the end of the project, paired samples t-tests were conducted for pre- and post-program questionnaire responses. Figure 5 shows that there were statistically significant increases from pre- to post-program ratings for participants’ overall English pronunciation (Pair 1: $t(106) = -11.983, p < .001$), English vowel pronunciation (Pair 2: $t(105) = -12.534, p < .001$), and English consonant pronunciation (Pair 3: $t(106) = -11.332, p < .001$). These findings suggest that participants assessed their English pronunciation skills more favorably after having participated in the project.

		Mean		95% CI of the Difference			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		pre	SD	Mean Diff.	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	How would you rate your pronunciation in English? ¹	pre	3.69 0.83	-1.02	-1.19	-0.85	-11.983	106	0.000
		post	4.71 0.66						
Pair 2	How would you rate your pronunciation of English vowels?	pre	3.40 0.98	-1.17	-1.35	-0.98	-12.534	105	0.000
		post	4.57 0.76						
Pair 3	How would you rate your pronunciation of English consonants?	pre	3.77 0.85	-0.96	-1.13	-0.79	-11.332	106	0.000
		post	4.73 0.76						
¹ Scale: 1 = Very Poor; 2 = Poor; 3 = Fair; 4 = Good; 5 = Very Good; 6 = Excellent									
Pair 4	I feel that I currently have excellent pronunciation skills in English. ²	pre	3.33 1.14	-0.70	-0.91	-0.49	-6.501	105	0.000
		post	4.03 1.00						
² Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Slightly Disagree; 4 = Slightly Agree; 5 = Agree; 6 = Strongly									
Pair 5	I feel quite sure of myself when I speak in my English class. ³	pre	3.66 1.18	-0.81	-1.00	-0.63	-8.64	105	0.000
		post	4.47 0.97						
³ Scale: 1 = Never; 2 = Hardly Ever; 3 = Rarely; 4 = Sometimes; 5 = Often; 6 = Always									

Fig. 5 - Paired Sample t-tests: self-perceived pronunciation ability ratings (mean) and L2 self-confidence levels (mean) in pre- and post-program questionnaires.

Analyses of responses to items that related to self-confidence in English also revealed statistically significant pre-post changes. Students more strongly agreed that they had excellent pronunciation skills in English (Pair 4: $t(105) = -6.501$, $p < .001$) at the end of the project than at the start of the project. A comparison of pre-post questionnaire responses also suggests that participants more frequently felt sure of themselves when speaking in their English classes (Pair 5: $t(105) = -8.636$, $p < .001$) at the end of the project. Therefore, in addition to an increase in self-perceived pronunciation abilities, participants also expressed a greater degree of L2 self-confidence in post-program questionnaires.

3.4 Opinions and Experiences

Research question 3 aimed to gauge participants' responses and experiences in the online pronunciation project. To address this question, the post-program questionnaire included targeted questions that prompted participants to write open-ended responses about their favorite aspect of the course and to indicate whether and why they would recommend the experience to a peer. The greatest proportion of students listed *SpeechAce* as their favorite part, based on their appreciation of the native speaker model and accompanying phonetic transcription, and they most preferred the unit dedicated to vowels, followed by the unit on World Englishes. Participants also noted that they improved and experienced increased awareness of their pronunciation. They enjoyed that the project – and particularly the voice recognition system – provided them with immediate feedback on their pronunciation.

Of the 106 participants who provided responses, all but one indicated that they would recommend the project to peers (99%). Frequency analysis of open-ended responses to a prompt that invited students to explain why (or why not) they would recommend the course unveiled that the most frequently used verb after “recommend” (47 occurrences) was “improve” (44 occurrences), and the most frequently used adjectives were “useful” (21 occurrences), “good” (14 occurrences) and “important” (14 occurrences). The undeniably positive connotation associated with these most frequently used terms further indicates the positive attitudes that participants had about the e-learning project.

In questionnaires, students were also asked for their suggestions on how to change and improve the project in an open-ended prompt. In response, roughly 40% of participants said nothing should be changed. Problems that participants had with the *SpeechAce* software, including redundant exercises, audio glitches, and lagging speed, amounted to roughly 40% of the total. In particular, participants hoped that future iterations of the project could decrease exercise redundancy (16%), address audio issues (13%), and increase uploading speed (7%) within the *SpeechAce* component of the online course. Participants

also expressed a preference for sentence-level pronunciation activities and therefore wanted fewer word-level activities (6%), and a small proportion suggested that the project cover a wider range of English varieties (5%) and include more videos (4%) in the future. The remaining 12% had miscellaneous responses categorized as ‘other’.

Conclusion

As exhibited by participant responses when asked about their views on pronunciation, the language learners in this study attached great importance to English pronunciation and valued instruction dedicated to pronunciation. Still, providing immediate, individualized feedback on oral language production remains an arduous task in many language learning settings with disproportionately high enrollment and large class sizes. This problem is particularly salient with English language instruction, which is increasingly in demand as the language secures its role as an international lingua franca in myriad domains. The e-learning project presented in this paper was designed with this issue in mind.

Indeed, as a whole, the e-learning project was designed to hone in on and sharpen the oral English production skills of English majors in their last year of undergraduate studies at an Italian university. By means of exercises using voice recognition software with native speaker oral guides, tutor-crafted activities, related videos and reflective forum prompts, the virtual environment granted participants the opportunity to gain awareness and practice the sounds of the English language. As participants in the online course, university-level students had a portable, accessible, learner-tailored domain in which they could exercise their L2 production, far from the anxiety-inducing scrutiny of instructors or peers, and with full autonomy.

The comparison of the pre- and post-program responses to participants’ ratings of their ability to pronounce English vowels and consonants in particular, and their English pronunciation overall, revealed that participants gave themselves statistically significantly higher ratings after participating in the project. They also exhibited statistically significantly higher L2 self-confidence at the end of the project. Although these findings should be interpreted with caution because of the lack of a control group in this study, participants shared in open-ended responses that they felt that their linguistic competence developed and improved as a result of the course, which corroborates the increase in self-perceived pronunciation proficiency. This finding is particularly compelling because self-perceived proficiency holds great explanatory value. Not only has prior research suggested that subjective self-perceptions of language competence correlate to objective measures (e.g. Kang & Kim, 2012), but it

has also uncovered that self-perceived competence is an underlying component of willingness to communicate. As explained in Clément, Baker and MacIntyre (2003), while actual competence might influence communication, “it is the perception of competence that will ultimately determine the choice of whether to communicate” (192; See also Dilbeck *et al.*, 2009; MacIntyre *et al.*, 2002). In light of the connection among these critical constructs, an increase in self-perceived proficiency and L2 self-confidence can enhance the likelihood that participants will engage in interactions in English, thereby exposing them to L2 input and strengthening L2 output production. As a result, the virtual learning environment can have positive implications on the language learning trajectories of these participants. However, to address a limitation of our study, future research that explores the perceived outcomes of the implementation of voice recognition within online environments should include a control group. Another interesting future research direction may entail exploring pre-post changes not only in perceived but also in actual student outcomes.

In addition to an increased sense of competence and confidence in the L2, participants shared positive opinions and attitudes towards the e-learning course. They indicated that they enjoyed the project, they found various foci and aspects useful for their pronunciation development, and particularly appreciated access to immediate feedback on their oral English performance. When asked what they would change about the project, students who offered suggestions stated that the voice recognition software could benefit from some enhancements. Consequently, future research should zero in on ways of improving existing technology.

In conclusion, we found that, overall, this project was easy to implement, generated a wide array of student data, and was well received by students who felt more competent after having participated in the project. Our experience and findings suggest that voice recognition technology embedded within a virtual environment designed to foster reflection on and awareness of English sounds can be an asset in EFL learning. Specifically, this course can help in providing each student in large classes timely, targeted feedback and the support that EFL learners need to develop communicative competence and L2 self-confidence.

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MOVING TOWARDS A REVOLUTIONARY CHANGE IN MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION: DOES CLIL LIVE UP TO THE HYPE?

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Keywords: Bilingualism, Multilingualism, CLIL, FL teaching, History, Immersion systems

This paper presents a descriptive study, within the Spanish BIMAP research project, analysing the success factors of the CLIL approach in the teaching of foreign languages. Indeed, the wide dissemination of this methodology points to the world-wide acclaim it has received, so much so that it is currently considered to be one of the best strategies for the promotion of multilingualism. After a brief historical introduction on the origin of this methodology, on changes in the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism and some underlying psycholinguistic issues which support it, a series of important issues will be covered: the differences between CLIL and other immersion systems, the success factors in CLIL and the criticisms that have been levelled against it. Finally, this work analyses how language and content are integrated in the light of research carried out in the context of history classes.

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1 Introduction

The expansion of bilingual education since the 1960s has been an innovative trend designed to address the failure of traditional language teaching. Fortunately, the teaching of languages has been revolutionised, and interest in a multilingual curriculum has spread in many countries.

The European context includes different models of bilingual education, most notably, the immersion systems which emphasise content and language known as CLIL. This has become a special model with precedents not only in North America, but also in Europe, where other immersion models had previously been in use, such as the one used in European international schools.

In general, two attitudes can be distinguished in bilingual models: (a) bilingual education offers added value: it helps to promote cultural integration, inclusive education and equal opportunities for everybody (additive bilingualism); and (b) linguistic and cultural diversity is a threat: bilingual programmes are a transition towards full assimilation by the dominant group, which is detrimental to the L1 of learners (subtractive bilingualism).

Immersion systems are characterised by the intense learning of a foreign language (FL) thanks to the increase in exposure when using it as a vehicular language in content teaching. In this context additive bilingualism is promoted for a series of psychological (cognitive and emotive) reasons, since it is considered that the reinforcement of the L1 at the same time as learning the L2 (or other L3) represents the best option for the balanced development of learners. The first of this type of programmes was the immersion in French of the Saint Lambert school in Canada in 1965.

It is considered to be a valid alternative to traditional teaching. It is a kind of dual “one-way” programme that is carried out with homogeneous groups of students who speak a majority language (the official language in a country) and who have little or no competence in the language of immersion considered as a FL when entering the programmes. In practice, some non-linguistic subjects (i.e. philosophy, maths or history) are taught through a FL with a double interest in content learning and competences and skills in the FL. This is what distinguishes it from other approaches that use content teaching (content-based instruction or CBI) in L2, but which only point to the learning of a linguistic programme, or use a FL, but where the emphasis is above all on learning non-linguistic content (Georgiou, 2012, p. 495).

The CLIL approach is an immersion system that originated in Europe and began to grow rapidly from the early nineties onwards. In Europe, Denmark, Greece, Iceland and Turkey are the only countries which do not offer any kind of CLIL provision, whereas Belgium, Luxembourg, and Malta are the only European countries in which CLIL exists in all schools throughout the whole

education system (Eurydice, 2012, p. 39).

As regards Italy, it is one of the European countries to systematically making it compulsory in the second grade of secondary education from 2010 onwards. There is significant impetus from the government to support and develop CLIL, so that it starts in primary school and continues throughout the education system (Cinganotto, 2016, p. 389). Specifically, CLIL has been disseminated primarily in English, but is also taught in other languages (mainly French, Spanish and German), which contrasts with the linguistic policy of other countries that have concentrated exclusively on English.

2 Promoting changes in FL acquisition

This dissemination of bilingual education is due to a change of perspective in the way bilingualism is viewed, thanks to certain psycholinguistic contributions and to the evolution of linguistic models, language-learning models and language-teaching models.

Firstly, with regard to studies focusing on the cognitive impact of bilingualism, there has been a significant shift in viewpoint since the seventies, from negative to positive, with a recognition of the advantages of bilingualism.

Likewise, the concepts of multilingualism and bilingualism should be addressed, given that the boundaries between them are not always clear. In fact, the literature encompasses a wide range of definitions (Ruiz de Zarobe & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015). Traditionally, the definition of these two concepts has been based on a high level of linguistic competence, as in the first definitions of bilingualism offered by Bloomfield (1933, p. 56), who spoke of «native-like control of two or more languages». Another definition that is based more on the level of competence is that of Comanaru and Dewaele, which refers to «proficiency to various degrees in more than one language» (cited in Ruiz de Zarobe & Ruiz de Zarobe, *op. cit.*, p. 394). In this sense, it is difficult to gauge the level that is necessary in order to be able to speak of bilingualism and multilingualism. In addition, the ascribed competence must take into consideration the «different language areas (lexis, phonetics, syntax, etc.) and the four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking)» (*Ibidem*).

Therefore, a more modern definition of multilingualism (or plurilingualism¹) is presented here which states that a multilingual is someone who can maintain conversational interactions in two or more languages (Wei, 2013, p. 33). This implies that the model speaker of reference is no longer a native or mother tongue speaker.

Regarding the linguistic and psychological models, it is significant that, with the passing of time, there was a rejection of the structuralist model and

¹ This second term is more frequently used in French literature, so from now on both terms will be considered synonymous.

the behavioral model respectively. In this sense, it is worth noting the influence that the bilingual programmes of the aforementioned Canadian primary school of St. Lambert, beginning in the early sixties, had on later models. In fact, at that time there was a reaction to formalist teaching based on the principles of linguistic structuralism that proposed a sequential study of linguistic forms called “attention to forms”, because it wrongly predicted that students learn structures in an isolated and sequenced way by the repetition of linguistic models in the classroom (advocated by behaviorism). Therefore, from that moment, bilingual models began to propose a new theory of learning which, in contrast to explicit learning, held that grammar is learned implicitly without express attention to form.

In general, immersion models advocate an incidental rather than intentional L2 learning, because it is believed that students can learn while focusing their attention on parallel actions. It is also implicit because it occurs without full consciousness. Research emphasises that this type of knowledge is more persistent in relation to the type of brain connections that are created (Mondt *et al.*, 2011).

From reflection on the results obtained in those first experiences of immersion, a review of the role of implicit learning has been proposed. Today many authors agree that a balance between implicit and explicit learning is necessary, since learning is configured as an interactive process between both.

In terms of language teaching, CLIL combines the advances in teaching with the development of the communicative approach and the task-based approach. This has led to a radical change of perspective and an emphasis on content and the ability of learners to communicate thanks to more significant linguistic learning.

Finally, it is important to consider that multilingual learning involves greater complexity and its success depends on a series of variables (De Bot *et al.*, 2007) such as: (a) the importance of maintaining the mother tongue (or mother tongues) (additive bilingualism); (b) the existence of a correlation between exposure time to additional languages in multilingual programmes; (c) the lack of an evident correlation between the age² of students and the acquisition of multilingual competence; (d) the fact that didactics are fundamental to the promotion of opportunities to use languages interactively through learning situations in which real communication needs are set up; (e) multilingual training in languages belonging to very distant linguistic families from the maternal language of students may be relative in relation to the academic and linguistic goals of the school, but there are usually limits in relation to the objective of the use of these languages for other social purposes (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2011).

² An early onset is preferred, but it should not be ruled out later in adolescence or in adulthood.

3 Identity of the CLIL approach

The CLIL model has its own characteristics, which is why it was thought convenient to use new terminology to indicate its distance with respect to previous models. In fact, in order to structure the model, Coyle (2007, p. 550) developed a holistic model based on four elements: «The 4Cs Framework focuses on the interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (learning and thinking) and culture (social awareness of self and ‘otherness’)».

With regard to the educational level, it should be noted that CLIL can cover different levels, since it is aimed at students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level. From a didactic point of view, its flexibility stands out as it is presented as an approach with various degrees of application which take into account the realities and the resources available starting with 30-minute “language showers” in preschool or primary settings. Another possibility consists in the gradual presentation of the content in the FL from 25% until it reaches 100%.

Another indicative aspect of this need to adapt to students may be the introduction of explanatory comments or translations in the students’ L1 and even the acceptance of “code switching”, that is, passage from the L1 to the L2 or vice versa. In this sense, we refer today to “translanguaging”, which is a kind of institutionalized “code switching” whereby, in many monolingual classes, the use of the L1 is accepted, for example, in group activities, or even in support materials within a class held in the L2.

In practice, FL teachers aim at the accuracy and fluency of learners’ productions, while subject-specialist teachers aim to achieve the development of mathematical, or biological thinking in the FL. Therefore, CLIL experiences provide a large amount of linguistic input that is also real and relevant for learners, because it is related to content. The processing of the meaning is motivated by the learners’ need for content in order to understand the explanations of a subject or to carry out activities in class.

In addition, it is an opportunity to integrate the focus on meaning with the focus on form. If content teachers are aware of the importance of the formal aspects, they will use appropriate strategies and that need may even come from students after a communicative task. This way of working contributes to the processing of the form and the correction of errors. In this sense, we can talk about the “noticing hypothesis” that maintains that, for input to be transformed into intake³ (which can be collected and incorporated into the interlanguage by the learner) it is necessary for him/her to pay a certain amount of attention to the input, for example, when he/she perceives the difference between his/her

³ The intake is the part of the input comprehensible and understood that is focalized by the learner.

performance and other language models.

