The concept of integration between language and non-language content – not to be confused with LSP or topic syllabi – is becoming particularly important in the reconsideration of foreign language teaching approaches and in the need to prepare students with a competence that prepares for work and study in international or even domestic contexts where a competence in a foreign language is required. Furthermore, language and content integration in the foreign language curriculum allows for the divide between language and cognition to be bridged, it introduces substantive content which students find motivating and it recognises the existence of language varieties that differ according to the context - social or academic - of use. These aspects underpin the reflections in this article.

Key words: language and content, CLIL, foreign language curriculum.
Introduction

Since the 1990’s the field of foreign language teaching is the subject of considerable reflection as a result of the impact of various factors related to globalisation and the internationalisation of society. Attention is mainly informed by the realisation that European citizens are required not only to know at least three European languages but also that they need a relatively good competence in them. As a result of Maastricht, European citizens are travelling more throughout the European Union and, more and more, this is for reasons not only for holidaying (for which the Threshold Level of the Council of Europe has been considered a sufficient or basic survival level) but also for work and study. These other reasons require higher competence levels which schools have difficulty in promoting. This realisation has led to a reconsideration of current foreign language teaching approaches in order to understand their defects (at least with reference to the current situation).

Since the advent of the new millennium new approaches are being elaborated to take on board the need to promote plurilingualism and higher competence levels. A concept underlying the new thinking is that of « integration » – viewed in different ways according to the focus the single approaches take. Thus, in the Integrated Didactic Approach (Candelier, 2007: 7), the concept of integration refers to the creation of bridges between the different languages being taught on the curriculum as a means to enhancing their learning. The bridges are created through a choice of common and/or parallel objectives, common methodologies and other types of links that encourage the student to exploit his knowledge of the languages of his personal repertoire as a support in successfully learning a new one. Ultimately, the approach aims to promote plurilingual competence (as the Common European Framework of References for Languages defines it, Council of Europe, 2001: 4-5). In the Intercomprehension Approach (Candelier, 2007: 8; Doyé, 2005) on the other hand, the student is taught a variety of strategies which allow him to use the languages of his personal repertoire as support in understanding another language (of a similar language family, e.g., Italian, Venetian dialect, French to access a text written in Spanish or Rumanian) without there being any intention to teach these other languages. Thus, unlike the previous one, the Intercomprehension Approach is not, strictly speaking, involved in actually teaching a specific language.

The above approaches, which Candelier calls approches plurielles (Candelier, 2007), operate integration at the language level, highlighting links that exist between language systems as well as links that can be created for promoting the learning of the language. A further innovative approach which takes the concept of integration as its main underpinning principle is CLIL. Although not strictly speaking a language teaching approach as such, the characteristics of the learning environment that CLIL allows for are seen as particularly conducive to quality language learning. The concept of integration underlying learning in CLIL is not that of integration between languages (as in the case of the « plural » approaches above) but rather of integration between language and non-language content (learning).

1. The foreign language curriculum and the CLIL programme

In Italy today there are numerous schools - for the most secondary schools - that propose CLIL programmes. These are destined to increase as a result of recent legislation which
obliges secondary high schools (Licei and Istituti Tecnici) to teach a non-language subject through the medium of a foreign language (English in the Istituti Tecnici) in the final year.

In the initial stages of CLIL development in Italy, up until 2008-2009, the preferred solution for teaching in the CLIL mode consisted in team-teaching, whereby two teachers - the non-language subject teacher and the foreign language teacher - taught together, distributing their focus of attention according to a planned procedure for the development of the lesson and according to the needs (linguistic/content) of the pupils as these arose. The team-teaching set-up naturally presupposed the existence of the same team working behind the scenes, planning the lesson in terms of procedures, strategies and techniques. Such behind-the-scenes team work was considered effective for the impact it had on the way the subject was actually taught in practice. « Normal » teaching procedures were reconsidered in the light of the language issue inherent in the CLIL learning environment and the roles of the two teachers designated to specific purposes during the lesson. The contribution of the FL teacher in this reconsideration was fundamental given the nature of his/her professional expertise focussed as it is on the problems of language learning, on the skills of comprehension (listening/reading) and production (speaking and writing).

