



Erasmus+
Changing lives. Opening minds.

OUTPUT 1 - A COMPENDIUM OF BEST PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

PAL Project
PARTNERSHIP FOR EXCELLENCE
IN LANGUAGE LEARNING
2014-1-IT02-KA200- 003534
CUP: C85C14000240005

By the Strategic Partnership
March 2017



Apprendimento Ricerca Innovazione



Erasmus+

IPRASE – Provincial Institute for Educational Research and Experimentation

via Tartarotti 15 – 38068 Rovereto (TN) – C.F. 96023310228

tel. 0461 494500 – fax 0461 499266

iprase@iprase.tn.it, iprase@pec.provincia.tn.it – www.iprase.tn.it

Technical-Scientific Committee

Mario G. Dutto (Presidente)

Livia Ferrario

Michael Schratz

Laura Zoller

Director

Luciano Covi

© Editore Provincia autonoma di Trento – IPRASE

First publication March 2017

Graphic design

Tipografia Mercurio – Rovereto

ISBN 978-88-7702-430-5

This publication is available at: www.iprase.tn.it under the menu item www.iprase.tn.it
documentazione - catalogo e pubblicazioni (documents – catalogue and publications)

An ERASMUS PLUS 2014-2020 Initiative

“Partnership for Excellence in Language Learning”

2014-1-IT02-KA200- 003534

CUP: C85C14000240005

This project is funded by the European Union.

The views set out in this publication are exclusively those of the authors.

Neither the National Agency nor the European Commission may be held responsible for the use which may be made of the information contained therein.

OUTPUT 1
A COMPENDIUM OF BEST
PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

PAL Project
PARTNERSHIP FOR EXCELLENCE
IN LANGUAGE LEARNING
2014-I-IT02-KA200- 003534
CUP: C85C14000240005



IPRASE FOR THE ENVIRONMENT



This document was printed exclusively on FSC® (Forest Stewardship Council®), paper made of pure cellulose coming from woods responsibly managed according to strict environmental, social and economic standards



Acknowledgments

This volume is the result of the joint efforts of experts and staff of the partner organisations that contributed to this publication with their specific skills and distinctive features. In particular:

IPRASE (Provincial Institute for Educational Research and Experimentation) (www.iprase.tn.it) is an operational agency of the Autonomous Province of Trento entrusted with the task of promoting and providing continuing education, research and experimentation initiatives that support innovation in didactics and the development of the provincial education system. In order to guarantee that its objectives are fully met, IPRASE works jointly with the Department of Knowledge of the Autonomous Province of Trento and has a collaborative relationship with public and private institutions in Italy and abroad that are active in the fields of education, training, documentation and research, in particular in the area of the teaching of subjects, teaching methods, inclusion, guidance and educational leadership.

Ludowica Dal Lago, Eleonora Rosetti, Elisabetta Nanni, IPRASE staff

Bell English Educational Services Ltd (www.bellenglish.com) is one of the first and largest British-owned providers of high-quality language and education services and has been promoting language training internationally since 1955. It is renowned for its experience in working with governmental departments and state-owned school systems in very many countries of the world. In particular: it provides education for young learners ("Academic English Courses and International Study Preparation"); it develops teacher training including the development of ICT skills, CLIL programmes in upper secondary schools, English for Academic Purposes, and the training of trainers.

Tom Beakes, Bruce Milne

Goethe-Institut (www.goethe.de) is the National Cultural Institution of the Federal Republic of Germany representing Germany's cultural identity around the world and providing access to German language and society. The Goethe-Institut is a world-leading provider of language education services and in the field of teacher training, offering education programmes and teaching materials for German teachers all around the world.

Anna Maria Baldermann, Christiane Bolte Costabiei, Adrian Lewerken, Anja Schümann

NILE – Norwich Institute for Language Education (www.nile-elt.com) is the UK's largest provider of courses for teachers and trainers involved in language education. It has long-term collaborative relationships with ministries of education and education authorities around the world, providing them with educational services for the development of continuing education as well as consultancy and project management for curricular reform, materials development, testing and assessment, education management, leadership and methodology, ICT applications in language education and support for language improvement at all levels.

Franz Mittendorfer, Sarah Mount, Alan Pulverness

We especially thank Ms Sarah Mount for reviewing the content of this publication.

Contents

FOREWORD AND PROJECT APPROVAL	9
PREFACE	11
INTRODUCTION	13
SECTION 1 BEST PRACTICE IN TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES	15
Part A. Didactic and methodological principles	15
1.1 Fundamental principles	15
1.2 Characteristics of good teaching	21
1.3 Structuring lessons and classroom management	21
1.4 The role of the teacher	22
Part B. Best Practice in Language Teaching Methodology	24
1.5 Key methodological approaches	24
1.6 Exemplifying good practice in High Schools	33
1.7 Exemplifying good practice in teaching languages to young adults	34
1.8 Exemplifying good practice in language teaching and learning in vocational education	36
1.8.1 Examples of best practice in Austrian VET contexts	38
1.8.2 The relevance of CLIL in vocational education	41
SECTION 2 CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL)	45
2.1 Bilingual Content Teaching (CLIL) - foreign language teaching or more?	45
2.1.1 Introduction	45
2.1.2 What is Bilingual Content Teaching (CLIL)?	45
2.1.3 About the relationships between foreign language teaching and CLIL	46
2.1.4 Language in foreign language subject teaching	47
2.1.5 Language teachers and CLIL teachers: how can they support each other?	48
2.2 The relevance of CLIL as a model for 21 st Century teaching	49