The CLIL approach attempts to encompass a type of global learning (Pavesi *et al.*, 2001, p. 123), since contextualised concrete learning is fostered, in which motivation is generated by necessity, and the objective is related to immediate oral communication with a focus on content and few cognitive demands. This trend is in contrast to a traditional type of education in which, up to now, learning was decontextualised, with little regard for non-verbal communication, a predominance of written over oral language, a high cognitive requirement driven by abstraction and an emphasis on the formal aspects of language that formed a barrier between students and the learning process. In this regard, Cummins (1979) had established the distinction between basic communication skills or BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and academic textual competence or CALP⁴ (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency).

In contrast, CLIL classes provide an authentic learning context in which significant communication is established and the learner maintains an active role following principles of task-based teaching which can lead learners, for example, to create a map of the school (geography) or perform an experiment (science). In this way, with an emphasis on the content of the task, incidental learning is promoted and opportunities are offered to practice language. That is to say: the sociocultural and constructivist theories about learning are taken into account and the development of learners is promoted through a dialogic relationship with their peers, the teacher and the materials.

From a methodological point of view, this approach emphasises learning strategies and techniques. In particular, in research carried out in the Netherlands, De Graaff *et al.* (2007, p. 620) found evidence of good teaching practices during CLIL classes that contribute to L2 learning. These can be summarised in the following five main categories: (a) stimulating input; (b) the facilitation of meaning processing with questions about new vocabulary, or with explicit and implicit correction; (c) the facilitation of the processing of form by providing examples, with recasts or confirmations, requests for clarification and feedback that can also be carried out among peers; (d) the development of written production by means of proposals with different formats and oral (presentations, round tables, debates) and written creative practices (letters, surveys, articles, manuals); (e) the proposal of compensatory strategies, reflection on these strategies and scaffolding in case of difficulties in learning.

In conclusion, the success of CLIL is due to the fusion between the best principles of language teaching and the best principles of general education.

⁴ According to Cummins (1979), for the development of BICS, learners need between one and three years, and for CALP, between five and seven years if they have previously acquired literacy in their L1, or between seven and ten years, if they have not acquired it yet.

4 Principles of the CLIL approach

First of all, it is important to consider that in the development of bilingual education the literature refers to CBI (Content-Based Instruction) and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). The first is usually associated with the first French immersion programmes in Canada in the early sixties while CLIL is linked to the teaching of English as a vehicular language during the nineties in Europe. Although research refers to a series of differences which we cannot examine in any detail in this paper, in practice the differences between these terms are not always well defined and their use may not be so unequivocal, giving rise to situations in which intersections or overlays are found. For these reasons, Cenoz (2015) considers that there are no essential differences between CBI and CLIL but rather, a continuum based on the emphasis that, in practice, is placed on teaching content and language.

Therefore, in the current research on CLIL methodology we find that the idea of CLIL is being presented as an “umbrella term” to indicate a wide range of immersion situations (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014). This agrees with a broad definition in which «CLIL is any learning context in which content and language are integrated to respond to specific educational objectives» (Marsh, 2002, p. 1) and which can be undertaken in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level.

Likewise, CLIL is characterized by flexibility and is applicable in a variety of contexts. In fact, Coyle (2007) distinguishes 216 different types of CLIL programmes based on variables such as: the compulsory status, the intensity, the age at which it is started, the linguistic level required or the duration. On the other hand, this is understandable because the situation of CLIL in a particular European country cannot be extrapolated to another, given the differences in language-teaching systems.

Considering this vast array, Georgiou (2012) identifies three basic principles:

- (a) It is content-based, which differentiates it from other language-based approaches that can use content teaching, but mainly to obtain linguistic results. In fact, a balance is sought between the teaching of content and language.
- (b) It is a unique methodology that is a fusion between a methodology for the teaching of an FL and a methodology for the teaching of a specific subject, for example, through simulations, role-playing games, or writing reports in the field of science.
- (c) General didactic objectives that have been labeled as the “4 Cs framework” (Coyle, *op. cit.*, p. 550), which goes beyond language (and

communication) to also encompass content, cognition and culture.

Another characteristic is the teaching of a lingua franca that is considered as international to a greater or lesser extent –which in Europe can be languages such as English, French, Spanish or German – although there are a number of ideological circumstances that sustain the hegemony of English (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, p.183).

Based on Georgiou's analysis (*op. cit.*) of research on CLIL, we have identified a large number of its success factors and expanded them. In order to be more immediate, we present them here schematically:

1. additive bilingualism, biculturalism and interculturality;
2. the role of the L1 in the learning of the L2: code switching and translanguaging;
3. the possibility of coordinating the development of L1 and L2, for example, in regard to the teaching of textual typologies;
4. CLIL teacher support and empathy;
5. the training benefits of the CLIL methodology;
6. the use of scaffolding that considers graduality by means of cognitive support and specific materials to meet students' needs;
7. the continuity of the programme throughout the academic year so that students become familiar with the academic language in each subject;
8. the use of a specific parallel space dedicated to the FL to cater to the two types of competences: CALP and BICS;
9. greater L2 motivation in both learners and teachers;
10. improvement of the linguistic competence of a greater number of students who are average learners;
11. more durable learning due to the development of specific brain connections;
12. periodic quality controls;
13. the involvement and support of parents, colleagues and administrators.

Undoubtedly, we refer here to an ideal model, since, in practice, the successful implementation of CLIL classes could be a long way off, as indeed might be the successful implementation of any kind of teaching, depending on a series of variables.

5 Criticisms of the CLIL methodology

Most criticism focuses on the method's effectiveness in achieving good results in language and content in the same way that they are achieved through an L1. Some critics consider that CLIL is an elitist approach that attracts better

students because there is self-selection conditioned by the cultural and social background of families. In this regard, it should be noted that unlike other types of bilingual education, CLIL is an initiative open to all types of students, which emphasises its democratic character. In fact, in some countries it is spreading to less academic areas of education such as vocational training, for example, in Italy or the Netherlands.

Other researchers question the correlation between the reality of CLIL contexts and the image portrayed by its defenders (Georgiou, *op. cit.*). In this sense, it is noteworthy that the rapid dissemination of CLIL has led to many misunderstandings, so teachers, administrators and politicians have tried to adjust it to particular contexts, and understand and interpret it according to their previous training or without appropriate training or adequate resources.

On the other hand, it is important to highlight that CLIL students present problems related to some basic formal linguistic aspects⁵ that could be improved if more attention was paid to both the content and the form when communicative tasks are carried out, for example, if feedback is used for correction.

Another issue is the professional training that teachers of non-linguistic subjects may have had and their collaboration with L2 teachers. In this sense, the didactic interventions of the former have been criticised, because sometimes they continue to use a traditional methodology (Georgiou, *op. cit.*).

In addition, it should be stressed that the training of teachers (didactic, linguistic, and psychological) entails a certain complexity. In this respect, it is noteworthy that several possibilities are foreseen (Pavesi *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p.129): a subject-specialist teacher who teaches the subject content in an L2; an L2 teacher who may teach a content subject; or a collaboration between an L2 teacher and a subject-specialist teacher. The important thing is that teachers should be aware of the need for careful programming, a gradual approach and careful timing of the objectives as well as some knowledge of how to manage group dynamics in order to promote cooperative learning and learner responsibility.

The most sensitive issue involves the training of CLIL teachers since, apparently, they do not always have a sufficiently good level in the language. For example, in Italy a C1 level was initially required, but this has been lowered to a B2 level and even teachers who have merely started their training to obtain that second level are accepted.

However, it should be noticed that all the literature analysed refers to a greater motivation among CLIL teachers, which can have positive consequences on promoting learning and linguistic models that are more accessible to learners, but which are not necessarily always those of a native speaker.

⁵ Martínez and Gutiérrez (2015) indicate aspects such as: use of determinants, position of adverbs, datives and word order.

6 The integration of language and content in history

The teaching of history through CLIL is a useful strategy for several reasons. From a linguistic point of view, it contributes to the development of the academic register and the distinction between genres and registers with their lexicogrammatical features in the different languages involved. It also contributes to the development of a series of cognitive functions that are the basis of the interdependence between language and cognition.

Likewise, the use of history in writing can attenuate the working memory load given that the content has previously been memorized during classes, which allows the retrieval of a rich and varied lexicon, and in this, in turn, improves lexical availability. In short, the path to complexity in written production is made smoother by attenuating the cognitive load. Besides, incidental learning is promoted in parallel activities while learners are involved in the production of meaning.

From a content point of view, it is worth noting the “linguistic turn” that the study of history has undergone; this recognises that the use of language is not innocent and encapsulates a stance (Lorenzo & Dalton-Puffer, 2016). In this sense, promoting the study of history through CLIL can contribute to critical thinking and to the fight against prejudice, ideological predilections and the assumptions that a certain vision of the past implies by means of the mediation of an L2.

Likewise, historical biliteracy is a strategy for developing otherness, since venturing beyond the borders of one’s own language can help one to experience other versions of history, which can contribute to the development of a multiple identity (*Ibidem*, p. 72).

Conclusion

The success of bilingual and multilingual teaching depends on a very diverse set of interrelated factors, both curricular and extra-curricular. In Europe there is a drive from above (institutions) and also from below (general social interest) for linguistic and multilingual learning, which can contribute to the consolidation of multilingualism and the individual and social identity of the European citizen for whom linguistic diversity is a common feature, since, in the majority of European countries, different languages are spoken.

Therefore, opting for CLIL can contribute to individual and collective prosperity and to the improvement of social cohesion in a historical moment characterised by massive shifts of people that have given rise to complex societies characterised by multilingualism and multiculturalism.

Finally, there is no doubt that the development of CLIL and all the research

it is generating, including criticisms of it, can contribute to greater reflection, which is beneficial for its survival and improvement and, in the long term, could affect the quality of teaching in general. From this point of view, CLIL has fully satisfied the expectations of disseminating better, more inclusive, multilingual teaching.

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TARGETING LANGUAGE OWNERSHIP AND AWARENESS WITH AUTHENTIC USES OF ENGLISH

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Keywords: Authenticity; Content-based learning; English as a foreign language; Language awareness; Language ownership

The present paper describes a 12-week content-based course implemented with a class of secondary school students in Italy that aimed to enhance the levels of language ownership and awareness via authentic uses of English. The themes of exclusion and exile – viewed from historical and contemporary standpoints – served as a springboard for class discussions and debates, and inspired the development of collaborative, multimodal final projects shared on Write4Change, an international virtual writing community. After reporting on language attitude and ownership data collected with an entry questionnaire that informed the course design, this paper describes the four phases of the course in detail and presents an overview of ways in which authenticity was embedded within the course. Favorable student responses to the course and its successful implementation, notwithstanding contextual constraints such as limited access to technology, make replication of this course in other learning settings both feasible and worthwhile.

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1 Introduction

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, language learning experiences are often limited to decontextualized, form-focused activities devoid of real-world relevance and opportunities for genuine practice in target language (TL) use. As Littlewood (2011) explains, “students are sometimes given a steady diet of activities such as ‘planning a party’ that will never take place or ‘giving directions to the station’ on the map of a non-existent town” (p. 553). Learners who are accustomed to these types of tasks and form-focused instruction learn to perform well under controlled conditions and excel at exhibiting explicit knowledge of grammar rules and at uttering formulaic, grammatically-correct sentences but they struggle to use their TL for unstructured communication beyond the walls of the classroom. If a person is unable to use the language to communicate in real-world settings, as Ozverir, Herrington and Osam (2016, p. 485) assert, “then it cannot be said that the person *has* the language”.

In its May 2018 proposal for a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning, the European Commission foregrounds language awareness, supported by digital tools and content-language integration, to improve language competence across Member States. To this end, instruction should aim to bridge the gap between ‘scholastic’ and real-world English by affording language learners more opportunities to practice authentic TL communication using innovative tools. Rather than instilling in learners the unrealistic and futile compulsion to sound like native speakers (NSs) of an English-speaking community, language learning should empower learners to become competent and agentive users of English. When this is achieved, learners can attain awareness – in the forms of language, intercultural, and learning awareness – that sanctions them to claim ownership of their TL (Rüschhoff, 2018). In turn, instilling a greater sense of TL ownership augments feelings of legitimacy, competence, and willingness to communicate.

The present paper reports on a 12-week content-based course connected to a virtual writing community that was modeled on authentic learning and designed to instill in students an increased sense of language ownership and awareness. After the description of the analysis of language attitude and ownership data collected via an entry questionnaire that informed the course design, the four phases of the course are detailed and an overview of ways in which authenticity was embedded within the course design is presented. Then, the paper analyzes students’ feedback to the course and makes the case for its replication.

2 Course design and implementation

The course was initiated by request of the headmaster of a science-focused upper secondary school located in a small city in southern Italy who was interested in exposing students to content-based learning¹. The content teacher, who taught Italian language and literature, lent the course content, which was grounded in the work and historical context of Ugo Foscolo but was more explicitly based on the emergent themes of self-exile, forced exile, and exclusion. Hence, the subject officially associated with the course notwithstanding, the content area most germane to these themes was social studies (history and current events).

The author of the present paper – an American-English-speaking researcher – led the course for 1 to 2 hours a week for a 12-week period from February to May 2018. Prior to this engagement, she had acted as a visiting instructor in the school, conducting a pilot that connected students to Write4Change, a virtual writing community committed to linking students worldwide who use their writing to enact change.

Consequently, the course was designed to integrate content, English as a vehicular language, and Write4Change. It was implemented with 24 students enrolled in their fourth year of upper secondary studies. A third of the students were female and the students' ages ranged from 17 to 19. According to their English teacher, the students' English proficiency level was on average between A2 and B1 of the CEFR scale. Yet, there was a notable variation in English knowledge across students: at one end of the proficiency spectrum one student was preparing for an English C2-level exam while, at the other end, a few students struggled to carry on a simple conversation in English.

2.1 Language attitudes and ownership

At the start of the course, students were given an entry questionnaire that delved into participant attitudes towards English, their identification with the language, and their sense and understanding of language ownership. Twenty-one students completed the questionnaire.

As illustrated in Figure 1, all participants indicated that they liked English. Word frequency analyses performed with *AntConc*, a software package for linguistic analysis of texts, of the open-ended responses to why they

¹ In particular, the headmaster was interested in exposing students to CLIL. The course, however, cannot be categorized as CLIL according to the mandates dictated by the Italian Ministry of Education for several reasons. First, the content area was linked to Italian language and literature and CLIL involves the teaching of non-language content matter (Devos, 2016). Moreover, while CLIL courses are normally led by content teachers, at times with the support of the vehicular language teachers (see Grandinetti, Langellotti & Ting, 2013), in this case the module was taught by an external figure because the content teacher had not received prior CLIL training and she did not feel that she had adequate English knowledge to teach the course.

liked English indicated that among the most frequently used words were ‘international’ (8 occurrences), ‘important’ (5 occurrences) and ‘easier/easy’ (4 occurrences), which suggests that participants appreciated that English was a language used for global communication, they viewed its knowledge as important (to participate in global domains and for their future), and they thought the language was easier (in its grammatical structure) than Italian.

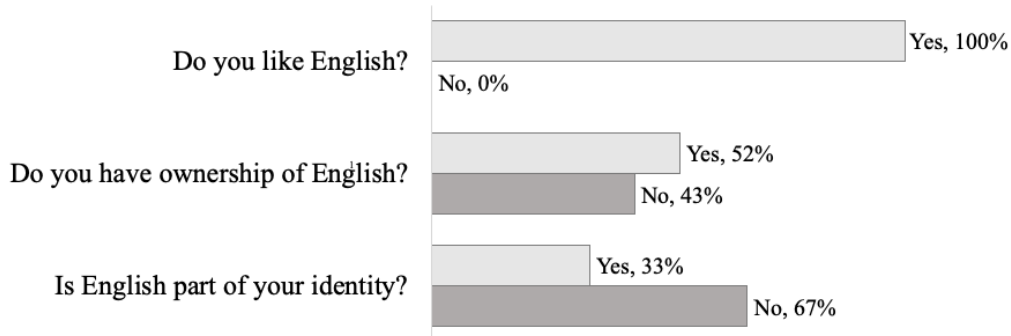


Fig. 1 - Responses to ‘entry questionnaire’ items (percentages)

This pronounced tendency did not transpire in responses to other items. Roughly half of participants² indicated that they had ownership of English. When prompted to describe what ownership of English entails, almost all participants grounded their responses in terms of language expertise (Rampton, 1990), or command of the language. For instance, one student who said that he did not have ownership of English explained: “I think that someone has ownership of English when he can speak it simply and fluently”. These findings therefore suggest that half of the students felt that they did not have adequate command of English.