Team-teaching is now far more difficult to organise and the non-language subject teacher will find him/herself alone in the classroom to face the problematical issues of teaching and learning in a CLIL environment. However, even though its function has been reduced, the team as such needs to continue to exist outside the CLIL classroom to better respond to the needs of the school language education goals (CLIL must be considered an integral part of the school’s language education policy, Coonan 2006) and to be in line with the requirements of language across the curriculum (LAC) which designates the responsibility of language development to teachers of all subjects. In this view, the geography teacher teaching through Italian is responsible for the promotion of a functional competence of Italian both for and through his subject. In the same way, he is held responsible for the foreign language when using it as a medium of instruction. In the CLIL situation, this can be made most effective through the promotion of teacher-teacher collaboration based on an awareness that the pupil needs to learn the subject matter without any hindrance from the foreign language medium and that he must also learn the foreign language as well. Teacher-teacher cooperation will rotate around the issues that arise as a result, adopting strategies that can facilitate the learning challenge.

The focus we have taken in this paper, regarding the team, is, however, the foreign language teacher. The FL member of the team can carry out a scaffolding function for the CLIL programme in several ways, offering indirect support to achieving the dual learning objectives of the programme:

i. support for the CLIL teacher with suggestions for teaching strategies or procedures (e.g., facilitate comprehension, deal with writing errors, etc.,) in the CLIL classroom. This perspective is not the focus of this paper;

ii. incorporation of language (learning) needs into the FL curriculum. It is important to stress here that such a form of support must be considered an integral part of CLIL itself, without which it could be considered incomplete.

Our focus of attention concerns the role of the FL curriculum vis à vis a CLIL programme (point ii.).
1.1. The FL curriculum as a scaffold to CLIL: possible scenarios

As mentioned, apart from offering advice and other forms of support for teaching in the CLIL lesson (forms of support that have led to the search for a more focussed integration of teaching and learning, Coonan, 2007), support for learning in the CLIL environment can also be carried out by the FL teacher within his/her own subject, namely within the FL curriculum itself.

The curricular scenarios that can result are different according to the overall aim of the integration that is proposed.

A. Propaedeutic scenarios

Propaedeutic scenarios are those where the FL curriculum carries out the function of preparing the pupils for the CLIL programme before it begins (or even before a specific lesson). This can be done in two ways:

- scenario i: identification and integration into the FL curriculum of language directly related to the subject matter to be learnt. This implies consulting the materials to be used and identifying language forms (structures, text types, genres) which the learner will meet during the CLIL programme. These will be taught within the normal FL curriculum;

- scenario ii: actual non-language subject content is introduced into the normal FL curriculum in the form of content modules to allow pupils to come into contact not only with the language of the subject matter itself but also with the activities used to learn it (Chamot, O’Malley, 1987). The CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) model, designed for second language pupils in the upper primary and secondary level of education already with an intermediate level of competence in the second language, aims to develop an academic competence in the second language. The model is designed around three components. i. a second language curriculum based on mainstream content subjects (science, mathematics and social studies); ii. activities for the development of second language academic competence; and iii. learning strategy instruction (Chamot, et al 1999). This means that the pupils learn the language of the subject matter by actually learning the subject matter itself. Unlike a CLIL situation however, scenario ii. modules have the primary aim of promoting language learning objectives which, with respect to those of scenario i, are cognitive-linguistic rather than merely linguistic, on account of the focus also on learning content rather than merely learning the language forms present in the content.

B. Concurrent scenarios

Concurrent scenarios are those where the FL curriculum carries out the function of sustaining on-going learning in CLIL. Thus, they run parallel to the CLIL programme.