SECTION 3 BEST PRACTICE IN DIGITAL TEACHING	55
3.1 Identifying needs & opportunities	55
3.2 Canvassing stakeholders	56
3.3 Setting budgets	56
3.4 Organising training	57
3.5 Providing support.....	57
3.6 Digital Tools for Learning Languages	57
SECTION 4 BEST PRACTICE IN TEACHER TRAINING	75
4.1 Activities and procedures for teacher training (Ellis 1986)	76
4.2 Three stages in teacher training (Britten 1988)	78
4.3 The Cambridge English Trainer Framework (Cambridge English & NILE 2016)	79
4.4 The EROTI Model (O'Brien 1981)	81
4.5 Feeding, Leading, Showing, Throwing: Process choices in teacher training (McGrath 1997)	82
SECTION 5 BEST PRACTICE IN ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT	85
SECTION 6 BEST PRACTICE IN SCHOOL NEEDS ANALYSIS	89
6.1 School inspections	89
6.2 Lesson observations	91
6.3 Appreciative Inquiry (AI)	92
6.4 Self-Assessment: example taken from the EAQUALS handbook	97
Section 7 THE PROJECT METHODOLOGY AND TOOLKITS FOR SCHOOL NEEDS ANALYSIS	99
7.1 Classroom Observation Criteria	100
7.2 Methodology – Teacher Questionnaire	103
7.3 Methodology – Student Questionnaire	104
7.4 Methodology – Background Information	105
7.5 Reduced version of classroom observation criteria.....	108



Foreword and project approval

The ERASMUS PLUS 2014-2020 Programme

Erasmus Plus is the EU Programme for **education, training, youth and sport** for the period 2014-2020. The Programme combines and integrates all funding mechanisms implemented by the EU until 2013 and thus provides a comprehensive overview of the available funding opportunities. It aims at promoting synergies throughout the different sectors and removing boundaries between different types of projects; it also aims at attracting new actors from the world of work and civil society and stimulating new forms of cooperation.

The Programme envisages **3 Key Actions**, each with its own title:

Key Action 1 – Learning Mobility of Individuals

- Individual mobility for learning (KA1).
- Staff mobility (especially teachers, head teachers, youth workers).
- Mobility for higher education students and VET learners.
- Joint Master Degrees.
- Youth exchanges and European Voluntary Service.

Key Action 2 – Cooperation for Innovation and the Exchange of Good Practices

- Strategic Partnerships in the fields of education, training and youth and related significant sectors, large scale Partnerships between education and training institutes and the world of work.
- IT support platforms: eTwinning between schools and European Youth portal, EPALE for Adult Learning.
- Knowledge Alliance and Sector Skills Alliances and cooperation with non-EU countries and European Neighbourhood Countries.

Key Action 3 – Policy Reform

Support of the EU agenda in the fields of education, training and youth, by means of the open method of coordination, prospective initiatives, EU instruments for acknowledgement, dissemination and valorisation, policy dialogue with stakeholders, non-EU countries and international organizations.

Strategic Partnerships – Key Action 2

Strategic Partnerships are part of Key Action 2, Cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices. These are small- and large-scale transnational cooperation

projects that offer cooperation opportunities to organizations active in the fields of education, training and youth, enterprises, public authorities, civil society organizations etc. with a view to:

- implementing and transferring innovative practices at local, regional, national and European level;
- modernizing and strengthening education and training systems;
- supporting positive and long-lasting effects for participating organizations, systems and individuals directly involved.

There are two types of Strategic Partnerships, based on the Partnership's objectives and composition:

- Strategic Partnerships for innovation.
- Strategic Partnerships for the exchange of good practices.

In particular, Strategic Partnerships for innovation aim at developing innovative results and/or disseminating and implementing pre-existing outputs or ideas by means of intellectual outputs and related multiplier events. Organizations can establish partnerships with schools and/or European organizations to stimulate the growth of professional skills, innovative educational practices and organizational management.

The approval of the Project "Partnership for Excellence in Language Learning - PAL"

148 applications for Key Action 2, Strategic Partnerships, school sector were submitted by the deadline of April 30, 2014 to the Erasmus+/Indire National Agency. The project "Partnership for Excellence in Language Learning - PAL" was one of the 16 winners with a score of 96/100. All applications were assessed based on the formal and qualitative criteria established by the European Commission for 2014 and applied by all National Agencies. This is a strategic partnership at international level promoting a network between IPRASE as the project leader of a network of some upper secondary schools in the Autonomous Province of Trento, and three European partners that are world leaders in the field of education and promotion of English and German as foreign languages, with a view to promoting Trilingualism: Goethe-Institut in Germany and two institutes in the UK, i.e. NILE in Norwich and Bell Educational Services in Cambridge.