Then, two thirds of participants indicated that they did not feel that English was part of their identities. The analysis of open-ended explanations for these responses using Seilhamer’s (2015) framework for language ownership revealed that 9 participants defined their relationship with English in terms of *affective belonging*, or emotional attachment to a language, 8 participants expressed it in terms of *prevalent usage*, or the quantity and quality of language use, and 4 participants drew on *legitimate knowledge*, or (perceived) language proficiency. Specifically, 7 of the 9 participants who drew on *affective belonging* did so to justify why English was not part of their identities, exemplified by representative responses such as “[English is] the language of the world, not of my identity” or “Because I think that my identity is Italian, because I was born

² The sum of the responses to the prompt “Do you have ownership of English?” does not amount to 100% because one student inserted a third option, or “Hope so”.

in Italy and I live in Italy”. Half of the participants who drew on *prevalent usage* did so to explain that English was not part of their identities – for instance, “because in [the] South of Italy we don’t speak this language a lot” – and the remaining half used it to justify why English was part of their identities, as in the following response: “because sometimes I need to communicate with people from [other] countries”. With respect to *legitimate knowledge*, 3 students said that English was not part of their identities because of their lagging TL abilities and 1 student felt English was part of his identity because of his successful language examination outcomes.

In addition to the profound implications on the relationship between language and identity, which are beyond the scope of the present paper, these findings provided compelling insights that informed the course. Entry questionnaire responses suggest that students had positive attitudes towards English but they necessitated more opportunities to feel command of and competent in the language. The fact that some students associated only their mother tongue to their identity notwithstanding the role of English as an international lingua franca suggested that they could benefit from more experience using English as a lingua franca (ELF) to envision themselves as members of a global community – even a virtual one – who are legitimized to own English. In a similar vein, given that students who experienced the need to use English to communicate with others were more likely to identify with English than those who did not have exposure to the language in their surroundings, the benefits of organizing the classroom as a full English immersion experience became more evident. Then, the connections between proficiency and identification suggested that more emphasis should be placed not only on the development of TL competence but also on fostering opportunities for learners to set their own communicative goals and self-assess their performance based on authentic use scenarios. In short, these results attenuated attention to accuracy and NS norms within the course, and validated the emphasis of the course on TL communication based on principles of authenticity and the use of the international Write4Change community.

2.2 The four phases of the course

The course consisted of four phases. In the first phase, students were asked to reflect on their relationship to English, prompted by the entry questionnaire items. The instructor then asked students to what extent they thought English should be used within the course. Unsurprisingly given the aforementioned questionnaire results, the students shared that they preferred that in-class interactions occur exclusively in English so that they could practice speaking in their TL. The students also decided that course products would be developed

in English to reach a wider audience.

The second phase focused on writing for change. To this end, students were asked to peruse social media and the news for examples of this phenomenon. Stemming from this search, in class we viewed videos and discussed student responses in the aftermath of the school shooting in Parkland, Florida. Grounded in these and other concrete examples, this phase comprised the deliberation of ways in which writing can enact change and the identification of the characteristics of this type of writing.

In the third phase, students briefly described the content of Foscolo's literary work – and in particular excerpts of his epistolary novel *The Last Letters of Jacopo Ortis* and his poem “A Zacinto” – in English to the instructor, since the reading and analysis of this literature occurred in the lessons led by the Italian teacher and were not explicitly a part of the course. The emphasis of this discussion was not the literary work per se but the emergent themes of exile and exclusion, and how these were relevant to and impacted on the students' lives and community. One of the main topics that transpired during this phase was migration to Italy. A nearby church hosted several refugees, among which a man from South Sudan whom had spoken, in English, to several students before he was invited to share his experiences at a school assembly. These interactions provided a tangible link to the larger national political discourse on migration and gave rise to in-class discussions on related threads including the historical underpinnings and resurgence of nationalism and anti-immigration sentiments in Italy, responses to the presence of migrants in students' immediate surroundings, episodes of and solutions to intolerance, among others. Students were then prompted to brainstorm ways in which they could integrate the (social studies and/or Italian literature) content with current events and their interests/concerns, and express these in a final project, which consisted in the development of student-driven, collaborative and multimodal products aimed at enacting change that would be posted on Write4Change and therefore shared with its participants from around the globe.

Thus, the final phase involved the articulation of the final project, including group work and discussions, in the form of workshopping in class. The class divided itself into four groups. A description of the final projects of each of the groups follows:

- a) The Italian teacher insisted that at least one group take on Latin and Italian literature as the topic of their work. After a deliberate discussion, the group with the most positive attitudes towards Italian agreed to focus on this topic. Its members developed a PowerPoint presentation – chosen as a mode because, in the words of a group member, it was “more simple” and “engaging” than a “boring” essay – in which the theme of exile was explored through the lives and writings of Cicero,

Dante, and Foscolo.

- b) Another group developed a PowerPoint presentation on exile in the history of Israel. When asked why they chose this topic, a group member responded that it was “*una cosa alternativa*” – or something different – and another added “because it’s happening. We’re talking about a contemporary episode of our history and it’s very important.” This group was interested in exploring the psychological front of the experience of exile and diaspora, and presented what they termed “significant and overwhelming” issues faced by this population.
- c) The third group created a video arising from their encounter with the aforementioned South Sudanese refugees. After having articulated what they had learned from the refugees’ stories, group members shifted their focus to community perception since, as they wrote in the introduction to their video, the refugees “had a nice welcome but not everyone want[s] them” to reside in their community. The students therefore interviewed their classmates to delve into their opinions on immigration into Italy in general and the experience of the South Sudanese family, as well as their views on the refugees’ permanence in their community.
- d) The fourth group, also inspired by the plight of migrants, focused on social injustice. They created a PowerPoint presentation in which they spotlighted discrimination on the grounds of race and sexual orientation, and also honed in on (cyber)bullying. Subsequent to the description of each of these concepts, the students proposed solutions to these large social issues. For instance, they proposed that schools should address social injustice head on, suggesting the following: “The teachers [...] have the duty of informing, [sensitizing] and making their students understand that our social and mental barriers are just [a] product of ignorance and a limited [view] of reality”.

During the last meeting of the course, the students presented their projects to their peers. These presentations culminated in a series of debates that combined historical, political, social, and economic considerations with students’ opinions on how to enact change in their community. On that day, students also wrote a response to the course.

2.3 An outline of authenticity in the course

Ozverir *et al.* (2016) provide granularity to the concept of authenticity with a series of principles that constitute a framework for the design of authentic activities, outlined in Table 1. Several of these design principles were incorporated into the design of the course to advance authenticity and boost

opportunities for students to experience authentic language learning and use.

Table 1
FRAMEWORK FOR THE DESIGN OF AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES
(Ozverir *et al.*, 2016, pp. 488-491)

Design Principle	Description
1	Authentic activities have real-world relevance
2	Authentic activities are complex and ill-defined
3	Authentic activities provide the opportunity for students to examine the task from different perspectives, using a variety of resources
4	Authentic activities provide the opportunity to collaborate
5	Authentic activities provide the opportunity to reflect
6	Authentic activities lead beyond domain- and skill-specific outcomes
7	Authentic activities are seamlessly integrated with assessment
8	Authentic activities yield polished products valuable in their own right rather than as preparation for something else
9	Authentic activities allow competing solutions and diversity of outcome
10	Authentic activities are conducive to both learning and communicating
11	Authentic activities provide motivational factors

In particular, some of the ways in which authenticity was embedded within the design of the course follow:

Meaningful content. In content-based classrooms, students engage in appropriate language-dependent activities that explore interesting content and are neither artificial nor meaningless exercises (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). Content-based instruction fosters functional and authentic uses of the TL as students complete tasks and respond to issues that content areas raise (Rüschhoff, 2018). The course prompted students to produce output in English to express their knowledge of literature, history, and current events; to assimilate English input from instructor-provided media, Write4Change and their research; and to integrate their content and language knowledge meaningfully in the development of final projects. Expression, assimilation and integration of content via students' TL mimic real-life situations in which language is used to communicate in unstructured and purposeful, useful, and functional ways.

Personalized content. In addition to content-based knowledge, the driving force of the course was personalized content, which provides learner authenticity³ and is more engaging, meaningful and substantial than assigned content (Littlewood, 2011). First, the only guidelines for final projects were to write for change, work collaboratively, and share products with the Write4Change community. Even though the members of one group were compelled to embed Latin and Italian literature into their project, all groups had the freedom to determine the format, resources and media to employ, the specific topic and content of their work, the ways their projects would

³ Learner authenticity is "the idea that materials and learning initiatives need to be authenticated, that is, made real, given purpose and adopted by the learners themselves" (Rüschhoff, 2018, p. 1).

enact change, the size and members of their groups, the language of their production, and so on. The students were therefore given – and were expected to take – ownership of the task. Then, by foregrounding student-generated opinions, concerns, and possible courses of action in all phases of the course, students gained access to and reflected on differing perspectives, and engaged in language use that was more relevant and motivating.

Working for Change: The focus on student-generated concerns for in-class discussions and tasks can be viewed as a manifestation of a critical literacy approach, which invites students to explore relationships among constructs such as language, power, identity and difference (Janks, 2010). Furthermore, language teaching and learning imply critical awareness since, as explained by Pennycook (2001, p. 176), they are always “an instrument and a resource for *change*, for challenging and changing the wor(l)d”. When critical literacy and awareness are embraced, students become empowered social actors and language users who can more easily link their school-based learning to how knowledge and language are used in practice (Ozverir *et al.*, 2016).

Write4Change. Authentic learning flourishes with online intercultural exchange (Chen & Yang, 2014; Kohn, 2018). According to Chun, Kern and Smith (2016, p. 77), “communication technologies provide a means for language learners to become aware of, and actively reflect on, their own and others’ communicative practices”. Intercultural encounters facilitated by telecollaboration grant access to English use that, unlike the static NS norms recurrent in language textbooks, mirrors ELF models centered on communication.

A major issue faced in many global educational contexts is lack of access to the technology that facilitates online intercultural exchanges. This issue emerged in the setting of the present study as well. The class met at a subsidiary building which was distant from the main building of the school and had no computer labs. Although this limited access to technology precluded the chance for students to take advantage of all the features Write4Change had to offer while they were in class, the fact that the final projects were developed to be shared on the platform was sufficient for students to reap the benefits of intercultural exchange. Write4Change provided an authentic language use scenario for students who became members of a primarily English-speaking virtual global community. Final projects were developed for Write4Change participants, mainly from the US and India, who served as a real international audience for students’ writing. This, in turn, presented an authentic need for the use of English, the shared language.

Language in use. The language aim of the course did not center on accuracy and NS norms but on effective communication. In-person meetings were structured to provide students the opportunity to use English to discuss content

Finally, something different! Even if Italian is not included in the range of my favourite subjects, dealing with an Italian poet using English language was, most of all, encouraging but also really inspiring and motivational.

We finally have worked on something in English that isn't literature; or the sheet of a professor with some exercises for the middle school guys. [...] It was [a] fantastic, useful, and important experience, [to which] I would dedicate more time.

[It] was very positive for me because I think that English is very important for us and for our future. [...] I hope that next year we'll have a similar project in our school so we'll have the opportunity to learn more.

In my opinion, this experience was very stimulating. I think that [to] study a subject in a different language is an opportunity to see the subject in another point of view. It was very interesting and also I learned to speak English more fluently.

What transpires from these and other responses is, first of all, that students appreciated that the course distinguished itself from other school-based experiences in general, and TL learning activities in particular. Students perceived the utility of the course since it allowed for more practice in English but it also captured their interest.

Participants were also asked to indicate the negative aspects of the course and all of the students who provided a response stated that more time should have been allotted, and several students also mentioned that they would like to repeat this experience with content from a scientific subject.

Conclusions

In the course described in this paper, content-based learning was enacted to create real-world and interdisciplinary connections within the realm of the humanities for students at a science-focused secondary school. This school type likely attracts students who prefer scientific subjects, and scientific content lends itself well to content-based learning. Yet, arguably, it is precisely in these educational contexts in which innovative pedagogical approaches should be used in the humanities. As seen in this study, this course allowed the content to become more germane, stimulating and, ultimately, meaningful for students. Students in fact responded positively, viewing the course as a welcome change to traditional learning that was motivating and useful, and they lamented that it did not last longer. Although CLIL should not be implemented with language content such as Italian language and literature, modules that incorporate content-

based learning such as the one described in this paper may serve as rewarding and worthwhile practice for secondary students that can better prepare them for full-fledged CLIL courses and future EMI courses at university.

Moreover, EFL students need competences, strategies, and confidence to communicate successfully with speakers of different English varieties, for different purposes, and in different settings. The course presented in the present paper takes the needs of language users today into account. Given chances to use the language authentically allows learners to gain greater awareness, including getting a clearer picture of the gap and the steps to take to close the gap between their current and desired language-speaking selves (Kohn, 2018), which instills autonomy and ownership.

The course used English as a vehicular language through which students expressed not only their content knowledge but also reached a wider audience and aired their opinions on current affairs. Indeed, notwithstanding limited access to computers, exploiting a virtual community of international writers as the audience of their work was enough to create an authentic language use scenario for students' final projects. Thus, the final project, designed to make learners actively involved in – and acclimated to – meaningful communication in English, became an authentic task geared towards real-life experiences.

The small class size, the use of a single-institution study, and the lack of a control group inhibit the generalization of these findings. However, the course format is easily replicable notwithstanding contextual constraints such as limited access to technology, so it is hoped that its replication occurs in different contexts. In light of the evidence of success reported in this paper, such replication can contribute to the improvement and reshaping of future language learning scenarios that foreground authentic learning.

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ONLINE INTERACTION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: AN ITALIAN PILOT PROJECT ON THE COMPANION VOLUME TO THE CEFR

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Keywords: CEFR; Companion Volume; online interaction; language learning/teaching; digital literacy

The contribution focuses on online interaction as a new important dimension in the linguistic competence and repertoire of a learner, as highlighted by the Companion Volume to the CEFR. Starting from a quick overview on the theoretical framework related to the main features of the linguistic variety used in digital and multimodal environments and social networks, the paper will focus on the descriptors of online interaction presented in the Companion, referring to the initial consultation process and then to a pilot project carried out by the Italian Ministry of Education in cooperation with INDIRE, involving a school network all over Italy.

Some comments from the teachers involved in the projects will be reported and discussed and in particular, an example of project carried out in one of the schools will be highlighted.

As a general conclusion, experimenting the descriptors of online interaction turned out to be a very effective way to reflect and become aware of the

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importance of digital literacy and online communication and interaction in a foreign language, for both teachers and students.

1 Introduction

Among the new descriptors introduced in the Companion Volume to the CEFR¹ published in January 2018, online interaction plays a crucial role in language learning and teaching, as our students, the so-called “screenagers” (Rushkoff, 2006) are constantly exposed to a screen during their daily activities: they share their pictures and stories on Instagram, they publish posts on Facebook, they chat through Snapchat, they can even chat in ten or twenty whatsapp groups at the same time. Therefore the 21st century learners cannot help using online interaction, on the contrary they find it absolutely common and normal. That is why online interaction in a foreign or second language should be considered as an important aspect of the language competence and repertoire of a learner and every teacher should be aware of the importance of interacting online in a foreign language as a crucial skill, together with listening, writing, reading, speaking.

2 Which variety of language for interacting online?

It is clear that communication through social networks, blogs, online communities inevitably conditions the use of the foreign language, so that the famous linguist David Crystal coined the expression “internet linguistics”, by which he means the scientific study of all manifestations of language in the electronic medium. This is a very cutting edge branch of linguistics, which has been developing rapidly in recent decades.

“What I, as a linguist, see on the Internet, is a remarkable expansion of the expressive options available in a language - far exceeding the kinds of stylistic expansion that took place with the arrival of printing and broadcasting [...] such new varieties, as email, chat, texting, blogging, tweeting, instant messaging, and social networking” (Crystal, 2011, p. 12).

What is called CMC (Computer Mediated Communication), which includes forms of online communication and interaction, assumes the characteristics of a hybridization between speech and writing, changing and adopting some aspects of both. Crystal himself states that the communication mediated through the net is characterized by similarities with and at the same time differences from the written code and the oral one, borrowing some traits from one and some from the other, with the necessary adaptations: “Internet language is identical to neither speech nor writing, but selectively and adaptively displays properties

¹ <https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989>

of both. It is more than an aggregate of spoken and written features. It does things that neither of the other medium does” (Crystal, 2011, p. 21).

The different forms of network communication have been investigated by many scholars in recent decades, both internationally and nationally. Only a few of them are briefly mentioned below, without any claim to exhaustiveness.

Among the works of Baron (1984, 1998, 2000), that of 1984 is commonly considered the forerunner of subsequent linguistic research on the CMC. The scholar considers the language of the new media as a variety of pidgin that may evolve into an electronic creole in the future.

Herring (1996) examines the orthographic and grammatical aspects of network interaction, initially considered less correct, complex and coherent than the standard written language.

Orletti (2004) describes the wide range of forms that online writing can take, borrowing traits specific to speech and traits specific to oral expression.

With regard to the mimesis of online speech, for example, through iconic substitutes for the modes of communication of speech, such as emoticons, Pistolesi (1997) uses the pregnant expression “visibile parlare” (“visible speech”).

The advent of these new linguistic varieties has been one of the reasons why the Council of Europe launched a consultation aimed at revising and integrating the descriptors of the Framework in the light of the new demands of the digital society and the new linguistic varieties of recent decades: online communication is also increasingly widespread in foreign languages, so digital skills and language skills can be profiled as two sides of the same coin.