- scenario iii: aspects of language and communication which reveal themselves to be problematic during the lessons are identified and integrated into the « normal » FL curriculum. The ILCS (Integration of Language and Content in Second/Foreign Language Instruction) model (Snow, Met, Genesee, 1989) can shed some light onto this issue. ILCS is a framework for language and content integration that reconceptualises the roles of teachers working in schools where second and foreign language learning goals are a priority. Language and content teachers work in tandem to identify language teaching objectives using two criteria: a. content-obligatory language, language objectives that derive directly from the linguistic needs for communicating information in the
content area (Snow, Met, Genesee, 1989: 206) and b. content-compatible language, language objectives that derive from the second/foreign language curriculum (Snow, Met, Genesee, 1989: 206). The difference is that, whereas in scenarios i.e. ii. the focus is on creating the necessary linguistic-communicative competence for future content learning objectives, scenario iii. focuses on solving the actual language problems detected in the actual lessons. It is clear that a support system for CLIL will not consider the two options (propaedeutic and concurrent) to be mutually exclusive. Indeed, the two perspectives can work profitably together.

- scenario iv: this last scaffolding scenario supports CLIL learning in a slightly different manner from the former. The aim of scenario iv. is to actually be a CLIL module within the FL curriculum, either by creating an extension of the normal subject matter programme already done in the normal school language or by extending what has already been done in the CLIL module of the subject matter curriculum. In both cases the extension aims to consolidate and strengthen subject matter objectives and related language objectives rather than teach new ones.

2. Integration of language and content

The above four scenarios operate different forms of language and content integration. Apart from scenario iv, the main objectives of the other scenarios are linguistic and the language content is identified from the subject matter materials used for the CLIL lessons. What is the nature of the « language content » that can be incorporated? Two models shed a light on the connection and provide indications as to how to operate choices and inclusions into the foreign language curriculum/syllabus.

2.1 Beacco

We have already referred to the ILCS model and to the CALLA model where content-related language is incorporated into the second language curriculum. These models were elaborated with the direct purpose of building bridges between mainstream schooling and second language learning programmes. With reference to the Italian situation therefore, such models would inform language programmes designed to teach Italian as a second language to immigrant children attending school in Italy. A further model (Beacco, 2009), elaborated within the Council of Europe project Languages of Education, makes the nature of the language-content connection in subject learning more explicit. His work enters the heart of the linguistic nature of « other subjects » and as such sheds light on, thereby making explicit, factors and dimensions that remain implicit in the other two models. These factors and dimensions can represent a further guide to the integration of language and content into the foreign language curriculum.

The model is based on the identification of the pupil’s language needs which stem both from the knowledge and competences to be acquired in the non-language subject itself as well as from the way the subject is taught and needs to be learnt. The objectives of the subject require the pupil to learn facts, events, processes, etc., and to master skills associated with competence in the subject matter. Such knowledge and competence (or « expertise » as Beacco calls it) is expressed through language.

At the same time the teaching of the subject makes language demands on the pupil. He is involved in learning activities which entail being in contact with, and having to produce, certain types of discourse, be it written or oral (e.g., listening to the teacher comments, descriptions, explanations; writing notes, definitions, reports, summaries; responding to questions, making presentations; reading diverse texts, pedagogical or authentic, such
as text books, newspaper or scientific journal articles, original documents, etc.,) and which, according to what they have to do, involve a range of cognitive processes (e.g., comparing, hypothesizing, speculating, associating, defining, summarising, interpreting, evaluating, speculating, etc.).

Thus, when identifying the CLIL language content to be incorporated into the FL programme these aspects can act as a guide

![Diagram]

School subject competences | Teaching of school subject
---|---
Discourse types and language forms
Teaching strategies in the CLIL lessons | Foreign language curriculum
Discourse types | Cognitive-linguistic forms
Activities

2.2 Mohan

Concerning the language-content integration issue, reference can also be made to another language and content integrated model. Devised by Mohan (Mohan, 1986), the model, called *A Knowledge Framework for Activities*, also enters the heart of the linguistic nature of « other subjects » and was developed in consideration of the need to improve communication, thinking and language across the curriculum. Underpinning Mohan’s proposal is the realisation that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient to promote language and content learning. The pupils need to possess strategies that help in listening and reading to learn\(^9\) and to be allowed time for exploratory writing and talking, seen as tools for thinking in which *language is used to represent experience to the self in order to make sense of new information* (Mohan, 1986: 12). This preoccupation highlights the importance of the expressive function in trying out ideas and hypotheses tentatively (Mohan, 1986: 12).