Preface

The multilingualism of regions and the plurilingualism of individuals are an overarching topic that encompasses all sectors of our social, cultural and professional life. Literature has evidenced that there is a very close relationship between one's literacy level in plurilingualism and one's quality of work and social life: possessing proper language competences is a prerequisite in guaranteeing employability and the exercise of active citizenship within the context of economic and cultural internationalization, with a view to contributing to one's personal development and collective achievement (cf. Language competences for employability and growth by the European Commission). In today's Learning Society, foreign languages, mobility and the valorisation of language diversity are priorities for all educational and training policies of Member States and regions.

The Strategic Partnership Project activated a network including IPRASE, as the project leader, together with some upper secondary schools and three international institutes that are world leaders in the field of education and promotion of English and German as foreign languages, NILE Norwich Institute for Language Education, Goethe-Institut, Bell Educational Services Ltd in Cambridge. The Partnership worked to favour effective foreign language teaching/learning processes and promoted innovative didactic planning for German and English as foreign languages, to meet the actual educational needs of specific target groups of learners.

Along these lines and in a differentiated way for different school types, the Partnership's intent was to:

- Develop an operational didactic model for German and English differentiated according to the different types of upper secondary schools (grammar schools (i.e. *licei*), technical institutes and vocational schools), articulated into practices and approaches in order to promote English and German language learning and the knowledge of the cultural, social and value-system dimensions conveyed by the different language contexts.
- Favour innovative approaches, methods and instruments to define excellent models for the teaching and learning of English and German, for the continuing professional development of teachers.
- Support the development of language communication skills (BICS - Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and language skills for studying and working purposes (CALP - Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency); develop forms for extending learning environments, modalities and contents via ICT.

The project was developed over a period of 36 months, during which the partners worked in different cooperation activities for the accomplishment of the three main intellectual outputs (project outputs) and two multiplier events.

In order to meet the objectives mentioned above, the partners performed the following:

- Research activity to draft a “Compendium of best practice in language teaching”. The Compendium refers to the main methodological teaching principles for English and German, good practices in teacher training, in Academic Management and in the analysis of the needs of schools (O1).
- Summary of results in the research activity aimed at defining Methodological Guidelines for innovative teaching that supports excellence in learning German and English (O2).
- Ideation, design and implementation of an operational model for the teaching of English and German as foreign languages. The model consists of a repertoire of educational and training modules and instruments aimed at promoting good practices for the teaching/learning of English and German and favouring the coordination of a school-level language project within the context of the different types of schools: grammar schools (i.e. *licei*), technical institutes and vocational schools (O3). The didactic and organizational model was tested in the schools participating in the project.

The two planned multiplier events in Italy started a process of valorisation and dissemination of the project outputs that can be further disseminated within the organizational and territorial contexts of all partners involved, also in relation to the possibility of continuing and further valorising the cooperation. Our purpose is to give continuity to the partnership established with the foreign institutes involved, in order to support the missions and expectations in actions aimed at strengthening plurilingualism. The work of the Partnership entailed six transnational meetings that were key moments for the accomplishment of the Strategic Partnership’s expected objectives and results.

This volume is the first project output, “Compendium of best practice in language teaching” and it is the outcome of the research work carried out in the initial phase of the PAL project. The Compendium offers contributions about today’s good practices in the methods of foreign language teaching and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in the training of teachers, in Academic Management and in the analysis of the needs of schools. It also includes examples of research instruments applied on the occasion of visits to the participating schools by the project team. They represent three types of schools (grammar schools (i.e. *licei*), technical institutes and vocational schools).



Introduction

Section 1 - Best Practice in Teaching and Learning Languages

This opening section approaches foreign language education from a number of different perspectives and methodological approaches: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Task-Based Learning (TBL), Project-Based Learning (PBL), The Lexical Approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and Vocational English Teaching (VET). Each is analysed in terms of best practice and relevance to the Italian educational system.

Section 2 - Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

This section deals with the relevance of CLIL as a model for 21st Century teaching.

Section 3 - Best Practice in Digital Teaching

This section outlines key technical and practical considerations for integrating ICT into foreign language education in schools.

Section 4 - Best Practice in Teacher Training

This section examines several models and frameworks for teacher training. Key concepts include the relationship between the knowledge needed by teachers and practical classroom experience ('know-how'), different possible entry points in sequences of teacher learning¹ and the variable development of teacher knowledge and experience as an ongoing process.

Section 5 - Best Practice in Academic Management

This section poses some key questions concerning the management structure and processes of schools, and in particular focuses on their role in presenting and promoting each school's language-learning and -teaching ethos, both within the teaching cadre and in the student and parent body.