3 Online interaction according to the Companion Volume

On page 96 of the Companion Volume the importance of online conversation as a multimodal phenomenon is explained as mentioned below: “Online conversation and discussion focuses on conversation and discussion online as a multimodal phenomenon, with an emphasis on how interlocutors communicate online to handle both serious issues and social exchanges in an openended way. Key concepts operationalized in the scale include the following:

- instances of simultaneous (real time) and consecutive interaction, the latter giving time to prepare a draft and/or consult aids;
- participation in sustained interaction with one or more interlocutors;
- composing posts and contributions for others to respond to;
- comments (e.g. evaluative) on posts, comments and contributions of others;
- reactions to embedded media;
- the ability to include symbols, images, and other codes for making

the message convey tone, stress and prosody, but also the affective/emotional side, irony etc.”

4 The consultation process on the online interaction descriptors: Techno-CLIL community

In 2017, during the long consultation that Brian North from Eurocentres and his research group (Tim Goodier and Enrica Piccardo) launched among a wide range of stakeholders all over Europe (universities, training centres, policy makers, research centres etc.), with the aim to collect ideas and reactions on the different new descriptors of the CEFR which were in the process of definition, the author, in collaboration with Daniela Cuccurullo, was directly involved in the consultation by Brian North, with reference to the community of practice “Techno-CLIL” made up of about 5000 participants at that time. In fact Techno-CLIL (Cinganotto, 2016a; 2016b; Cinganotto & Cuccurullo, 2016; 2019) is a free international MOOC (Massive Open Online Course) promoted by EVO (Electronic Village Online), an interest group within Tesol International, hosting a wide range of online training initiatives on languages, running between January and February every year.

The Techno-CLIL community was consulted through an online survey², in order to collect ideas and suggestions on the first draft of the online interaction descriptors.

1335 participants completed the survey: they were teachers from different school levels, precisely 33% from primary school, 27% from lower secondary school, 37,9% from upper secondary school and the remaining percentage from pre-primary and university.

They were asked to self-assess their competence in multimodal conversation and discussion, according to the CEFR levels, with the integration of Pre-A1, which is new.

As shown in the graph below, the majority of them identified themselves in the intermediate level (32,3% B2, 30,1% B1).

They were also asked to express their comments on the new descriptors, considering the different indicators suggested.

The majority of them found the descriptors very clear (42,5%) or quite clear (52,3%), and they posted interesting remarks which were considered useful and valuable by Brian North and his collaborators.

² Techno-CLIL community and moderators (the author and Daniela Cuccurullo) have been quoted in the Companion Volume on page 181.

Multimodal conversation and discussion: how would you self-assess your competence?

1.319 risposte

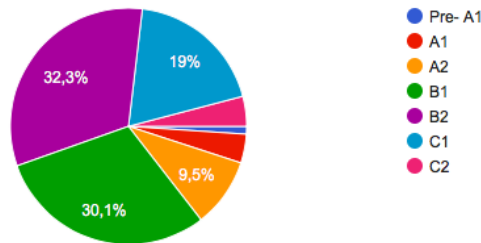


Fig. 1 - Multimodal conversation and discussion: self-assessment

Did you find the descriptors clear?

1.335 risposte

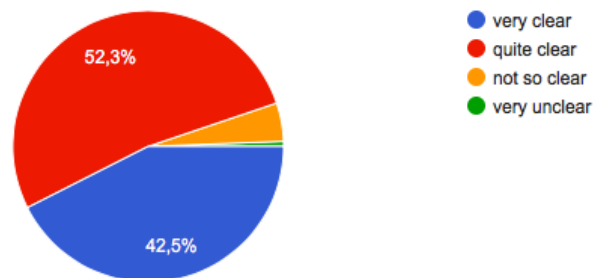


Fig. 2 - The opinions of Techno-CLIL community on the descriptors

Below some of these comments have been selected and reported, after identifying certain categories to group them, according to the Framework Analysis as a general theoretical framework (Ritchie *et al.*, 2014):

4.1 Strengths of the descriptors

The descriptors are generally considered easy and clear and respondents think they can be useful in a language class as they can help have an overall idea of the students' language skills, as the following comments highlight:

They are clearly defined.

They are related to actions, not to theoretical concepts.

Clear and complete.

They provide language teachers with a clear reference model for the preparation of teaching materials and for the evaluation of language skills.

The descriptors were not ambiguous but precise enough to assess clear levels of competence.

Easy and straightforward.

The descriptors are very clear and I am familiar with most of the contexts they refer to.

4.2 Weaknesses of the descriptors

Some comments highlighted certain weakness of the descriptors, such as the lack of additional examples, or the complexity of some parts of the text, especially for non native speakers and for non language teachers.

- *In my opinion, the descriptors are quite clear because each of them has detailed sentences, but it would be useful to add additional examples.*
- *In my opinion some descriptors aren't very clear.*
- *My level of English is not very good...It is very difficult for me to orient myself in such a complex text, although thanks to the indication of the pages I could focus my attention on the final pages.*
- *I had to search for the descriptors and read them all to decide my competences.*
- *I think that your level of linguistic competence is related to the situation in which you use the language. Maybe the questions of the survey and the related descriptors should be a bit different.*

4.3 Remarks about self-assessment

The survey was positively welcomed by the teachers as a self-assessment tool which offered them the opportunity to reflect on their own skills and competences, in the perspective of the teacher as a researcher and as a reflective practitioner (Schön, 2006).

In some cases, it causes embarrassment as teachers are not used to assessing themselves, but are generally focused on students' assessment.

It was also the opportunity to reflect on the importance of online interaction in language teaching and on the role of technologies within the educational process, as shown in the following comments:

- *Sometimes I read and I say myself.... I don't know anything... I'm very bad with technologies...there are too many things I don't know how to use.*

- *I usually assess students' competences by means of grids and descriptors. However I found quite embarrassing to assess myself.*
- *Self-assessment is a little difficult for me as a teacher; it is subjective.*
- *The descriptors have helped me evaluate my level of language competence.*
- *I know my level of preparation and I want to improve.*
- *I need to think about it, but sometimes in online requests I feel in confusion and I fear to be not understood.*
- *It's difficult to be objective, only someone who reads and listens to me could really tell me my level of language competence.*
- *Because it is simple for understanding what you can improve.*
- *This activity was a little difficult for me, because I think self-assessing our own level of language is very difficult for everybody.*
- *It was easy to self-assess my level of language competence because the descriptors are very clear.*

Some of these comments were taken into consideration by Brian North's team for following improvements: of course it was a great privilege to contribute to such a great project.

5 The pilot project promoted by MIUR-INDIRE

In March 2018 the Italian Ministry of Education (inspector Gisella Langé on behalf of Directorate General for School Curricula), in cooperation with INDIRE (the author, in cooperation with Fausto Benedetti) promoted a pilot project aimed at experimenting the descriptors related to online interaction among a sample of schools from all over Italy. Twenty schools were involved and were asked to analyse the descriptors and to plan a foreign language or a CLIL task to propose to one or two classes in their school, entailing online interaction and cooperation among peers. Collaboration among language teachers and subject teachers was encouraged and an online project or pathway within an international framework such as eTwinning or Erasmus Plus was recommended as well. Guidelines and instructions were provided through online synchronous meetings with the research group.

Teachers were invited to observe and assess the students' online interaction according to the criteria established by the Companion Volume.

The documentation of each school project was collected in order to analyse how the online interaction descriptors were used and interpreted by teachers and students.

In this contribution only some examples of the wide range of digital media suggested by the teachers for the online interaction among their students or with

students from other countries will be mentioned and commented on³.

A wide range of CEFR levels was included in the pilot, as the following graph shows:

10- CEFR level(s) in the pilot

20 risposte

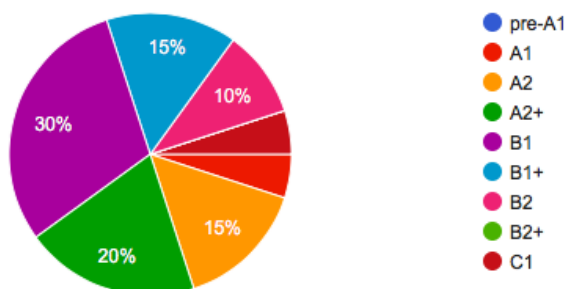


Fig. 3 - CEFR levels in the pilot

The comments which follow have been selected and grouped according to the aforementioned Framework Analysis as a theoretical framework, identifying some common criteria, such as the following:

5.1 *The impact on the students*

- *The students were excited at trying out this new tool.*
- *They became aware of how to apply the descriptors to improve their language competence.*
- *Students can use the descriptors as a tool to self-estimate their confidence with the communication/social technologies.*
- *As regards the benefits reaped, the students learned to communicate effectively, spontaneously, cooperating and facilitating both oral and written interaction. As a result, they achieved a more relaxed and natural approach to language use, particularly in online communication. To reach this aim the descriptors contributed as a useful guideline.*

5.2 *The impact on the teachers*

Teachers found this activity very useful and helped them reflect both on their own and their students' online interaction competences.

- *It contributed to raise my awareness and students were impressed by the*

³ The volume collecting all the material produced by the schools will be published by INDIRE.

fact that somebody wanted to monitor the quality of their online activity.

- *Reading the CEFR Companion Volume I have realized that there are so many different aspects in teaching and learning a foreign language. The four traditional skills are not enough anymore in a world that is changing so rapidly; the use of new media, plurilingualism, mediation, etc. requires the teacher to consider new goals and to plan new “real” activities, more involving and motivating. These new skills must be assessed, too.*
- *Reflecting on the descriptors contributed to my own awareness in focusing on the concepts addressed in the descriptors. The students were involved in the feedback, helping each other with critical thinking and reasoning on errors correction.*
- *As the activities were being carried out, teachers and learners became more conscious of what the descriptors referred to and some adjustments were made.*
- *Once we have socialized the descriptors to the students and the teachers, we have both realized their effectiveness in the end of the project.*
- *The greatest benefit lies in the fact that the online interaction descriptors filled the void in that particular area thus giving teachers the opportunity to observe and subsequently evaluate/assess students’ performances which are not language geared but also based on ICT skills. The descriptors have had an important role both in assessment and in supporting learning in the classroom. At the same time it is interesting to note how students were asked to design CLIL based activities themselves rather than only being the addressees of activities prepared by the teachers.*
- *I think that the online activities favoured spontaneous communication, most students were genuinely interested in getting to know other teenagers, in sharing recipes and information, in asking questions. The students definitely wrote in English more often and in a more natural way than they usually do. At the end of the activities all the students were able to assess their level, going from A2 to B1+, and my assessment was entirely consistent with theirs.*

The activities made learning and working ‘different’ from usual and were therefore motivating. The descriptors contributed to planning and to building the awareness that it was more than a game, it was real communication.

The comments reported above show the potential of this activity in terms of deeper self-awareness and metacognition of teaching and learning processes, with particular reference to assessment and self-assessment of language competences.

6 Documenting the project

Documentation is a very important aspect of a project, not only in terms of exhibition and final products, but in terms of formative, cognitive and learning processes. Collecting documentation through videos, pictures, notes, narratives etc. can help teachers and students reflect on the different steps of a learning pathway, making it “visible” (Ritchhard *et al.*, 2011).

The picture below shows an example of documentation collected by a teacher⁴ involved in the project: one of the students is chatting through whatsapp and the picture captured a particular moment of the formative pathway.

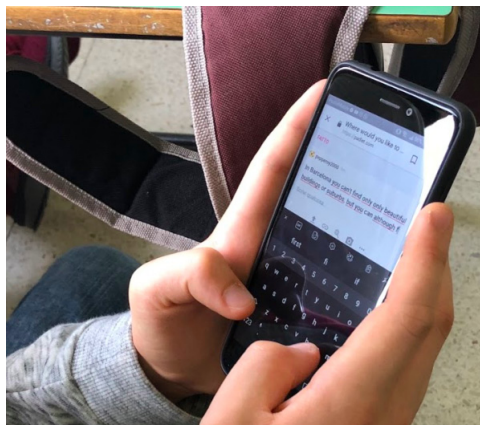


Fig. 4 - A student chatting through whatsapp

The following comments highlight the meaning of documentation as conceived and understood by the teachers:

- *I documented the project with the activities that were written down by the students. I think that all projects should be documented not only for the makers of the project but also for further similar projects and that the school could benefit from this work which is important for many reasons such as: it helps others, it deepens your understanding and it is also a good reference for future projects.*
- *The project was documented with the creation of a blog to keep track of the activities and the results achieved. Videos were made and pictures taken and added to the blog as well as the materials used (worksheets) or produced (final products).*
- *We took photos, short videos and printed the final product.*
- *I filled in an observation grid, a lesson scheme and I took some pictures. Documents, reviews, peer check, video, pictures, screenshots, webtools and other materials were used to provide a deeper documentation of the work.*

⁴ Patrizia Russo, teacher of English at “Manzoni Institute”, Caserta, to whom the author is grateful.

7 An example of a pilot project

An example of a pilot project carried out by one of the Italian schools will be mentioned in the following paragraph. The project refers to an upper secondary school in Rome, addressing a class of fifteen-year-old students in their second year.

The English teacher⁵ has been working with her French and PE colleagues on an eTwinning project with a German class and a Spanish class, named “Young European Journalists United”.

The teacher selected two descriptors related to Goal-Oriented Online Transactions and Collaboration, Level B1+:

Learners:

- *Can engage in online transactions that require an extended exchange of information, provided the interlocutor(s) avoid complex language and are willing to repeat and reformulate when necessary;*
- *Can interact online with a group that is working on a project, following straightforward instructions, seeking clarification and helping to accomplish the shared tasks.*

The class was involved in a two-month sequence of work on the eTwinning project: the topics of the project were related to the European Cultural Heritage. The students had to negotiate the contents of an online magazine. In fact, they were divided into international “editorial offices” and were supposed to realize a digital product, or e-magazine, celebrating the cultural heritage of their three countries. The students debated in class, published materials on the eTwinning platform (TwinSpace), communicated and collaborated through different media and webtools. In particular, whatsapp turned out to be an effective tool for quick interactions and helped foster intercultural empathy among classes with different work schedules and cultural background.

The teacher monitored three forms of online interaction: in class (smartphones, BYOD: Bring Your Own Device) or in the lab (PC) and from home (e-mailing and forum posting on the Twinspace, whatsapp group chat⁶).

⁵ Mariella Fasanelli, teacher of English at “Machiavelli Institute” in Rome, to whom the author is grateful.

⁶ The blog of the project: <https://sway.com/qFlg7HZzkEk6mLSO> The e-magazine on European Cultural Heritage: <https://madmagz.com/magazine/1312483>



Fig. 5 - A snapshot of a whatsapp chatroom

Above a snapshot of a whatsapp chatroom (Fig. 5).

The following grid was used to observe and assess the students' online interaction during different sessions in the two months

Table 1
OBSERVATION GRID

Descriptor	Twinspace emails	Twinspace forum posts	Wa chats
Can engage in online transactions that require an extended exchange of information			
Can interact online following straightforward instructions			
Can interact online seeking clarification			
Can interact online helping to accomplish the shared tasks			

According to the comments collected, this experience helped increase the teacher's and the students' self-awareness of both language learning and online communication. Students were impressed by the fact that somebody wanted to monitor the quality of their online communication, which they found quite

spontaneous.

During the assessment phase the following descriptors were followed:

Quality of content
Degree of autonomy while working
Form of presentation
Originality / creativity
Interactivity with partners / team capacity
Documentation of the sources
Correct use of language

The following remarks have been extracted from the interview with the teacher:

- *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and its Companion have been perceived by the students as something concrete and closer to them (so far they had just heard of the CEFR in connection with language certifications). Secondly, the fact that the students have been asked to reflect upon the quality of their English online communication when working on an eTwinning project has made them curious and definitely more aware of their communicative and relational competences.*
- *Both we as teachers and the students have paid more attention to the “weight” of online communication when you negotiate with somebody. I mean, online communication might be a little bit too straightforward and less “human” if you don’t follow the etiquette. Being aware of that is a great achievement.*
- *Online interaction is something our students spontaneously get involved with every day. So being online is a “natural” condition to them. As a language teacher you have to transfer the competencies students already have into an international setting where the foreign language is the means to plan and do things together and express yourself in an authentic interaction with someone. If you succeed in that as a student, you get aware of how well you command that language.*

The students’ feedback collected in the forum is interesting and rewarding, as shown in the following answers to the question: “Were you able to effectively interact online via e-mail, forum and whatsapp chats?”

- *I was able to interact with German students, first using the eTwinning forums, then the e-mails and then the whatsapp chats. I was also able to interact with them using the various media even when I wasn't at school. In fact, thanks to all means of communication, we were able to collaborate and to continue the work even outside the school timetable.*
- *I obviously found that using whatsapp was the most effective way of communicating with one another, mainly due to its quick and responsive interface. I preferred to only use e-mails for more formal messages, whereas the forum was a little bit better for sharing progress and ideas that everyone could see.*

Here is an excerpt⁷ from an e-mail exchange between an Italian student, L. and a German one, M., discussing and looking for an agreement on the topic of the article they are supposed to write cooperatively.