Mohan’s model is based on a distinction between practical knowledge, organised in terms of « description » (the who, what, where), « sequence » (what is happening, events, routines), « choice » (decisions to make,... etc.) and theoretical knowledge, organised by Mohan in terms of « classification » (the concepts involved, relations), « principles » (cause and effect, rules, norms, ...), « evaluation » (values, standards, typical reasons for actions...).

The learner acquires knowledge through engaging in activities that require him/her to produce « practical discourse » (referring to concrete situations, objects etc.,) and/or « theoretical discourse » (referring to more general, background aspects) and which, at the same time, require him/her to carry out cognitive operations\(^{10}\). For example, when carrying out a description (practical discourse), the learner might have to observe, identify, recognise, label, denote, localise, compare, ... and, when engaged in referring to « principles » (theoretical discourse), s/he might have to explain, predict, come to
conclusions, formulate, test hypotheses, generalise. S/he will use language forms11 to carry out these processes - language forms that can be incorporated, along with the relative cognitive processes and discourse type, into the foreign language curriculum itself. A learner needs to be able to engage in both discourse types, as knowledge (in Mohan’s view) is composed of both. They represent the two sides of the same coin. Being able to deal, linguistically speaking, with both discourse types means that the learners will be more easily able to manage the practical and theoretical dimension present in the learning the school subject.

In synthesis, both models indicate the important role of content in the effective development of academic competence in a foreign or second language and they both highlight the importance of the cognitive dimension in this development. Beacco’s point of departure is represented by the concept of « learning situation » (the nature of school subject, the learning objectives, the teaching procedures and learning activities adopted to achieve them) to be used for the identification of language needs relating to discourse and cognitive processes; Mohan’s point of departure is represented by the concept « structure of knowledge » and by the construct « activity ».

3. Impact on the FL curriculum

The above models offer a sort of guide for creating a bridge between the CLIL programme and the foreign language curriculum using the principle of content and language integration. The choices made for inclusion into the foreign language programme have an obvious impact at various levels of the curriculum which, in some cases, might lead to a considerable transformation of the curriculum itself in terms of objectives, content, and methodology.

3.1 Objectives

According to the scenarios above, the creation of a synergetic link between the CLIL programme and the FL programme can either be planned prior to the CLIL programme itself or evolve gradually, parallel to the CLIL programme as the latter proceeds.

In the propaedeutic situation, the aims of the FL course can be specified a priori but this will take place in terms which are different to those normally used for planning a general FL programme. The decision to take on board the indications provided by the above-mentioned models (CALLA, Beacco and Mohan) will impact on the aims and objectives of the course itself as they will be more oriented towards the development of an academic, rather than general, competence, or to use Cummins’ term: a « cognitive and academic language proficiency » (CALP).

In the concurrent situation, as the changes are a result of incorporations being made in itinere, the learning objectives are identified as the course goes along and can therefore only be described overall at the end of the course rather than at the beginning. Unlike the propaedeutic FL programme, which could be seen in terms of a self-standing language course whose syllabus is greatly shaped by the course designer’s decisions concerning potential learner-needs related to a future CLIL experience, the concurrent FL programme is more finely-tuned, being tightly linked to the learner’s actual necessities as they occur. The extent and degree of the academic nature of the competence developed results from the needs that are ultimately dealt with.
3.2 Content

The models illustrated above highlight the importance of discourse as a « site » for identifying the language to include in the FL programme: the discourse types that are associated with the subject itself and with which the learner comes into contact: (i.e. for History: articles, pamphlets, documentaries, diaries, political debate, encyclopaedia entries, treatises, stage plays, text book accounts, etc.,) and the discourse types brought into play in the teaching/learning of the subject (listening to/giving explanations, making presentations, reading textbook accounts, discussing, analysing, summarising, reviewing, commenting, narrating, simulating, ..., Beacco, 2009). Single cognitive-linguistic forms underpinning these activities are identified for focussed teaching (cf. note 6 above) so that the learner can learn to understand content elaborated in these discourse types and also learn to produce coherent and cohesive stretches of those discourse types that are required at a productive level (e.g., give explanations, narrate events, discuss ...)