Section 6 - Best Practice in School Needs Analysis

This section contains contributions to the "Toolkit for School Needs Analysis" and in-

¹ The EROTI Model, O'Brien, 1981.

cludes guidelines for undertaking classroom observations. These touch upon the issue of grading criteria for observing lessons and emphasise the importance of designing criteria according to local relevant factors.

It also includes information about the Ofsted schools inspection service for state schools in England and Wales, edited extracts from an article on Appreciative Inquiry (an approach to organisational investigation that proceeds from positive evaluation rather than the assumption of a deficit to be addressed) and guidelines for institutional self-assessment taken from EAQUALS (Evaluation and Accreditation of Quality in Language Schools).

Section 7 - The Project: Methodology and 'Toolkits' for School Needs Analysis

This section includes examples of questionnaires used for gathering data from both teachers and students in the schools taking part in the project.

SECTION 1

BEST PRACTICE IN TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES

Part A. Didactic and methodological principles

1.1 Fundamental principles

There is no single method in language teaching on which teaching should be based, as there is no empirical evidence that particular learning goals can only be achieved with particular methods, or that certain approaches will lead to the same results for all students (Funk 2010: p. 941). However there is a series of methodological principles that form a basis for good Foreign Language Teaching (FLT). (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 17).

This section will discuss the following fundamental principles:

1. Communication.
2. Skills focus.
3. Student-centredness.
4. Student engagement.
5. Interaction.
6. Promoting independent learning.
7. Intercultural awareness.
8. Multilingualism.
9. Task-based learning.
10. Personalisation.
11. Success orientation (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 18).

Communication

Students' aim is to *communicate* in the foreign language. Exercises and tasks must be designed with this aim in view. This should enable the student to deal with people from different cultures in a linguistically appropriate way. Students should be offered situations and themes that are relevant for their context in the form of communication-oriented lessons. The situations in which the students communicate in the lessons should reflect those that can occur in real life (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 18). The principle of communication has a central significance in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Those who use and learn language are seen primarily as people who achieve communicative aims through social interaction (EUROPARAT 2001: p. 21).

Where FLT is concerned, communication means that students are enabled to communicate using language in authentic situations. Of course this implies the “accessibility of linguistic resources”, i.e. that students have to be able to draw on particular areas of lexical and grammatical knowledge (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 27).

This means not only understanding others and making yourself understood, but also being able to work out the meaning of words or gestures, presenting an argument, summarising content, adopting a position, expressing opinions or discussing the opinions of others.

Characteristics of communication orientation:

- Students are taken seriously as social communicators; in other words, they are confronted with situations that are relevant to their context and experience.
- Situations should be as authentic as possible and inspire them to analyse both content and the language.
- Themes and content are representative of the target language community.
- Learning paths should be designed so that they are as open as possible to allow students to find their own solutions.
- Above all, FLT is oriented towards communicative effectiveness. Formal correctness is linked to communicative success.

Teaching grammar and vocabulary is not an end in itself. Its purpose is to ensure that linguistic resources can be used in communication to solve specific problems (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 28).

Skills focus

Skills focus is a key principle of modern foreign language teaching. It stipulates that the most important aspect is to learn what you can do with the language: to be able to understand other people and cultures, communicate with others, understand and produce written texts, participate actively in social and cultural life (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 144).

Learning goals are formulated as can-do statements. In skills-oriented lessons, students know the learning goals that they are supposed to reach, and know why they are learning, or they are helped to decide the learning goals themselves. They are also asked to assess their own learning progress (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 172).

The principle of skills focus is closely linked with learner autonomy, which means that students are in a position to reflect on their own learning and look for learning paths that are likely to lead them to success (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 17).

Student-centredness

Student-centredness takes into account the students’ individuality, interests, needs and context. One implication of this is that diverse materials and working methods are used, taking into account the requirements of a specific student group, and that the

students are offered a variety of tasks and exercises. (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 29). The focus is on the use of approaches in which the students and their individual learning styles and characteristics are given as much scope as possible. The teacher takes the age, socio-economic background, languages already spoken and interests of the students into account, as well as the extent to which they need to learn autonomously (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 145).

Student engagement

The principle of student engagement implies that students should be involved as actively as possible in the lesson and the learning process: the students move around and are personally engaged in lessons, even to the extent of taking responsibility for tasks relating to the organisation of learning.

This principle has direct consequences for lesson organisation as well as for the behaviour of teachers – who are no longer just conveying information but increasingly giving support and advice to students in their learning processes (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 144). Student engagement assumes that students who are actively involved with the learning topic process it at a deeper level, and thus potentially achieve better learning results. Active students involve themselves in the lesson and develop higher-order thinking skills, asking questions and drawing conclusions, they exchange opinions with each other, they discover linguistic structures for themselves or try to describe regularities. Active students work with more motivation and concentration in appropriate contexts. They develop a strong awareness of what they can do with the language and of how they learn (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 29).

Interaction

According to the interaction principle, students should be motivated to communicate with each other in a social context in lessons through tasks and activities. A lesson that is designed to be interaction-oriented creates as many situations as possible in the classroom in which the foreign language is used by students for genuine interaction, communicating or working out meanings (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 174).