Dear M.,

I've seen you have decided to talk about religious rituals. I am going to address the topic of knowledge and practices concerning nature and universe and I was thinking we may work together. What do you think? I hope to hear from you soon.

Regards,

L.

Hi M.,

sorry for getting back to you so late, I've just seen your message. I think it would be very interesting for us to incorporate both topics in our project. I'll text you as soon as I have more to update you on.

Take care,

L.

Hey L.,

Thank you for writing back to me. I'd love to work on this topic with you, because it'd probably be great to get to know the different aspects of nature and universe of two different countries, but I think it's not exactly the kind of article I wanted to write. You mentioned the idea of talking about an astronaut, didn't you? I unfortunately want to write about religious rituals only [like praying before eating or how often Germans or Italians (or even people from Spain, to be honest, I don't really know where you come from) pray per day]. Maybe you want to write this article with me. Please don't be mad at me for not accepting your idea, I think your idea is great, but it's not what I want to write about. If

⁷ The complete documentation of the project will be published in the volume by INDIRE.

you want to join me even though it's not exactly what you thought about, it'd be very nice from you texting me back.

I'm looking forward hearing from you.

Kind regards,

M.

Hi M.,

I can confirm there are other people in our group, so I don't know whether that's still fine for you. I am really glad we can work on this article together, too. I am sure it'll turn out great!

Ps: happy Easter to you too! I hope you've spent a great time with whoever you want:)

Regards,

L.

The same students, together with other friends, continue their interaction from e-mails to a whatsapp group, which is definitely quicker. Here is an excerpt:

[8:32 AM, 4/5/2018] M.: Hey, thanks for adding me. Could all of you please write your names into this group :)

[9:12 AM, 4/5/2018] M.: My name is A.

[9:16 AM, 4/5/2018] A.: Hey, my name is A.

[11:05 AM, 4/5/2018] L.: Hi M.! Sorry for not answering you earlier, I am L. I hope this group will help communicate more easily ☺

*[11:05 AM, 4/5/2018] L.: *help us*

[11:14 AM, 4/5/2018] F.: Hello there! I'm F. M.

[11:22 AM, 4/5/2018] M.: No problem, for sure it will:)

[1:14 PM, 4/5/2018] L.: You can find what we've done for the article so far on our Wiki Page (module 2: culture, Wiki Page 4).

[1:15 PM, 4/5/2018] L.: Feel free to tell us what you think about it.

[6:33 PM, 4/5/2018] M.: Thank you:) I'll read the article later if it's okay. It's very stressful atm sorry.

[7:19 PM, 4/5/2018] M.: I read the article and I think it's very nice. It's well-structured and also quite informative:) you did a great job and it looks like there is much effort in it ☺ Are you fine with the idea of me writing my part of the article in the same structure as yours? For example, first I add a whole text which contains information about a German theoretical physicist named Albert Einstein and after that I'm going to write a detailed text about the nature in Marl (my hometown:)). What do you think about this idea?

[7:21 PM, 4/5/2018] A.: I think it is a good idea.

[7:21 PM, 4/5/2018] M.: *Okay, thank you:)*

[7:22 PM, 4/5/2018] M.: *If everyone is fine with it, I'll start writing the articles:)*

[7:26 PM, 4/5/2018] A.: *I think everyone agrees with your idea, for me you can start writing the articles:)*

[7:59 PM, 4/5/2018] L.: *I think it's a great idea! Combining two different cultures as if it were one is definitely going to be of interest for the readers.*

[9:29 PM, 4/5/2018] M.: *Thanks:)* *I'll start writing the articles soon and tell you when it's completed.*

[9:58 PM, 4/5/2018] F.: *It sounds great!*

It is worth highlighting some typical features of the English language used in the students' online interactions, such as the informal register; the abundancy of emoticons and graphic symbols to express emotions and feelings (especially the smile ☺); the use of abbreviations and acronyms, which make the communication quick, smooth and vivid (“atm”, which stands for “at the moment”); the use of the asterisk for self-correction or recast (*help us). The switch from e-mail to whatsapp makes the interaction quicker and the register less formal. In whatsapp the language variety is more and more similar to the hybrid form described by some of the famous linguists quoted earlier in this paper.

Conclusions

One of the most interesting outcomes for the teachers seems to be the fact that the pilot project transformed the CEFR from a mere scale of assessment for levels of competence and language certifications, to a concrete and agile tool of immediate consultation not only by teachers, but also by students. The request to reflect on the quality of their online communication in a foreign language within the framework of a ministerial project generated surprise and curiosity in the students and in some cases, even greater self-esteem in their linguistic, communicative and relational skills.

It is interesting to highlight how the project helped promote in the students not only the development of digital and linguistic skills, but also creativity, cooperation, problem solving abilities, the so-called 21st skills or soft skills. Online interaction becomes a way to help our students become European and global citizens, developing the global and transversal competences needed to face the challenges of the knowledge society.

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AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL NARRATIVE AND INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS

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Keywords: Autobiography, intercultural awareness, narrative, intercultural competence, language diversity

The currency of intercultural education has risen worldwide in response to increased diversity within societies resulting from migration and global flows of populations. As intercultural education becomes a core responsibility of schooling, the attention to developing students' intercultural capabilities grows even faster. The school and all the educational agencies must find the most suitable tools to adequately address the complex multiculturalism of the third millennium, so to promote the students' ability to understand one another across and beyond all types of cultural barriers. This paper offers a reflexive analysis of the efficacy of using autobiographical narratives for enhancing students' intercultural awareness. Autobiographical narratives have a productive potential as a strategy for stimulating reflexivity about cultural identities and intercultural relations. The *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters (AIE)*, published by the Council of Europe (2009), is proposed and analyzed as a framework that can help students reflect

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critically on specific intercultural encounters and promote intercultural communication situations. 'Intercultural communication' is today a model that allows all children and young people to recognize and being aware of each other's identity, as it is oriented towards fostering interaction, dialogue, mutual recognition and enrichment of any individual, in respect of the different identities of the other; it is an approach that offers a forward-looking model for managing cultural and language diversity.

1 Introduction

Managing Europe's increasing cultural and language diversity in a democratic manner has become a priority in recent years. European countries have become a destination for a constantly growing migratory flow, which has questioned the collective imagination related to one's own cultural identity; this has meant adverse reactions of reluctance, distrust, disorientation, sometimes fear. Today's society, in its multiethnic complexity, is now living a continuous process of transformation that sees the interweaving of different cultural models and which creates the need to guide the young, apparently stuck to their reassuring identity patterns, in order to open them up to a social evolution as active citizens in a system based on solidarity. It is extremely necessary to study and face the variegated and renewed framework of the world of migrants, to establish a set of shared cultural and educational orientations in order to promote integration and educational success for any foreign student worldwide. Respect for, and promotion of, cultural and language diversity are essential conditions for the development of societies based on social cohesion.

2 Cultural identities: interaction and awareness

How shall we respond as educators to language and cultural diversity?

Promoting the development of intercultural competence is a main concern of mainstream education.

The school and all the educational agencies must find the most suitable tools to adequately address the complex multiculturalism of the third millennium, so to promote the students' ability to understand one another across and beyond all types of cultural barriers. Mutual understanding and intercultural competence are more important than ever today because through them we can address some of the most serious problems of contemporary societies.

"A plurality of languages and cultures characterizes the Italian school nowadays" (MIUR, 2012)¹ "and "the analysis of the students' linguistic biographies testifies that different forms of bilingualism and diverse ways of being bilingual are now widespread in our classes".

The task of any educational system is to intervene to guide and help those

¹ *Indicazioni nazionali per il curricolo della scuola dell'infanzia e del primo ciclo d'istruzione*, MIUR, 2012

who grow up in a culture, different from their original one, to find an identity within a new context and to guarantee that those who already live in that culture welcome the newcomers. The school and the educational centers have the duty to take the challenge that the new society poses and face daily educational paths with intercultural goals. ‘Intercultural communication’ is today a model that allows all children and young people to recognize and being aware of each other’s identity, as it is oriented towards fostering interaction, dialogue, mutual recognition and enrichment of any individual, in respect of the different identities of the other; it is an approach that offers a forward-looking model for managing cultural and language diversity.

According to what we read in the document “*Diversi da chi?*”, issued by the National Observatory for the Integration of Foreign Students and for the Intercultural Development (MIUR, 2015), the universalist approach of our school today must measure and combine with the specificities and the stories of those who live in our country and with the transformations of the school population that have taken place during these years. One of these transformations, perhaps the most relevant one, concerns the growing presence in the classrooms of children and young people who have a history, either personal or family, of migration. Global migration processes have also changed schools and are calling for new educational tasks. The speed and depth of such an integration also depend on the school. It is in the school that students with migration backgrounds can learn a co-citizenship anchored to the national context and open to an increasingly large, interdependent, interconnected world. All these children constantly “train” to live in a widespread variety. Finally, it is also in the school that families and communities with different histories can learn to know each other, overcome mutual distrust, feel responsible for a common future. Intercultural education can be the background on which to activate specific training and educational courses aimed at integrating foreign students, in order to transmit the essential knowledge and skills the future generations should be equipped with to actively participate in an increasingly global and complex environment.

How can we help those who have a migratory history to build their identity and find their place in a different context?

The answer lies in the **narration** and in the **autobiographical narrative**, a real methodology of inclusion that promotes self-awareness and other-awareness. A personal and emotional narrative, full of real references, enhances thinking for inclusion purposes. Stories may be entertaining, educational, or cautionary, but Bruner (2002) also stresses their very important socializing and acculturating role. Story, he underlines, is a precondition for our collective life

in culture. The **Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters** (AIE, Council of Europe, 2009) points in this direction.

The *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*² (AIE) is a very useful tool that can represent a solution for an inclusive action in every educational context. It is a concrete response to the Recommendations of the Council of Europe's *White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue* "Living together as equals in dignity"³.

"The learning and teaching of intercultural competence is essential for democratic culture and social cohesion ... Intercultural competences should be a part of citizenship and human-rights education ... "Complementary tools should be developed to encourage students to exercise independent critical faculties including to reflect critically on their own responses and attitudes to experiences of other cultures."⁴

The Council of Europe's mission is to guarantee democracy, human rights and justice in Europe. Today it serves 800 million people in 47 states and aims to build a greater Europe based on shared values, including tolerance and respect for cultural and linguistic diversity. The *White Paper* viewed intercultural competence as a crucial capability which needs to be developed by every individual to enable them to participate in intercultural dialogue. However, it also noted that intercultural competence is not acquired automatically, but instead needs to be learned, practiced and maintained throughout life. Educators at all levels and types of education play an essential role in facilitating the development of intercultural competence (Barret *et al.*, 2014).

"If there is a European identity to be realized, it will be based on shared fundamental values, respect for common heritage and cultural diversity as well as respect for the equal dignity of every individual", (COE, 2008)

3 The Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters

The *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* is (AIE) a resource designed to encourage people to think about and learn from intercultural encounters they have had; an intercultural encounter is an encounter with another person (or group of people) who is perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself. Such encounters may take place either face-to-face or virtually through, for example, social or communications media. They may involve people from

² The *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* (AIE, edited by the Council of Europe) and supporting documents were developed for the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe. (Division for Language Policies, 2009)

³ (<http://www.coe.int/dialogue>), Section 5.3 "Learning and teaching intercultural competences", (Section 5.3), p. 152

⁴ AIE, p.152

different countries, people from different regional, linguistic, ethnic or religious backgrounds, or people who differ from each other because of their lifestyle, gender, social class, sexual orientation, age or generation, level of religious observance (Barrett *et al.*, 2009).

The AIE is a sort of personal diary that helps to reflect on experiences with ‘other people’ who have other ‘cultures’, whether they seem close or distant in time and space. It is also a tool that helps to decide how everyone can and should learn from an intercultural meeting, what actions to take, how one can deepen his/her knowledge and take advantage of an event that has been significant, and how to be part of the understanding of ‘others’ and their ‘cultures’. The discovery of the components underlying these meetings allows those who use the Autobiography to acquire greater awareness of their own experience and reactions, thus developing intercultural competences and awareness.

Those who use Autobiography improve their understanding and other useful skills for their future by critically reflecting on their experiences. They choose to describe specific intercultural encounters they have taken part in, analyze the experience individually and identify different aspects of the intercultural competences they already have, and which become a stimulus to develop others. The AIE is very useful for everyone: it can be used at school or in any other educational context that promotes lifelong learning. It is a tool for self-assessment and personal development in an informal context that can also be valid outside, in formal educational settings.

There are two versions of the AIE:

- a Standard Version - for use by older learners and adults
- a Version for Younger Learners - for use by children who need help from an adult in reading and writing and in thinking back over their encounter.

Both versions of the Autobiography are structured according to a model of intercultural competence that includes four elements: Knowledge and skills; Behavior; Attitudes and feelings; Action.

Here follow the aims established for each element:

Knowledge and skills

- Having knowledge about other people: knowing facts about people whom one meets, and knowing how and why they are what they are.
- Discovering knowledge: using certain skills to find out about people one meets, by asking questions, seeking out information, and using these skills in real-time encounters.
- Interpreting and relating: understanding people or places or things

by comparing them to familiar people, places, things in one's own environment, seeing similarities and differences.

- Being critical: noticing how other people think and act and distancing oneself from one's own ways of thinking and acting, and being able to explain one's judgements about both.
- Becoming aware of one's own assumptions, preconceptions, stereotypes and prejudices.

Behavior

- Being flexible: adapting one's behavior to new situations and to what other people expect.
- Being sensitive to ways of communicating: recognizing different ways of speaking and other forms of communication that exist in other languages or other ways of using the same language.

Attitudes and feelings

- Acknowledging the identities of others: noticing how others have different identities and accepting their values and insights.
- Respecting otherness: showing curiosity about others and being willing to question what is usually taken for granted and viewed as 'normal'.
- Having empathy: being able to take someone else's perspective, to imagine their thoughts and feelings.
- Identifying positive and negative emotions and relating them to attitudes and knowledge.
- Being tolerant for ambiguity: accepting that, because people who belong to different cultures have different beliefs and different values, there can be multiple perspectives on and interpretations of any given situation.

Action

- Acting: as a consequence of everything else, be willing to and able to relate to other people to change things and make them better.
- Taking action: as a consequence of all the rest, being willing and able to become involved with other people in making things different and better.

In short, at the level of action, intercultural competence provides a foundation for being a global citizen. For this reason, intercultural competence

is a core competence which is required for democratic citizenship within a culturally diverse world. Intercultural competence is therefore a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through action which enables one, either singly or together with others, to:

- understand and respect people who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself;
- respond appropriately, effectively and respectfully when interacting and communicating with such people;
- establish positive and constructive relationships with such people;
- understand oneself and one's own multiple cultural affiliations through encounters with cultural difference" (Barret *et al.*, 2014).

The autobiographical narrative is a story about the self. Usually the subject is an important or key event within the writer's childhood or adolescence (Erdem Mete, 2018).

As with all writing, the parts of a good autobiographical narrative are the following:

1. Introduction - An engaging opening; Background information; Hints of meaning
2. Body - First event of experience; People details; Sensory details; Feelings; Dialogue
3. Second event of experience - Specific action with sensory details: use language that appeals to all five senses to bring people, places, and actions to life
4. Final event of experience - Specific movements: continue to describe the specific movements and gestures of characters to bring them to life for the readers; Dialogue; Interior monologue
5. Conclusion - A look back from the present; Significance of the experience

4 Components of the AIE

Below are the *Notes for facilitators* which show the components of the AIE and the main questions the learners are required to answer for each component. These components perfectly correspond to the standard scheme of the autobiographical narrative.

THE STANDARD A.N .SCHEME	THE AIE COMPONENTS
Introduction: An engaging opening	Who I Am (Optional) How would you define yourself?
Introduction: Background information	The Encounter: Title, description, time
Introduction: Hints of meaning	Location and importance of the encounter.
Body: First event of experience	Where did it happen? What were you doing there? Why have you chosen this experience?
Body: People details	The Other Person Who else was involved? (Acknowledgement of Identities)
Body: Sensory details	What was the first thing you noticed about them?
Body: Feelings	Your Feelings How did you feel at the time? What did you do when you had this feeling?
Body: Dialogue	Talking to Each Other When you think about how you spoke to or communicated with the other people, do you remember that you made adjustments in how you talked or wrote to them? (Communicative Awareness) Did you already have any knowledge or previous experience which helped you to communicate better? (Knowledge)
Body: Second event	Finding Out More Was there anything in the experience which puzzled you and which made you find out more at the time? If you tried to find out more, how did you do it? (Knowledge Discovery)
Body: Final event	Using Comparisons to Understand Did you compare things about the other culture with similar things in your own culture? Did it help you to understand what was happening? (Interpreting and Relating)
Conclusion: A look back from the present Significance of the experience	Thinking Back and Looking Forward What conclusions do you draw about the experience? (Critical Cultural Awareness) Do you think other people around you would have the same opinions as you? Did the experience change you? How? (Action Orientation) Did you decide to do something as a result of this experience? What did you do? Will you decide to do something as a result of doing this Autobiography?