In our view however, rather than taking the discourse type as the criteria for choosing language content for the FL syllabus, it is better to take the activity/task as through the latter, one can not only present input in the form of a discourse type to be read/listened to, e.g., read and understand the content of a report of an experiment (description of an experiment) but also to produce, e.g., discuss the cause and effects of an action. Furthermore, the learning activity will require the learner to carry out different cognitive operations such as interpreting, hypothesizing, comparing, judging, etc. In this way important discourse types are presented, language skills developed and language for thinking broached. As can be seen, although the FL programme does not pursue subject matter objectives, content of the school discipline can be used, in this way, to facilitate and enhance the language learning process (cfr. the CALLA model).

It follows that a FL syllabus that incorporates such indications can look quite different from a syllabus that follows a more « traditional » development especially on account of the cognitive dimension of the language that is explicitly practiced.

3.3 Methodology

The introduction of new language content for promoting an academic competence as a support to the CLIL programme may impact upon the way the foreign language teacher teaches as s/he must deal with language learning content which may be more complex than that which s/he normally deals with.

a. Graduality

On the basis of his distinction between practical and theoretical discourse, Mohan proposes that academic competence be gradually developed over time following the principle of « from less complex to more complex ». In order to do so, he proposes that the learners be initially engaged in practical talk on practical content in experiential, practical, learning situations using, initially, lower-order thinking skills to gradually move on to more theoretical reflective talk on theoretical content in expository, more formal, situations where higher-order thinking skills are also brought into play. In other words, Mohan points out that it cannot be presumed that the learner can automatically
function at the abstract level without some kind of support in building up the language competence to do so (Mohan, 1986: 104):

[...] we should build on the transition between the experiential and the expository. [...] The importance of this for language learning is that it is a transition from discourse that is interwoven with action and observation to discourse where the message is expressed by words alone.

Cummins (cited in Baker, 1996: 145-161) broaches the issue of the gradual development of academic competence from a different perspective. He uses two distinctions which, together, can be used as variables in creating different types of situational complexity of language use:

i. context: in the early stages of (foreign) language learning, language is embedded in a rich context (drawings, photographs, and other non-verbal codes) as a means to scaffolding comprehension and production. It makes up for the lack of mastery in the language. It is indeed a basic facet of the communicative approach. As mastery increases however, and as a means of increasing mastery, contextual support is gradually withdrawn. With reference to non-language subject learning, one has only to compare a text book for the primary school with that of the upper secondary school to notice how the two language styles differ à propos the presence of context. Unlike at the primary school level, the content at the upper secondary school level is, for the most part, expressed « by words alone »14. In this way, the pupils are encouraged to use words « alone » to understand and express concepts, etc. By doing so, they learn to do so. Cummins’ message is to juggle with this variable to prepare the learners gradually to manage with reduced contextual support;

ii. cognitive complexity: in consideration of the fact that in the early stages of foreign language learning the pupils still need to master the basics of the language, teachers are careful about the work they load their pupils with when asking them to do different exercises and activities. The exercises and activities tend therefore to be relatively simple (e.g., focus on one thing at a time, allow sufficient time to do it, etc.,) because this allows the learner to focus all his/her energies and attention on the language item(s) to be practiced or used. As mastery proceeds however, the learner must be challenged more, and be guided to carry out more complex operations through the language. In Cummins’ view, this is an aspect that requires greater attention as foreign language learning objectives tend to ignore this important dimension of language competence. Thus, Cummins suggests that this cognitive variable, together with the contextual variable, should be juggled with to create situations of different complexity and which challenge the learner in different ways:

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1  (- complexity)
   context and low cognitive challenge
2  context and increased cognitive challenge OR reduced context and low cognitive challenge
3  (+ complexity)
   reduced/no context and high cognitive challenge
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b. Task

The distinctions made by Mohan and Cummins offer guidance in how to follow a route for the gradual development of academic competence, synthetically portrayed as follows:
They highlight the importance of learning activity in all this and, together with Beacco, its role also as a tool for the integration language and content into a FL programme. Typical learning activities associated with the subject matter learning can be identified and included in the FL programme, with or without the actual subject content itself.