Lessons designed to be interaction-oriented create a space in which the students experience themselves as linguistic communicators. If the students have practised the use of a foreign language in a variety of situations – orally, in writing and even using body language (e.g. using mime or gesture) – it is assumed that they will also be capable of communicating outside the classroom (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 19).

According to the interaction hypothesis, FLT is particularly effective when learners work out meaning as a group. The act of explaining something to a partner makes students aware of the knowledge they have gained, what they can do already, or what they still need to learn. At this moment they may be particularly receptive to new language.

The students' social environment is of central importance for language learning

- People learn language by using it actively in contact with other people.
- The input of the other serves as an example and point of orientation for using a foreign language.
- If there are listeners/readers, students are motivated to say/write something, and to be heard/have their work read.
- Cultural awareness and intercultural competence develop if you are able to recognise something that serves as a model in the actions of others.

A prerequisite for language learning using the interaction principle is that communication is 'real' and meaningful for students, and that the situations in which this happens are ones in which the students want to use their language to communicate.

Summary of indicators for interaction orientation of tasks and exercises

- The content of tasks/exercises should be meaningful for students.
- The content should be based on students' context and experience.
- Content must be interesting / informative.
- When working on tasks, the information exchanged must be new or challenging (Mohr, Imke 2015: *Baustein Interaktionsorientierung*: p.8).

Promoting independent learning

Promoting learner autonomy is designed to support students (in the classroom and outside) so that they can approach their own learning in a conscious and self-reflective way and adapt it to suit their own learning requirements. Decisions and procedures relating to teaching methods should consider students' prior language knowledge and language learning experiences, and at the same time prepare them for learning further languages (Ende *et al.* 2013: p.30).

Autonomous learning describes a learning culture in which the central themes are linked with personal experiences and learning motivation, and develop in learners the ability to take responsibility for their own learning (Ballweg *et al.* 2013: p. 186).

Intercultural awareness

The principle of intercultural awareness implies that language is always embedded in social contexts. For this reason it is important that lessons create learning situations in which students can experience the cultural dimension of communicative scenarios. Similarities and differences from their own communicative behaviour can be observed in lessons, and they acquire knowledge and communicative strategies which they will be able to employ in the reality of an L2 speaking environment (Ende *et al.* 2013: p.30).

The premise is that language teaching prepares people for real situations. In lessons, students learn to communicate and interact in such situations. They also learn that their own perception, thinking and way of communicating can be very different from that

of the people in other cultures. Intercultural competence is the ability to communicate respectfully and openly with members of other cultures, and behave in an unbiased way towards them. Intercultural competence is also a key learning goal in a competence-based approach to FLT. It is still not completely clear how intercultural competence can be taught, learnt and assessed. However, if language teaching is open to intercultural questions and perspectives, it is contributing towards students' awareness of their own cultural identity; this is a key requirement for ensuring that the ability to communicate can develop beyond linguistic and cultural boundaries (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 118).

Multilingualism

If learners have already learnt another foreign language, this can help them to recognise particular structures more easily, and to work out the meaning of words. Prior language learning can help them to learn a second foreign language, especially if they have already been encouraged to reflect on their own language learning and these skills have been practised (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 30).

The principle of multilingualism requires language teaching to systematically factor in the students' prior language skills and learning experiences. Brain research shows that the transfer of knowledge from one language to the next is possible, and benefits the language learner. Strategies are activated and students' language awareness is increased as a result (Ballweg *et al.* 2013: p. 190).

Task-based learning²

In task-based learning, which is closely linked to the communication principle, students should mainly be confronted with tasks that are either relevant to the world in which they live or prepare them for future language activity. They should have the opportunity to discover 'real' questions and answer them in the foreign language. New vocabulary and grammar rules can play a role here, but they are not the focus of interest – as is the case with isolated grammar exercises, for instance (Ende *et al.* 2013: p. 142).

Tasks are all the language-based activities that are grounded in real life. In other words they do not just exist in the classroom: How can I ask for directions? How can I tell someone about a book I have read? How do I write a CV? How do I relate my experiences etc.? In this sense, 'task' refers to everything we do with language, to gather information and to exchange ideas with other people. Tasks are the communicative learning goals of FLT (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 11).

If students are able to complete tasks successfully in the classroom, then they should

² See also Part B, 1.5 for a more detailed description of TBL.

also be able to do communicate successfully outside the classroom. Tasks help the students to understand language, produce their own language and interact with one another in the target language (Mohr, Imke 2015: Baustein *Was ist guter Unterricht?* p. 2).

Personalisation

Personalisation refers to communication in the classroom with a personal relevance. This relevance can be derived from learners' interests, age, origin, school context and much more. Exercises and tasks in lessons need to have personal relevance to the students in order to have significance for them. In this way they retain what they have learnt more effectively (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 174).

Textbooks often require students to deal with situations or contexts which have little or no relevance to them. Since the brain quickly forgets anything that is of no personal significance, the students need content, structures or vocabulary that is relevant to them (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 20).