5 A case study: a student's personal narrative

The case study which follows is mentioned as an example of the use of the AIE as a framework to write narratives of intercultural encounters within a school context.

The author of this paper, an English language teacher in an upper secondary school, was directly involved in the testing of the Framework as an innovative teaching strategy to develop both students' self-awareness and other-awareness, being a main concern of language and intercultural education.

Following the introduction of the AIE in the school program as part of the intercultural syllabus, content analysis was performed through a case study of one student's written contribution to have an in-depth understanding of the participant's shared reflections.

Bec (invented name) was a third-year student in a Technical Institute (chemistry as specialization) who had just returned from an Erasmus mobility program; she was asked to write a narrative of a specific intercultural encounter that was significant for her. She was 16 years old at the time of the study and she had been studying English as a foreign language for six years (CEFR level C1) at the time data were collected and it was her first foreign language. The narrative was thus written in English as the student felt more comfortable about expressing her thoughts and feelings in the foreign language.

The content analysis of her narrative revealed the following findings:

Who I Am

Even if the section is optional in the autobiography, the student introduced herself:

“If asked to describe myself I usually start by describing my mind and my opinions. I usually define myself as an atheist, a feminist and an art lover. I'm a sixteen years old girl, I was born in Italy, Naples and I can speak 3 languages (Italian, English and French), thought I hope to be able to learn one or two more, in the future. I travelled a lot throughout my life (I've been to Poland, Czech Republic and Turkey), thanks to the Erasmus projects, and I hope to be able to travel even more times. When I'm old I would like to be seen as someone who stood up for the other, who has taught a lot or just who did the right things in he life.”

This background information provides an opportunity for the reader to know the writer and gives contextual hints that reveal that Bec had had different experiences abroad and many intercultural encounters, which had probably contributed to her intercultural awareness and competence. The description

adds key clues on the participant's personality.

The title (Give the encounter a name which says something about it...)

The name B. gives the encounter says a lot about it: "*Language barriers*".

Description

The mixture of subjective and objective details highlights the intercultural aspect that crosses the communicative competence of the encounter: language and gestures help the involved people to know each other.

What happened when you met this person / these people?

"Me and Piotr, (or Piotruś for friends) were on a bench. He was a Polish guy, we couldn't communicate with each other. Through hand gestures and some little words, we got to understand each other. We were so happy that I called him Pierogi by mistake, and that's when we became friends, we were even closer than the ones I could manage to communicate with."

Importance

Why have you chosen this experience?

"I chose this experience because it always amazed me how totally strangers could get to become friends, even when speaking different languages, until it happened to me and it was very funny, but maybe a little embarrassing."

Certainly, the dichotomy between the 'totally strangers' who become 'friends' ... 'when speaking different languages' is strong to provide a dynamic of intercultural awareness.

Who else was involved?

"The whole group was kindly involved, because it was a very embarrassing situation at the beginning, and everyone was laughing at us!"

The attention here is not on the objective detail implied in the question, but on the feelings shown by the people that were there. The word 'involved' is interpreted by Bec as 'emotionally invested'.

What was the first thing you noticed about them? What did they look like? What clothes were they wearing?

The narrator seems not to realize that the question was actually referring to other people, as the focus of her reflection is only on the ‘other’ who is felt and seen as being ‘alone’.

“I don’t remember what I noticed about him, but I do remember him wearing a grey sweater, some blue jeans and white shoes. He was just alone, and I went to talk with him.”

Were they male/female, or older / younger than you, or did they belong to a different nationality or religion or region, or any other thing you think is important about them?

“He was a boy, maybe younger than me, and he was Polish. I think he was a Christian, but I didn’t get to know him that much, we just had a strong bond.”

Bec describes the person in a few words that say nothing in particular: a boy, Polish, Christian (it should be noted that the first thing she says to describe herself was: I am an atheist); what emerges from this reflection is ‘the strong bond’ she feels they had.

My feelings or emotions at the time were...

“I felt half embarrassed and half amused about our accomplishment.”

What I did at the time was...

“He had nothing weird or strange about him, but I usually don’t care about that kind of things, if I want to know you, I’ll skip my dubiousness and I’ll talk to you. Weirdness shouldn’t get in our way when meeting new people.”

Respect for otherness, an important dimension in the Autobiography, is seen in Bec’s words when reflecting. However, the word ‘weird’ and its synonym ‘strange’ together with the weirdness can be felt, heavy in their denial.

Imagine yourself in their position...

“I think that for both of it was a very unusual experience, but for him it was even more difficult, because he didn’t know a word in Italian, while I got to learn some words in Polish and I tried to use them with him. At first, he would have been kind of confused and intimidated, but after a while it was just an overall nice experience.”

Apart from being ‘confused and intimidated’, the overall experience is nice’.

When you think about how you spoke to or communicated with the other people, do you remember that you made adjustments in how you talked or wrote to them?

First thoughts

“I do remember adjusting my English to make it easier to understand for him. I added words in his own language (when I could) and I strengthened the concept with hand gestures. I slowed down my speech as much as I could.”

Because of the unusual nature of the encounter, the need to communicate makes them resort to using the sign language.

Unfortunately, Bec didn’t complete the whole report, she had been allowed to choose, but just her latest reflections close the circle of her insights: the ‘language barriers’ slowly fade away in the silence of a different communication.

The Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters facilitates the individuals’ exploration of their intercultural experiences from a number of different perspectives, language being one of these. Reflection on the role language plays in intercultural encounters, and how language is modified when individuals come from different linguistic backgrounds and adapt or ‘accommodate’ to each other in their use of language, is an important characteristic of the encounter. This may entail that one individual in the contact situation has reached a degree of competence in one foreign language. It may also entail that individuals speaking ‘the same’ language become aware of different varieties within the language. Both constitute a first step towards language awareness in intercultural contact situations. Intercultural competence therefore involves an awareness of the role of language competences in intercultural encounters.

The Autobiography version for younger learners uses the same intercultural competence model as the standard version, but the stresses posed by an intercultural encounter are explored at a cognitive, linguistic and emotional level suitable for younger children.

There are several materials that make up the Autobiography (Fig.1): the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters: a standard version for older learners and adults;

- the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters: a simplified version for younger learners who need help from an adult in reading and writing and thinking back over their encounter;
- notes for facilitators for both versions;

- a document presenting the contexts, the concepts and the theoretical assumptions of the project;
- a reduced version of the theoretical document to be used as a stimulus for discussion and debate with older students;
- text cards;
- picture cards.



Fig. 1 Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters⁵

The main document presents a series of questions and cues carefully designed in such a way as to guide the learner's reflection on a chosen event, represented by an encounter with a person from another cultural group. It provides the learner with a framework to analyze the event and reflect on what he/she has learned in that situation. It guides the user to gradually develop intercultural competences (See Appendix 1).

It is also vital that people's intercultural competence is developed in order to enable them to understand, appreciate and respect each other across cultural differences, and to enable them to contribute actively to societies that benefit from diversity.

Having a narrative setting, the Autobiography has several functions:

- a community function: it enhances membership
- a cohesion function: it promotes shared experiences, emotions, values and meanings
- a playful function: it attracts and entertains

⁵ <https://www.coe.int/en/web/autobiography-intercultural-encounters/autobiography-of-intercultural-encounters>

- a cognitive function: the plot creates models and suggests interpretations
- an identity function: builds a self / us
- a mnemonic function: it saves from oblivion (Amich, 2010)

Therefore, the choice to use the AIE in a classroom context has a double effect: on the one hand it allows to promote the narrator (learner)'s self-esteem - through self-recognition and interpersonal sharing; on the other hand, it helps to promote intercultural teaching, in a context with a strong presence of foreigners of different ethnic origins. The intercultural perspective has rightly established itself in these years in the direction of the knowledge and recognition of equal dignity, of the enhancement of the diversity of which the different ethnic groups, cultures and religions are bearers (Wallnöfer, 2000). As Demetrio (1996) says, "the word 'intercultural' already evokes narrative encounters, different cultures, in this case individualities that come from different nationalities, that tell stories to each other". Intercultural means "mixing up the voices, mixing up the languages, exchanging; it means going back to the ancient tradition of the *agorà*, the square, the market, where everyone goes to bring something and to receive something else. Bruner (1990) contends that cultures can only exist insofar as they have this extended capacity "for resolving conflicts, for explicating differences and renegotiating communal meanings"; and these processes, so "essential to the conduct of a culture," are achieved through narrative (p. 47).

We can use the word 'interculturality' and, even more, of 'intercultural pedagogy' whenever our educational work tends to promote this remixing, this mingling, this new wisdom between worlds, between experiences, between voices, between languages".

Conclusion

Narration has always been used by human beings. Roland Barthes (1982) concurs that "narrative is present in every age, in every place, in every society; it begins with the very history of mankind and there nowhere is nor has been a people without narrative... narrative is international, trans historical, transcultural: it is simply there, like life itself".

The autobiographical narrative is an important tool for interpreting reality and interacting with others; it is therefore a way to find out and understand. In Bruner's view (2002), then, a shared narrative is a source of mutual understanding. The importance of narrative for the cohesion of a culture is great. Bruner's assertions about the functions of narrative are intra-cultural; that is, he is primarily concerned with how stories provide cohesion *within* a culture by eliding diversity (Rose, 2011).

The AIE is an educational tool that, through the narration and the autobiographical narrative, provides the learners with the skills necessary for actively overcome any ‘barrier’ and promote social inclusion. Its use in class implies the adoption of a teaching / learning method that “should accompany the steps towards a plurilingual and intercultural education” (COE, 2016).

Using the AIE as a framework to write narratives of intercultural encounters would be especially useful for promoting intercultural communication situations. By reading such collected narratives, students can increase their awareness about intercultural conflict situations and develop their intercultural communicative competence.

APPENDIX 1

The competences required for interculturality (AIE, 2009)

Respect for otherness is manifested in curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend belief about (the ‘naturalness’ of) one’s own culture and to believe in (the ‘naturalness’ of) other cultures.

Acknowledgement of identities is the ability to take full notice of other people’s identities and to recognize them for what they are.

Empathy is the ability to project oneself into another person’s perspective and their opinions, motives, ways of thinking and feelings. Empathetic persons are able to relate and respond in appropriate ways to the feelings, preferences and ways of thinking of others.

Tolerance for ambiguity is the ability to accept ambiguity and lack of clarity and to be able to deal with this constructively.

Communicative awareness: an ability to recognize different linguistic conventions, different verbal and non-verbal communication conventions – especially in a foreign language – and their effects on discourse processes, and to negotiate rules appropriate for intercultural communication.

Critical cultural awareness: an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries.

Knowledge has two major components: knowledge of social processes, and knowledge of illustrations of those processes and products; the latter includes knowledge about how other people see oneself as well as some knowledge about other people.

Skills of interpreting and relating: the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one’s own.

Skills of discovery and interaction are the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

Action orientation is the willingness to undertake some activity alone or with others as a consequence of reflection with the aim of making a contribution to the common good.

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CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS THROUGH BLENDED LEARNING IN KENDARI OF INDONESIA

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Keywords: Classroom action research, English class, e-Learning, LMS Edmodo, Blended learning

This paper focuses on the problem of class teaching and solutions through classroom action research. The main problem in teaching, namely students are less motivated to learn and therefore their English language skills are still lacking. From these two problems, we carried out several activities ranging from observation, interviews, to teaching in the classroom with the blended learning model, then discussing what had been done to find out the root of the problem. This action research uses the design of "action research spiral structure" advocated by Stringer (2007) which consists of three levels, look, think and act. The results show progress in teaching where students' summative grades are higher than the minimum requirement of completeness scores. This progress is obtained through transformation in teaching techniques by creating student-centered classes by involving them in class discussions, interacting, and integrating LMS Edmodo into the learning so that it becomes more interesting, interactive, and resourceful.

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1 Introduction

In today's digital era, almost all aspects of life have depended on the Internet (Amichai-Hamburger & Hayat, 2011; Choshin & Ghaffari, 2017; Vella-Brodrick & Klein, 2010). In the business sector, for example, goods and services providers must make adjustments to production and marketing strategies to maintain their business life because Web technology through the Internet has been proven to provide convenience and good opportunities (Tanduklangi, 2017). In the field of education, the use of this technology has been very advanced, making it a very interesting conversation in various educational and teaching seminar forums (Nayan *et al.*, 2017; Perifanou & Mikros, 2009). Castle and McGuire (2010) suggest that "e-learning" can improve learning experience because students can learn anywhere and under any conditions during the equipment used to connect the internet without having to follow face-to-face interaction. The concept of e-learning is an alternative solution to problems related to the allocation of learning time in the classroom (Alberth, 2018). However, the existence of teacher as educator in classroom cannot be completely replaced by "e-learning".

The use of technology in the realm of education is a concern of the government in a number of countries, including Indonesia in recent years. Learning through information and communication technology is much more flexible class without having to waste time and to take place to set up a learning process. In a number of studies many educational practitioners have shown positive results towards the use of web technology in teaching foreign languages (Tanduklangi; Alberth & Amri, 2014; Kim, 2009; Le & Witta, 2001; Gunawardena, Lowe & Carabajal, 2001). Teachers and students report that they have a high level of satisfaction with the use of technology in the classroom because online classes are more multi-dimensional, facilitating interaction between students and teachers, neater classroom material organization, and more varied ways of presenting learning compared to conventional classroom use (Roberts *et al.*, 2005). However, the use of "e-learning" in classroom cannot be done at any time, because students still need teaching through conventional, face-to-face model. Hence, the emergence of web based learning; particular blended learning into instruction mode of learning can accommodate both the use of online class and face-to-face interactions, both simultaneously and non-simultaneously.

From the three levels of e-learning, supporting, blended, and full online learning mentioned in Al- Maqtri (2017), it was the blended model that became the focus of this classroom action research. Blended learning which is relevant to the context of this study is a learning model where the teacher combines online teaching and face-to-face interaction in the classroom (Ardana,

Ariawan & Divayana, 2016; Janthon, Songkram & Koraneekij, 2015; Tolj, Leoni & Maslek, 2016). Rovai and Jordan (2004) defines blended learning as a combination of online and face to face to take advantages offered by face to face and an online classes. Similarly, the U.S Department of Education defined blended learning as “a combination of online and in class instruction with reduced in class seat time for students” (cited in Dziuban *et al.*, 2018). In the blended learning mode, especially the use of Edmodo there is several technological features or facilities that can help the mixed learning process include *Note*, *Assignment*, *Folder (Library)* and *quiz* features. With the *Note* feature, a teacher can present material just like in an ordinary face-to-face class.

Based on the results of our observations, we assume that the blended learning mode is a mode of learning which is most suitable to be made in the classroom action research at the state senior high school 6 in Kendari because learning with a full online mode may look heavier for students because changing mode of learning drastically will increase students level of anxiety.

The use of blended learning is believed to increase students' motivation and achievement in learning English, because online learning makes students more engaged of the availability of discussion, comment and chat features that allow students to interact with their teacher and classmates more flexibly (Tiene, 2000). In another context of learning environment, it was found that blended learning increases learning interactions (Dzakiria *et al.*, 2012). Based on the considerations and observations we have made with the participants, we finally decided to take the blended learning mode as an instruction mode in teaching English for senior high school students in SMAN 6 Kendari.

2 Research Methodology

This study has a qualitative research design with classroom observations, interviews with students, teachers and the school principal by applying the action research process: experiencing (through observation and field notes); asking and checking. The observation sheets used in this study were inspired by and adopted from the Centre for Teaching Support & Innovation (2017). Before the classroom action research took place, the researchers employed an open ended form to elicit information on the goals and outcomes of teaching as well as the teaching media to be employed. Later, while the teaching and learning was in progress, other tools were used such as an online course observation template and Online Organization and Design questions. Finally, when considering the course as a whole feedback, the researchers identified the strongest parts of the blended course that contribute to student engagement and found the strategies to improve the course design. This action research focuses on changes of behavior and knowledge of students for six weeks of

class sessions.

This classroom action research combines the theory of pragmatism philosophy, critical thinking and the stem think of interpretive paradigm (Bloor & Wood, 2006). The main purpose of this research is to identify issues concern with the schools, tools for gathering information and finding solution to the problem. The main concern of this action is to improve the quality of teaching in the classroom through “provision of media to make students engaged in a systematic investigation” designing “the right way to achieve the desired objectives and evaluate its affectivity (Stinger, 2007)”.

Interpretivism is the basic paradigm in this study to maintain the reality of subjectivity and guided by a set of beliefs and participants point of view on e-learning media and considers how to implement it (Goldkuhl, 2012). Epistemological idea is how we achieve knowledge by organizing and utilizing the resources or the appropriate technology to support learning.

The design of this study is ‘spiral structure of action research’, as suggested by Stringer (2007) that in action research there are three components:

- See: collect data, determine, and shortly describe the situation/problem;
- Think: search out and to analyze the problem and findings;
- Action: plan, implement, and evaluate.