The concept « task », term used in the foreign language teaching field to refer to a meaning-based activity, is currently at the forefront of attention in the search to identify the conditions for the meaningful use of language. In task-based methodology, the meaning-based nature of task is seen as the ideal instrument through which to teach the language for communicative purposes. Using Willis’s model, a task (and therefore any content learning activity) can be seen as being composed of:

- an objective: the learning purpose of the task. In the foreign language curriculum this will be linguistic-cognitive.
- some kind of input: this can be verbal (oral/written) and/or non-verbal (a diagram, a map, a numerical table, a flow chart, music, a film, ...). It is here that special attention to the specific discourse types can be paid;
- some action: this refers to what the learner has to do with/on the input provided. It especially captures the cognitive skills dimension of language learning (to complete the task the learners are required to reason - interpret, evaluate, hypothesise, etc.);
- an outcome: this refers to a tangible product (verbal [written/oral] and/or nonverbal) resulting from the action and which can show the extent to which the learning purpose of the task has been reached. It especially captures the language skills and discourse dimension of language learning.

A programme of work that takes this model of task as its basic planning unit can more easily integrate the language and content issues that are related to the CLIL programme.

**Conclusion**

This paper has described the foreign language programme in its scaffolding role for CLIL programmes and indicated ways in which this scaffolding can be carried out through reference to work done by researchers in the field. Through this new role, the FL curriculum acquires an added depth, in terms of objectives and methodology, that appears more capable of helping pupils to achieve the kind of foreign language competence that is required of learners today.

For this reason we believe that the foreign language curriculum must begin to see the CLIL programme an opportunity to exploit:

- in the realisation that, as the CLIL programme is destined to have an impact on the pupils’ FL learning and developing FL competence, it is short-sighted to proceed as if the CLIL programme does not exist;
by revisiting objectives and content in order to look beyond the learning of the language in the classroom and envisage teaching the foreign language in preparation for content encounters (historical, geographical, scientific, mathematical, etc.) outside of school. Working in synergy with the CLIL programme will help this to come about.

Notes

3 Http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf
4 Http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Doye%20EN.pdf
6 The situation is different for the Licei linguistici: a first foreign language to be used as a medium of instruction for one school subject as from the 3^, and a second foreign language to be used as a medium of instruction for another school subject as from the 4^.
7 It cannot be otherwise for purely legal reasons.
8 For example, the following skills associated with History (Beacco, 2009): describe, recount, represent data, interpret, associate, contrast, deduce, justify, classify, define, ... Pupils need to be able to use skills with appropriate language forms, in the form of coherent and cohesive discourse.
9 Mohan provides an example of a reading guide to steer pupils around a maths question, p.14.
10 Mohan lists the cognitive processes most typically associated with each category.
11 Mohan identifies the language forms that can be taught to express these processes. For example: classification: words that indicate « this », « that » ; verbs that indicate belonging to a class: « to be » ; nouns that indicate belonging to a class: « a sort of », « a type of » ; verbs of possession « have » ; possessives « his/her » , etc.; making reference to objects (singular/plural, countable/mass nouns, articles); quantity « some », « any » , « two », « half », etc.; nouns of quantity: « piece », « portion », etc., « kilo », « litre », etc.; comparison: « more than », « the most », classification (generic forms, e.g., « the butterfly is... » and « is/comprises/belongs to/goes under the name of ...».
12 Choices are obviously conditioned by the objectives and the competence level of the learners.
13 Such situations can be quite typical of teaching styles in secondary education.
14 Hence, the inherent difficulty for Italian L2 students in the Italian secondary school.

Bibliography


**Presentazione dell’autore**