Success orientation

Traditionally, language teaching worked by focusing on what learners did *not* know or could *not* do – deficit orientation. But it is success orientation rather than deficit orientation that should serve as a central principle for FLT (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 34).

Success means achieving goals, whether self-defined or defined externally. We feel positive when we recognise that our abilities are growing at the same rate as the challenges we face. Successful activity means that we have achieved, managed or learnt something, and we can see our own progress. This in turn motivates and increases self-confidence.

The challenges set by the teacher should not increase faster than the capabilities of the students. This can cause stress or loss of motivation: it results in failure because the task set cannot be fulfilled.

Tasks and exercises should therefore be success-oriented by design. They should show students through examples or models how to solve a problem, or how they can achieve a (communicative) goal using scaffolded help (Funk *et al.* 2014: p. 18).

This means that the lessons and challenges posed by the tasks and exercises must be oriented to the students, to what they can do and have learnt already, to their needs and interests. Students should find that they are able to use their ability successfully for verbal or written communication; in other words, they are able to interact using language.

1.2 Characteristics of good teaching

Clear structuring of lessons: clarity of process, goals and content; role clarity, agreement of rules, rituals and freedoms.

High proportion of real learning time through good time management and punctuality; delegation of organisation; bringing rhythm to the daily routine.

A climate that promotes learning through mutual respect, rules that are adhered to reliably, taking responsibility, fairness and care.

Clarity of content through making tasks easy to understand, monitoring progress, thematic progression, clarity and reliability of results.

Meaningful communication through involvement in planning, culture of discussion, student conferences, learning diaries and student feedback.

Method diversity: wealth of production techniques; diversity of communication patterns; variability of behaviour patterns; variability of methods.

Encouraging individuals through freedom, patience and time; through individual differentiation and integration; through individual learning status analysis and agreed development plans; specific encouragement of students from disadvantaged groups.

Intelligent practice through making students aware of learning strategies, suitability of exercises, variation of methods and practical orientation.

Clear performance expectations through suitability, transparency and clear feedback (fair and prompt).

Prepared environment: reliable organisation, room management, opportunities to move around and room aesthetics.

1.3 Structuring lessons and classroom management

- Lessons are clearly structured if lesson management is effective and if there is a central theme running through the lesson easily recognisable to both teachers and students.
- Being attentive to all aspects of the classroom, with seamless transitions and momentum, helps the teacher to encourage unruly classes to learn.
- If the teaching style is more open, structure is all the more important.

Hilbert Meyer (2010)

Indicators for a clear lesson structure

- Understandable teacher/student language.
- Clearly defined roles for all participants.
- Consistency with which the teacher keeps to his/her own announcements.

- Clarity of task setting.
- Clear demarcation between individual phases of the lesson.
- Clear distinction between lesson phases in which the teacher or students are active.
- Skilful use of rhythm throughout the lesson and keeping to breaks.
- Adhering to rules.
- Incorporation of rituals.
- Energy appropriate to the goal, content and methods used.

Principles of effective classroom management

- Teacher is attentive to all aspects of the classroom (with-it-ness).
- Seamless transitions and maintaining momentum.
- Smoothness of delivery.
- Overlapping of content-related work, regulation of organisation issues and preventing disruption (overlapping).
- Focus on the whole student group at once (group focus).
- Varied and challenging individual work.
- Recognising and avoiding mock participation.

Jacob Kounin (1976)

1.4 The role of the teacher

For John Hattie (2009), a teacher should not simply be a learning guide, or an architect of learning environments ('facilitator'). A teacher must see himself as more of a director, an 'activator' who has his class under control and is focused on each individual at all times.

If teaching is to be successful, teachers must take the students seriously, treating them as people with knowledge, language skills and language learning experience. The teacher's essential role is to create the optimum conditions for learning to take place.

However, theoretical knowledge is just as unreliable a guarantee of good teaching as prefabricated teaching recipes. It is not the teacher's specialist knowledge that leads to the 'success factor'. It is a specific attitude towards teaching and learning, which is reflected in terms such as 'professional growth' and 'reflective teaching' (Krumm: 2014).