The process of collecting data is divided into three phases. In the first stage is interaction with students about their problems and possible solutions. The second phase is guided by structured guidelines for interactions developed in the first interaction. The third phase is the stage of looking at their performance, thinking of solutions and implementing solutions. The primary data was taken from evaluation results of 36 students before starting a class action research. The data analysis of this study is channeled through qualitative understanding which requires understanding the feelings, expressions, perception, and English performance of the research participants. The data that has been collected, analyzed in six steps involved in analyzing the data: preparing and organizing, exploring and encoding, explaining the findings classified based on the theme, representing and reporting the findings, interpreting the meaning and validating the accuracy of the data (Creswell, 2012).

3 Planning for Classroom Teaching

There are various different problems occurred during the teaching and learning process. To resolve this problem, first we need to search out the cause of the problems. After knowing the reasons for the problem, the planning is made to solve the problems that exist in their learning.

3.1 Pedagogical Problems

The main problem is that students are lacking motivation in learning English. Of the 36 students only a few who paid full attention to learning sessions in face to face classroom. Students who show high level of interest in studying are relatively showing good abilities in English. While the rest seems doing activities that are not related to learning English such as reading other lessons, talking in Indonesian language with friends and being sleepy. In the early stages students interact through the system, some students seem skilled, but others seem confused and anxious.

3.2 Methods of Finding Possible Reasons

There are various methods used to find out why students are less motivated in the classroom as well as possible solutions to resolving the issue. Being in the classroom action research, students are involved in identifying their weaknesses and designing plans/actions to overcome those problems. Furthermore, observations, questions and answers, record and class assignment are a technique used to find out the reasons for lacking an interest. The method used is “see, think and act” (Reasons & Bradbury, 2008). Meanwhile, the response rate at the beginning of the online assignment was not fully satisfied; only 20 students submitted the first online assignment from a total of 36 students.

3.3 Problem Solving and Strategy for Future

To overcome the above problems, we provide advice on managing the class to make it more interesting and so that students can interact more optimally. Before the class starts, we designed material that was more authentic and contextual. With the teaching topic “News”, we raised the news or events from the earthquake and tsunami disasters in Palu and Donggala of Central Sulawesi which became headline news and were downloadable when the learning took place. From the discussion, it was noted that students should be encouraged and inspired to learn by using different techniques using online learning inside and outside the class which was preceded by the design of material in contextual topics.

In the first week we discussed the best possible solutions with the school principal and the English subject teacher, we determined to integrate e-learning, specifically using the LMS Edmodo platform in 6 meetings. Using LMS like this opens the door for students in group interaction, encouraging them to share their experiences in related topics, motivating them by showing knowledge through Edmodo site. Learning depends on the social interactions that occur in the classroom and the withdrawal from these interactions as a result of high

level of English anxiety which might be the most dangerous effect of English anxiety (Vygotsky, 1978: quoted in Pappamihel, 2002). Class interaction is a major part of teaching and learning where students and teacher ideas are shared.

To encourage students to study more actively and lively, we applied the strategy of talking less, in which the teacher would speak less and let the students talk, interact each other, and activate questions and answers through pair work and small group discussion activities both in the face to face and online interactions. This is what the teacher should do is to design the activities and the contents in the form of communicative web-based learning. This is due to the fact that students feel freer to communicate with teachers and students through the system rather than asking directly to the teacher. This kind of learning environment will help motivate students toward learning. This is supported by a study by Baker *et al.*, (2010) which states that students seemed more relaxed in communication through online learning because they are embarrassed or intimidated when they share their personal experience through face to face interaction.

The same thing we found after many students seemed to communicate more relaxed in online learning because students gave more feedbacks compared with the question and answer session in face-to-face discussions, at least students and teachers could provide short feedback when they are available by simply replying or clicking the like or dislike buttons of each posting.

Regarding the next problem which is the students experienced with less interactive learning. From the results of our observation in classroom, after using *e-learning* students seemed to be more motivated and more focused on learning then before because LMS Edmodo makes it possible to conduct an interactive learning. Through LMS Edmodo the teacher can create and provide online quizzes with instant feedback that increase students' interest in learning. In addition, through Edmodo the presentation of teaching materials can be made available in the form of audio-visual, which makes students feel more interested and proud of in learning English. This learning materials are surely more engagement than it is only presented through textbooks.

In one occasion when working on online quizzes in face-to-face classes, students are generally very enthusiastic and motivated to complete quizzes, even though they are at an early stage. They were allowed to work with their peers or in small groups sharing their skill and knowledge because working on his/her own in the early stages will be difficult for them. While working on quizzes outside of the face to face classroom activities; the results were not satisfying on average. Students mean score on the first and second trial are 30 and 53 consecutively out of 100 total score. But their efforts are still appreciated by the teacher because they look if they were so keen of completing the quiz. This indicates that learning English through quizzes through Edmodo is

potentially increasing student's interest in learning English as well as students' level of English.

4 Action

This classroom action research is conducted in parallel with the regular teaching schedule as practiced by Thorne & Kiang (1996). This program runs for 1 month or four weeks of classes, face-to-face classes and online classes. For the purpose of this study, we chose one of the classes, namely class XII MIPA1 (science students) with 36 students. All students were observed to find out the changes or learning progress. Change in attitudes and behavior occurred when learning was recorded and discussed with the permanent English teacher at the school.

Before face-to-face and online classes run the teacher creates lesson scenarios, designs content and activities that will be displayed through the system. This activity is somewhat time-consuming to construct a learning tool but once completed, it will reduce the burden of the teacher. All face-to-face class material and online classes uploaded to Edmodo for learning purposes.

Lesson scenario for the blended learning activities for 2 hours of study (90 minutes) is shown in Table 1.

For activities other than face-to-face classes, learning is emphasized in the deepening and enrichment of discussion of learning topics. The material includes additional reading, repetition and drill for listening material, working on assignments and quizzes to improve students' English skills. Repetition and drill activities through the system can be done repeatedly without having to relate to the teacher. This is very beneficial for students, because they can carry out enrichment, repetition and drill activities without worrying about getting psychological pressure directly from the teacher. The core material of each meeting is organized into folders in each meeting. With this arrangement the teacher and students can easily find files related to the material or topic of discussion.

Students outside of the face-to-face class are encouraged to do repetitions and drills performed independently. LMS Edmodo assistance in the effort of increasing interest in learning can also be done with the use of digital library feature where all files (documents, images, videos, and links) that have been uploaded can be seen there. Generally, as observed students are happy with this feature. This way of learning is very popular with them because students can get the material for free without paying much fees and energy and are available when needed. So, learning through the Edmodo platform in this class

is much more cost efficient and cost effective than learning through copied paper based texts.

Table 1
BLENDED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Duration	Teacher Activity	Student Activities	Group Discussion / Other Activities	Suggestions & Inputs from the Teacher
15 minutes	Teacher asks the students to review the lessons they had received in the previous blended learning with 80% English.)	Reviewing previous meetings. Enter Edmodo system together		Add or repeat from a review (5 minutes). Seeing the teacher presentation in Edmodo (10 minutes)
45 minutes	Teacher monitors and directs when online learning takes place Guiding students to follow the instructions in the system	Students learn through Edmodo Learning Management System	Students can ask and answer questions through peers regarding ongoing tasks / activities	
25 minutes	Teacher performs instructions in face-to-face learning, and teacher directs the discussion, practice activities	Students stop their activities through online learning and follow the teacher's next instructions	Students carry out various learning activities of face-to-face by peer review / discussion groups / pair / group roles / role play / presentation	The teacher acts as a facilitator who provides direction or additions related to student works
5 minutes	Teacher closes the class by passing question(s) and answer session	Students review their lessons		The teacher instructs students to continue activities in online classes outside of face to face class

4.1 Other Activities

Many other activities as are parts of learning process. The second week after observation we provided training to students on how to sign up or login into the Edmodo LMS with a given six digits class code. The class code is a unique identification tool which is given to students so that the students can get into the system and access lessons via Edmodo.

In the third week the students have already looked skillful in using Edmodo, since then the students can benefit from the system. Activities that attract student's attention are watching videos. As the videos are available on Edmodo page, students are freely to replay them as they need as part of repetition and

drill activities. This flexibility encourages language learners, not to mention poor language learners to do repetition as they wish.

The next interesting learning activity is quiz session which is available in Edmodo or linked to other site (e.g., British Council site that provides hundreds of quizzes can be done by students either in the classroom or at their home as they need). This task can be done by each student independently without waiting for real feedbacks from the teacher because the computer automatically performs these tasks. In general, as observed, students feel happy with this session because they feel like playing.

Other activities that support teaching are various collaborative teaching techniques that take place in face-to-face classroom. After students get an online session during one lesson, then the teacher teaches English to the students by using various collaborative teaching techniques ranging from peer work, group work, group presentation, role-play, and dialogue, making students more mobile than the teaching they experience before. Again, as observed majority of students looked happily doing the group tasks, because with it each of them can share his/her English expressions freely without pressures from the teacher side.

The same thing we found in the online session, when the teacher gave a topic to comment on and discussed using English through online platforms, students felt more comfortable communicating through the “Comment” facility in LMS Edmodo. Even though their expressions, in some cases, in the forms of simple level of language, such as words, phrases, or sentences that are usually truncated but are still understandable.

4.2 Observation on the Use of Edmodo

The observation took place on August 26th and October 3rd 2018. The researcher seated in a corner of the classroom for each 90 minutes blended learning using observation templates in the forms of questions, such as “Are the learner requirements such as [computer assisted learning] needs and/or participants expectations described?” which is adapted from Center for Teaching Support & Innovation (2017) and “What aspect of the course do you see as strengths that will contribute to effective student engagement and learning [motivation]?” developed from Harrison, L, & Heikop, W (2016) cited in Center for Teaching Support & Innovation (2017). One week after the observation activities the research team members met to discuss the observation and conclusions.

The result of observations highlights student’s interest in learning when they are introduced to online learning in face-to-face classes. When registering as an online class member, they showed their busyness in finding out how to sign up and log in to the system. Some students who have successfully signed

up to class show expressions of satisfaction while helping classmates to do the same. Their attention is increasing when they find Edmodo front page display which is similar to the look of Facebook, which they have been using as social media, because indeed LMS Edmodo is also a social media intended for instructional purposes. Then what is their attitude towards the presentation of material prepared by the teacher? Because Edmodo can accommodate various types of multimedia files such as videos, based on our observation students are increasingly showing interest in learning English. Compared to before, they feel seem easier to understand the essence and meaning of the video as the dialogue in English. Before using this media, students' attention seemed less because the activities of English teachers in general only explain the tenses formulas on board and / or assign assignments to students that make learning very difficult for most students to follow. The use of LMS assistance makes students more interested, more independent in the overall learning process. With the use of this media they can decide their own need, plan their own learning, identify his/her own their weaknesses and then freely choose the materials s/he needs to drill to overcome his/her own problems.

The involvement of the students in online class helps them to increase their knowledge in a particular field. This also further enhances their writing skills in English. It is because the variation of tasks from the LMS is more challenging and more varied than completing the task through a notebook. In spite of the many advantages of using the system, some students remain disadvantage from using the system because they don't have learning equipment, laptops or smartphones. In this case, teacher asks students to work in pairs, those who have a device and those who do not have to learn in a social learning environment.

4.3 Weekly Reflection

Through series of reflection activities of teaching and learning using the mode of blended learning with LMS Edmodo platform on August 26th, September 5th, October 3rd, and October 10th the teacher researcher assessed the effect of teaching on learning then considered and practiced better way(s) for maximum learning outcomes of the learners. In doing, self-critical evaluation to adjust what should be done following each class hours of blended learning, the teacher researcher used a diary each time he taught.

The following is a description of reflections of the four weekly consecutive blended classes practicing LMS Edmodo in learning English:

- On the first week of blended class, 12 out of 36 listed students in the class could not get into the LMS Edmodo virtual class just because the students were not used to sign up with class code. To cope with the

- problem the teacher walked around to offer helps to the needy.
- On the second week of blended learning, the teacher experienced with interrupted internet school WIFI connection in the classroom. To solve the problem, teacher asks students to work with their own internet connected device. Teacher sets his device to activate tethering or personal hotspots.
 - On the third week of blended learning, the students work on a number of quizzes on LMS but the time for conventional learning (face-to-face) is seized due to technical problems (internet network) when the learning session takes place. We agree that checking and also doing *back-up plans*, such as providing alternative networks and secondary equipment are some of the things that should have been done before the lesson takes place so that technical disruptions do not disturb the course of learning.
 - On the fourth week of classroom interaction, the students already have high self-confidence to complete the given assignments; learning is more active and more focused than the previous of line and online classes. The use of repetition and training approaches (drill and practice) is done frequently by students at home to overcome and fill their shortcomings without feeling embarrassed.

Here students show willingness to participate or even repeat some material and quizzes. Until the last session, there are still 5 out of 36 students who have not completed the task online until the specified due date. The reason behind that failure is that that students run out of package (internet pulse) and other reasons. In addition, there is an indication that giving assignments online through Edmodo allows students to cheat. Therefore the use of *Assignment* feature is not safe enough to measure students' real achievement. Because of that, the teacher determined to use a paper based test for the implementation of summative student tests.

5 Findings and Discussion

The following is the table explains the descriptive data of students Grades after blended learning is done.

From the table below it can be seen that the summative values of students are in a very good range, namely a minimum of 80 and a maximum of 90 with an average grade of 84,054 which means that grade point average is already above the minimum requirement value of 75. This grade average demonstrates student success in learning English through blended learning.

Table 2
STUDENT SUMMATIVE GRADES

	Value	
Smallest	16.00	80.00
Biggest	29.00	95.00
Average	17,611	84,054
Standard Dev.	2.155	14,900

After this action research is over, it is noted that students at present who are living in the fourth generation (4.0 generation) are more interested in learning in a fun way that involve sophisticated technology. Teachers have to adapt their teaching strategies to meet their needs. Otherwise, they will be left by their students. A teacher has to think about ideas and new approaches to encourage students to attend the class and to facilitate various types of learners with the help of web based teaching. Based on our teaching experience in this teaching environment for a period of one month, we think and we suggest that blended learning is suitable for all types of learners because blended learning is “best of both”, where face-to-face and online learning takes place in a learning session (Bruri, 2011).

Conclusion and Implication

The use of blended *learning* can improve student motivation in learning and become a solution to a number of problems that students experience in learning. Integrating online and face-to-face learning can be taken into account as the best practice to accommodate senior high school students in Kendari particularly and in Indonesian context in general because not all students in city can receive full online learning suddenly. Teachers are expected to be able to improve or maintain student motivation in learning English by integrating e-learning technology into English learning. For this class, Blended Learning can be made as a temporary/permanent solution, depending on teacher creativity in developing learning contents in face-to-face and online classes.

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INNOVATIVE STEM LESSONS, CLIL AND ICT IN MULTICULTURAL CLASSES

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Keywords: CLIL, STEM, ICT, multicultural classes, lifelong learning

This article aims to describe a number of scientific activities carried out efficiently and effectively in English, French, Spanish and Italian in High Schools. Cooperative and constructive methodologies in multicultural classes, the learner's centrality, Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) and laboratorial tasks are the core of these projects. Every student, regardless of their linguistic, conceptual and scientific background acquired and reorganized his/her knowledge learnt by doing in multilingual contexts. Working in pairs or small groups Italians and migrants were able to perform complex and demanding tasks and create valuable digital products. Integration and the acquisition of knowledge of STEM were promoted through the awareness of teenage and adult students' language competences, their conceptual and linguistic repertoire, their learning style and their type of intelligence. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) proved to be a suitable approach to increase motivation, develop the

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key European competences and promote integration. A quadrilingual approach in teaching STEM was the first successful attempt to find a solution to some problems that usually arise in multicultural classes.

1 Introduction

Although CLIL “methodology” was officially introduced in Italy in 2010 (D.P.R. n.88/2010 and D.P.R. n.89/2010), highly motivated teachers have been dealing with non-linguistic subject lessons through a foreign language since 2000 (Langé *et al.* 2014, p. 13). In 2002, the European Council in Barcelona gave importance to “Life Sciences and Biotechnology” and underlined the importance “to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from very early age” and promoting the “development of digital literacy” and “the European dimension in education” (E.C., 2002, p. 19-20).

The Recommendation of the European Council of 2018 highlights the concept of language awareness in the multicultural classes and the importance of disseminating good practices. These aim to better language learning and promote multilingualism by developing an open mind towards cultural and linguistic diversity and the use of digital tools (E.C., 2018). As a result, teachers have been encouraged to organize activities to motivate students and to enhance their linguistic skills through various teaching methods and integrated approaches, including the content and language integrated learning (E.C., 2014). CLIL complies with the purpose of educating competent EU-citizens in speaking their mother tongue and in learning at least two other European languages through a “cross-curricula” approach and its benefits have been widely discussed since its introduction in Europe (Cinganotto, 2018). CLIL has been recommended as a suitable vehicle to promote language learning and linguistic diversity, because the teaching/learning of a non-linguistic discipline is carried out in a context in which a foreign language is a medium to learn contents (Coyle *et al.*, 2010). The presence of foreign students in Italian schools has been a norm since the end of last century. On the one hand, migrants are seen as a resource and are appreciated as carriers of innovation and new cultural elements. Foreign and Italian students have been taught to take advantage of this diversity to widen their horizons and integrate in a multicultural society. Everyone can interact during the lessons speaking their mother tongue and foreign languages to improve their skills. On the other hand, in some contexts, diversity is considered a difficult problem to tackle, an obstacle to overcome, an element of distraction and destabilization. CLIL appears to be an effective tool to promote inclusion. “Communication skills and/or language awareness as transversal themes or competences” should be identified and implemented

through the effective cooperation between language and content-based subject teachers (Eurydice, 2019, p.136).

Teaching a non-language school subject (e.g. Natural Science) through the second language, mainly English, using up-to-date technology and including tailored and catch-up lessons for support, increases motivation, prevents school truancy and segregation and enhances the school's success. In CLIL education, the Science teacher is not necessarily a native speaker of the language used to teach a non-language subject. The CLIL lessons increase the students' exposure to the foreign languages "without claiming an excessive share of the school timetable" (Eurydice, 2017, p. 55). The communication vehicles and the discipline contents should not be reduced or simplified while they are taught in a foreign language. English, German, French, Spanish and Italian for the migrants can become the languages of the entire Science lesson, even if it would sometimes be preferred to interact in the students' mother tongue and to acquire contents through a frequent switching. Authentic written and oral texts are often adapted to the students' needs following useful frameworks. Handling realia in a STEM laboratory or in a Museum as well as using images and virtual materials is more efficient and effective than translating into students' mother tongue. In addition, students express their knowledge, discuss and interact in English while they are cooperatively learning in "social and real-life contexts" (Eurydice, 2011, p. 64). From the perspective of the foreign students, who represent the linguistic minority and are competent in their own languages, the subjects are taught in the official language of the school and often according to "Hard" CLIL programmes (Ball *et al.*, 2015, p. 26-28). The education occurs in a situation of "submersion" where the Science expert, native speaker teacher's target is to help migrants to develop skills in the language and to acquire non-language contents (E.C., 2014, *op.cit.*, p. 3). Language functions and cognitive processes are used to fulfil the purposes of the teaching subject. Language awareness is promoted. Students develop their identity as Europeans and as citizens of a globalized world, overcome the perception of diversity, reflect on some common cultural aspects and benefit from the differences as resources. Giving opportunities to Italians and migrants to share culture and language with their classmates stimulates interest in other languages, countries and cultures, develops multilingual competences, contributes to mutual understanding and ensures that all citizens overcome the barriers that prevent them from integrating and mastering basic skills according to the European key competences (EC, 2018, *op. cit.*). Working in groups, all students can use creativity to plan and carry out projects, transform their innovative ideas into action, to take risks and use their skills to reach the objectives they set. They can experience the utility of turning ideas into practice and in bi- and three-dimensional objects (cultural awareness and expression). Therefore, they can develop scientific,

technological, digital, social and civic competences.

2 Teaching and learning STEM through CLIL

The first attempt to teach Genetics and Molecular Biology through authentic English scientific materials was made by the author between 2002 and 2004 in 2nd classes of the Industrial Technical Institute (I.T.I.S.) at Lonato del Garda (BS). In the context of two granted projects,¹ teenagers were introduced to complex concepts about “Life Sciences and Biotechnology” and modelling. The project plans relied on constructivist theories and aimed to promote the scientific acquisition of the contents, to develop students’ lab skills and remove misconceptions, linguistic obstacles, cultural and emotional barriers, which prevent the literacy in Science (Eurydice, 2011, *op. cit.*). “Inquiry methods, dialogues, discussions, verbalisation of problems, collaborative and independent working and the use of ICT” (*Ibidem*, p. 70) have played an important role in the author’s STEM lessons since her first experiences. In addition, in multilingual and multicultural classes, specific activities in English were introduced to help the migrants reach the STEM aims. The input was rich and comprehensible (Meyer, 2010) and students’ linguistic competences were attentively considered. Materials were adapted for the context. All students became actors in the learning process and built their own knowledge giving valuable contributions in carrying out practical group tasks. They learnt cooperatively and performed experiments in a well-equipped Chemistry laboratory following the instructions of Italian and English protocols. They observed, bred and cultivated model organisms (bacteria, yeast, a nematode and fruit flies), following their development through more generations in order to understand the transmission and the expression of sets of genetic characteristics. They prepared and observed chromosomes, extracted DNA and built models, which they orally described in a video. The students’ lab reports, concept maps and multimedia products, including the pictures taken during the experiments and the visit to the laboratories of the “Carabinieri’s” Scientific Investigation Unit (RIS) of Parma documented all their activities. Forensic Chemistry and Biology were taught through a team teaching “cross-curricula” approach. Additionally, students learnt using the molecular biologists and genetic researchers’ most innovative techniques and instruments. The efficiency and effectiveness of this project were assessed by the evaluation of their digital outcomes, their portfolios, visual and material manufactured cell, chromosome and DNA models, produced using their creativity and sense of initiative and

¹ The “Direzione Scolastica Regionale della Lombardia” granted these projects, carried out in collaboration with the University of Pavia (S.I.L.S.I.S), G. Cenci (Sapienza University of Rome), EMBO (Heidelberg), A. Croce and M. Bianchi (IFOM-FIRC Institute of Milan).

entrepreneurship. Their capability to work in groups during the laboratory experiments and their skills to use the ICTs was also assessed. Moreover, the students' mental representations were analysed before the beginning and after this module according to constructivists' methodologies (Berdardini Mosconi *et al.*, 2003; Giordan *et al.*, 2007). Their initial and final answers were compared in order for the teacher to be aware of the students' ability to overcome their misconceptions, to acquire meaningful knowledge and to connect the new concepts with their correct pre-knowledge and other structured concepts. These students' performance and answers were compared with those of a control class, that was following a more traditional teaching method. The final scores were higher in the experimental classes than in the later.

The author has continued to develop the basic European key competences in Italian High Schools, promoting "conceptual change in the context of science education" (Eurydice, 2011, *op. cit.*), adopting innovative methodologies based on lab experiences, the ICT and CLIL. This approach improved since those years and new frameworks were developed (Barbero, 2005; Coyle *et al.*, *op. cit.*; Langé *et al.*, *op. cit.*; Meyer *op. cit.*). In the Science teacher's first experiences, carried out in Lombardy, CLIL activities relied on the framework introduced in Italy in those years (Serraggiotto, 2003). The colleague, who taught English, was involved to develop language skills through the contents of Biology. Discussions about contemporary social and ethical issues, such as cloning, were introduced through authentic scientific texts. Students' receptive skills (watching and reading in English the contents of authentic multimedia scientific sources) improved during the Science lessons to learn STEM contents.

Communicating in a foreign language involved more migrants than Italian students. Some support ("scaffolding") was necessary to allow students to understand contents. Digital materials about Molecular Biology and Biotechnologies, which were not compulsory subjects in Italian High Schools at that time, were used in this project. Produced in the four main European languages and freely distributed on CD roms to teachers selected to take part in international STEM courses, they compensated for the lack of multimedia and interactive tools in Italian. These digital products were full of images and animations with easy to understand captions, videos and interactive virtual experiments that students virtually performed on the computer following simple instructions in English. The input was comprehensible, multimodal and multilingual in order to comply with the different learning styles and to allow foreign students to learn through the language they understood better. Appropriate "scaffolding" was given during the lessons, so that students could tackle scientific language and solve the problems they encountered while carrying out the designed tasks working in groups, communicating and interacting in their first language. Moreover, great emphasis was given to the

ICTs, to the centrality of students, to cognitive and metacognitive aspects and to the interpersonal skills. Communication, content, cognition and culture (Coyle *et al.*, *op. cit.*) were introduced systematically in Science lessons. The foreign students learnt Natural Science in Italian through a “Hard” CLIL approach based on the “submersion” (E.C. 2014, p. 3) and were assessed (Ball *et al.*, *op. cit.*). Migrants could also use their mother tongue during the tests. Learning by manipulating organic materials and by observing the results of their experiments in an interactive environment, such as a laboratory or a virtual world, allowed students to acquire and elaborate difficult biological concepts and processes. They accessed Lower and Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) to reach the aims of the discipline.

Although in 2004 EC promoted “Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity” through an Action Plan, and CLIL was expected to make an important contribution to reach the EU’s language learning objectives, only few schools understood the importance of this approach. The Institute of Superior Instruction (IIS) in Via Asmara, in Rome, was one of the High Schools where Language and Science teachers were ready to cooperate and promote integrated learning of content and language. In the school years 2007-2008 and 2008-2009 in Via Asmara and in the near Scientific High School “Avogadro”, the author carried out projects about model organisms, cells, chromosomes and genes and taught Earth Science and Chemistry through the CLIL approach in English, French and Spanish. Experts were also invited at school as recommended by Eurydice 2011 (*op. cit.*). Some classes were multilingual and multicultural. Teenagers and adults who attended evening classes in the Professional School of Villa Paganini were also involved. In some classes CLIL lessons were performed in French and English in co-teaching per one hour per week. The CLIL activities, based on the 4Cs framework, focused on content and language and were performed and assessed by holistic evaluation rubrics.

3 Multilingual CLIL activities

The CLIL 4-Cs framework (Coyle *et al.*, *op. cit.*) supported the projects carried out from 2007 to 2009 and 2018. Constructivism (Giordan, *op. cit.*), activism and the most innovative scientific approaches and methods were applied during the Chemistry, Earth Science and Geography lessons (Eurydice, 2011, *op. cit.*). Contents were taught through Spanish, French and English. Students were at the centre of CLIL lessons and built concepts learning cooperatively, performing problem solving activities and lab experiments. The marks were assigned in all classes through open and closed paper-and-pencil tests, taking into account their individual and group products and their portfolios following evaluation rubrics (Ball *et al.*, *op. cit.*). Their answers

to the initial and final constructivist questionnaires contributed to the mark on their report in 2007-09. Mohan and Bloom's taxonomies were taken into account (Langé *et al.*, p. 51-52, *op. cit.*; Anderson *et al.*, 2001). The CLIL lessons were carried out during half of the school yearly timetable. Students were required to communicate orally and to write in foreign languages during the tests, individual and group tasks.

3.1 CLIL in chemistry

Chemistry was taught mainly through experiments, group work, project based learning approach (PBL). Creative activities (inventing and performing experiments) and pair work (reading, listening, speaking and writing) were taken into account. English and French were the vehicular languages in a 3rd class in Rome in 2008-09, whereas English was used in the school year 2018-19 for 22 hours in a 2nd class of the Linguistic (2^{ML}) and for 11 hours in a 4th class of the Scientific High School (4^{ES}) at Colleferro (Roma). The framework was based on the 4Cs (Coyle *et al.*, *op.cit.*), Meyer's pyramid (Meyer, *op. cit.*) and on the most modern methods to develop STEM and language competences (Eurydice, 2011; Langé *et al.*, *op. cit.*; and E.C. 2018, *op. cit.*). Great emphasis was placed on ICT. Students used computers, tablets and mobiles to play games, to interact online in formal and informal ways, to produce webpages, an e-glossary and other digital tools. The positive results (Table 1) increased the motivation and developed a very positive attitude towards Chemistry, a subject that students found complicated and boring before starting CLIL. In the two control classes (2^{LL} and 2^{NL}), the same Chemistry contents were taught in Italian in a more traditional way. These students neither produced multimedia products nor benefited from extra hours in the lab or from the virtual and flipped classroom.

3.2 Trilingual CLIL

One of the most innovative projects was carried out in school year 2007-2008 in a 5th multicultural class (5^{AL}) of the Linguistic High School of Via Asmara. The language of the CLIL lessons was English during half of the school yearly timetable. During the trimester (September-January), Astronomy was taught in Italian, English and in French. During the pentamester (January-June), Italian was used for one third, Spanish for another third and French for the last third of half the scheduled curriculum. Students learnt through authentic texts and videos in the three main European foreign languages. The framework, the approaches, the contents, the assessment methods and the holistic rubrics have been described (Schietroma, 2008, p. 254-255; p. 266-269).

During the pentamester, students were required to write in French, English and Spanish to be evaluated. Sometimes, they also had to translate from a foreign language into Italian without a dictionary. Only an oral and a written test were taken in Italian. Students proved their ability to use the foreign languages to think, translate, summarize, organize concept maps, write lab reports and interact during the group works. Migrants obtained positive marks (Table 1) and contributed to the group production and tasks.

3.3 CLIL approach with adults of the “Istituto Professionale di Stato per i Servizi Sociali” (I.P.S.S.S.)

Without doubt, the most challenging and innovative project involved adults. They appreciated and benefited from learning by doing, working in groups and acquiring Earth Science in the 1st class (1^{^e}P) through English and their own mother tongues (Spanish or French for migrants). The CLIL framework, the methods, the activities and the assessment modality were the same used for the other classes, as described at beginning of paragraph 3. The adults attending the evening courses came mainly from South America, Poland, Philippine, Africa, and Republic of Moldova and tended to attend only the lessons they were interested in. As CLIL activities in English started, their motivation increased. All students attended theoretical and practical lessons in English and Italian. Moreover, Spanish was used with South Americans and French with the Africans. A Philippine student who had found it difficult to integrate in the class and to learn subjects in Italian overcame his linguistic obstacle and reached the highest score (10) in the English STEM test. In Asia, he studied scientific subjects in this language. He collaborated actively during the group works helping his classmates. Migrants benefited in learning some contents through Italian, their mother languages and English. Adults were highly motivated, succeeded in Science and performed better than teenagers of the 1st diurnal class of the Professional Institute (1^{^a}BdP), who learnt Earth Science and English during the one-hour per week co-teaching CLIL lessons (Table 1).

3.4 A synthesis of the results

Table 1 summarizes and compares data collected during the trimester (T) and the pentamester (P). All students answered open and closed questions. The 2^{^a}ML and the 4^{^a}ES performed the same activities in the lab and took the same test. They also described their projects in English. A multilingual test was taken in the 5^{^a}AL. The means of the marks on the school reports also included activities performed and evaluated in Italian.

Table 1
STUDENTS' MARKS

MARKS	Chemistry in 2 ^{LL} and 2 ^{NL} (Trimester)		Chemistry in 2 ^{ML} and 4 ^{ES} (Trimester)		Geo-graphy in 5 ^{AL}		Earth Science 1 ^{eP} 2008-09		Earth Science 1 ^{BdP} 2008-09	
	2 ^L	2 ^N	2 ^M	4 ^E	T	P	T	P	T	P
STUDENTS' NUMBER	23	24	23	21	23	23	20	23	10	15
STUDENTS' MEANS CLIL WRITTEN TEST			6.5	7.62		8.5		6.6		7.6
MEANS ON THE SCHOOL REPORT	6.5	6.04	7.3	7.43	7.04	7.78	6.6	7.0	5.78	6.62
Standard Deviation	1.3	1.43	1.27	1.12	0.77	1.09	1.26	1.51	1.08	1.20
INSUFFICIENT STUDENTS	4	7	1	0	1	0	3	3	6	1

These results show that all classes involved in CLIL activities in 2008-2009 during the pentamester performed better than in the trimester. The results obtained in CLIL tests positively influenced the final marks. In 2018-19, Chemistry was taught in English in the 2^M class of “Liceo Linguistico” and in the 4^E class of the “Liceo Scientifico” without switching to Italian. 2^M performed better than the control classes (2^L and 2^N) and worse than the 4^E, however, their interest and motivation toward Chemistry boosted. The hypothesis that students can learn a difficult subject such as Chemistry efficiently and effectively through English before the 5th class was proved. The innovative methodologies actively involved the classes, made Chemistry accessible to students and increased their motivation.

Conclusions

In these projects, teenage and adult foreign students had the opportunity to learn by doing in groups with the Italians. All students took advantage of using laboratory equipment, and actively participating in innovative Science lessons instead of listening to face-to-face lessons and passively studying from paper books. Moreover, they structured concept maps, produced work and became more motivated in learning Natural Science. The results proved the effectiveness of the adopted methodologies.

These studies highlighted the feasibility of CLIL activities before the 5th year of the High School. Students acquired contents and developed STEM, digital and linguistic skills in multicultural contexts. Literacy and the integration of migrants were promoted. Italians and foreign students took advantage of CLIL lessons, lab activities and group projects. In some contexts, they used their

mother tongue to learn and express their knowledge. Africans could use Arabic in their written production and interact in English or French. South Americans benefited from material and activities in Spanish. All acquired scientific terms and were considered a linguistic and cultural resource for their classmates. Using the Higher Order Thinking skills, they developed cognitive competences in authentic and simulated situations. Students interacted in foreign and native languages to form their own knowledge and create their own multimedia products. Their motivation and interest toward STEM was boosted while they learnt by doing through a foreign language. They became aware of other languages, use and culture and developed the new literacy in the 21st Century.

To sum up, CLIL is without doubt one of the best approaches to promote a positive attitude towards STEM, acquire knowledge, embrace language awareness and acceptance of migrants, promote the discovery of other cultures and the comparison with other mentalities. The future of general and STEM education in Europe is quadrilingual and involves teenagers and adults in a lifelong learning multicultural and multilingual perspective.

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