References

- Ballweg, S.; Drumm, S.; Hufeisen, B.; Klippel, J. & Pilypaitytė (2013): *Deutsch Lehren Lernen 2: Wie lernt man die Fremdsprache Deutsch?*, Goethe-Institut (Hrsg.), Langenscheidt Verlag, Stuttgart.
- Ende, K.; Grotjahn, R.; Kleppin, K. & Mohr, I. (2013): *Deutsch Lehren Lernen 6: Curriculare Vorgaben und Unterrichtsplanung*, Goethe-Institut (Hrsg.), Klett Verlag, Stuttgart.
- EUOPARAT (2001): *Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen: lernen, lehren, beurteilen*. München Langenscheidt.
- Funk, H. (2010): Methodische Konzepte für den Deutsch-als-Fremdsprache-Unterricht. In: Krumm, Hans-Jürgen u.a (Hrsg.): *Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache. Ein Internationales Handbuch*. Art. 104, Berlin/Wien: De Gruyter, S. 940-952.
- Funk, H.; Kuhn, C.; Skiba, D.; Spaniel-Weise, D. & Wicke, R. (2014): *Deutsch Lehren Lernen 4: Aufgaben und Übungen*, Goethe-Institut (Hrsg.), Klett Verlag, Stuttgart.
- Hattie, J. (2003): *Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence?* Australian Council for Educational Research Annual Conference. University of Auckland.
- Hattie, J. (2009): *Visible learning*. London.
- Kounin, J. S. (1976): *Techniken der Klassenführung*. Bern: Huber.
- Krumm, H.J (2014): Auf die Lehrenden kommt es an, in: *Fachmagazin Sprache*, Juli 2014, Goethe-Institut e.V., München.
- Meyer, H. (2010): Was ist guter Unterricht? Sonderausgabe mit 65 Min.-Vortragsvideo. Berlin: Cornelsen. Scriptor.
- Mohr, I. (2015): *Gemeinsam und voneinander Deutsch lernen: Interaktionsorientierung baustein für Fortbildungsseminare mit DaF-Lehrkräften*, internes Papier, Goethe-Institut e.V.

Parte B. Best Practice in Language Teaching Methodology

The purpose of the following section is to provide a description of the key methodological approaches to the teaching of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), followed by an indication of best practice in relation to these approaches. Each section will conclude with an indication of the appropriateness of these approaches to the second cycle of the education system in the Italian system: grammar school (*liceo*), technical schools (*istituto tecnico*) and vocational schools (*Istituto di Istruzione e Formazione Professionale*).

1.5 Key methodological approaches

English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) arose from the expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity after the second world war, particularly with regard to the rise of the United States and thus of English as the associated language. As the development of more content-specific and specialized types of English grew, so did the requirement for English courses and classes that delivered Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

ESP has been seen as something of a tree, branching into specific areas: (EBE) English for Business and Economics, (ESS) English for Social Studies, (EST) English for Science and Technology. Each of these areas may be divided into English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) – for example that required by a technician in terms of EST – and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) – for example that required by a medical student in EST.

ESP may be seen as most relevant in study environments where the content being taught is most tightly focused on specific areas.

Summary of best ESP practice

Common definitions of ESP distinguish between absolute features:

1. meets the specific needs of the learner;
2. makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
3. centres around the language, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

And variable features:

- is likely to target to adult learners;
- is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
- assumes some knowledge of the language system.

ESP courses are identified as having the following characteristics:

- involving authentic materials drawn from specific professional or occupational contexts;
- related to a specific purpose in such contexts;
- being self-directed according to learners' intended specific contexts;
- based on analysis of learners' context-specific needs.

Note that the extent to which these characteristics apply is determined largely by the variable features outlined above: e.g. self-direction may be more common and more feasible with adult intermediate + learners with some knowledge of the language system.

Relevance of ESP to the Italian education system

As indicated, the basis of ESP is to identify the specific English needs of a context and of students within that context. ESP as an approach is relevant to all segments of secondary schooling. However, it should be clear that the focus of the ESP will vary considerably both in terms of the types of vocabulary and grammar being taught, but also as regards the genres and types of discourse that are given attention. In *liceo* settings the focus is likely to be on academic subjects such as Chemistry, whereas in the *istituto tecnico*, more attention will be paid to the language of business or ICT and to the attendant genres. In the *istituto professionale* the focus will probably be more directed towards grammar and vocabulary, with genres and discourse types given less priority.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

As indicated in the description of ESP, English for Academic Purposes may be seen as a branch of a larger tree. However, given the rise of English as a medium of instruction within university settings across the globe, and with an increasing focus on critical thinking (CT) and study skills across language study, EAP may be seen as an area of language study that is both broadly applicable (e.g. CT) and narrowly focused (e.g. academic lexis for EST). EAP is often characterized as being divisible into two fields: English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) aims to teach students from a variety of disciplines the common elements of language and learning that broadly apply, while English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) focuses on the language, genres, discourse features which apply to the study of specific disciplines.

Summary of best EAP practice

- EAP courses are needs-driven rather than level-driven – focusing on what the student will be expected and/or required to do when studying on their future course in a Higher Education setting.
- Study skills are emphasized and made explicit. Critical thinking, learner autonomy and higher order cognitive skills are given most attention.
- Content is related to academic study (EGAP) or taken from specific academic fields

(ESAP). Awareness of features of EAP is raised through attention to this content and associated texts. Analysis of such texts may form an essential part of the course (ESAP). Analysis and focus will include learning about audience, purpose, organization, rhetorical functions and information structure.

Issues related to EAP

- The integrated nature of ESAP requires the teacher of English language either to be familiar with the related content, or to work closely with those who are. This can create difficulties both in terms of the time / effort required for that collaboration and the relationship for those collaborating.
- The needs-driven nature of EAP can result in a pragmatic attitude to its teaching. There has been a call for EAP courses and classes to encourage students to take a critical stance towards what they study and how they do so.
- With the rise of English as a medium of instruction, questions have arisen about what English should be taught e.g. how narrowly prescribed the lexis and grammar to be used should be.

Relevance of EAP to the Italian education system

As a sub-set of ESP the foundation of EAP is identifying the needs of students, but in this case within the context of academic study. The approach is most appropriate to students within a *liceo* setting. Understanding the types of texts (e.g. genres) appropriate to different subjects, and the types of discourse structures within those genres, is a key aspect of successful study. In addition, recognizing the vocabulary and grammar most relevant to a subject provides a crucial foundation for both receptive and productive skills.

Task-Based Learning (TBL)

To some extent the TBL approach arose out of dissatisfaction from many within the ELT community with the more traditional Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) paradigm. In this the teacher would first **present** an item of language, in a clear context, to communicate its meaning. They would then ask students to complete a controlled **practice** phase using the target language through activities such as gap filling, drills, matching tasks etc. The teaching and learning sequence would culminate in a freer / free practice stage, where students were supposed to undertake a communication task: **producing** the target language.

The main objections to PPP were seen to be related to the *use* of the language. Through controlled practice students may become comfortable with the language, yet still be unable to use it, especially in realistic situations. Familiarity with the form may also lead to students overusing it, or using it without any real attention to its function. TBL inverts the PPP model, engaging learners first in a realistic communicative task and only then focusing on the language they have used, thus responding to learners' actual language needs rather than imposing predetermined syllabus objectives.

Summary of best TBL practice

TBL plays a significant role in a teaching context, as well as in the development and preparation of new courses and content. Lessons work towards target tasks, and the secondary learning targets are defined accordingly. The target tasks are oriented to the curricular learning targets for the relevant language level. The target task is related to a learning unit and presents situations or problems that are supposed to be solved. The target task is as realistic as possible and falls within the target group's area of interest. The target task depicts a relatively self-contained situation in both content and structure, and is student-oriented as well as action-focused. The target task is also formulated to be appropriate to the students, for instance: "You are planning a party, a group meal or a breakfast for the course/class..."

Working on learning units can begin with an introductory activity, possibly to get the students in the mood for the theme, or to identify what level they are at. An introduction or pre-task is designed to activate prior knowledge and prepare students for working on the target task (e.g. a visual impulse with a collection of ideas on that theme, creation of a mind map etc.). Next the students work on the target task in several steps, finishing up with a "product". The characteristic feature of this model is that work on the target task can be supported at every point by exercises covering the required language resources (key phrases, grammatical forms and structures etc.) The thematic area should be finished with a post-task, which could for instance serve the purpose of reflection, feedback or similar.

The principle of student orientation is taken into consideration insofar as there are different types of task and learning channels: e.g. listening to audio clips, watching videos, reading text, writing text, speaking activities etc. There are also opportunities to choose whilst working on a task. This means that students have the opportunity to work on a task in different social forms, for example carrying out research independently or in pairs. The tasks are designed to be really relevant and interesting for the students, and enable them to communicate in the foreign language. Students have the chance to speak about themselves, their own context and their own world through the tasks.

The interaction should be balanced as well. There are three types of interaction:

- Interaction between students.
- Interaction between students and course content.
- Interaction between the teacher and students.

The interaction between students in collaboration should have a clear added value factor (e.g. what can students learn through collaboration that they would not be able to achieve through independent study?).

Self-reflection plays a key role too. The tasks are supposed to inspire the students to reflect. They might for instance reflect:

- about their learning preferences;
- about what they have learnt;

- about the methods used;
- about the learning paths and resources they have tried.

Stages of TBL

The main difference between PPP and TBL is that the latter avoids predetermining or at least prescribing the language to be studied. Rather the language emerges through the task cycle:

- Pre-task – The teacher introduces the topic with clear instructions on what the task will involve. A model may be used (textual or audio) to give students a clear indication of what is expected. Students have time to prepare for the task.
- Task – students complete the task using the language resources they have.
- Planning – students report back to the class on the task (The teacher may introduce reports by other students or by native speakers who have completed a similar task.)
- Analysis – the teacher highlights parts of the texts or reports, to focus on language areas which may be relevant to the task.
- Practice – the teacher selects language which has emerged from the texts or reports as being useful / necessary to the students. This is then used in practice exercises to develop student confidence and ability in this language area.

Advantages of TBL

TBL is viewed as having a much more communicative focus than earlier approaches, allowing students much more opportunity to communicate, in a wider variety of forms and formats. The main context for this communication is a natural task which is both relevant and personal to the students. The language emerges naturally, with the student in control of the process. These features of TBL are seen as making the learning process more motivating and enjoyable.

Relevance of TBL to the Italian education system

As indicated above, the main benefits of the TBL approach lie in its relevance to real-world use of English, and the motivation that this creates for students. TBL may be seen as most readily applied to courses that have most immediate connection to the real world: i.e. those taught in *istituti professionali* and *istituti tecnici*. It will probably be easiest for teachers in these settings to find or adapt materials relevant to their contexts. This is not to say that the approach is not relevant to those teaching and learning in *licei*. The task cycle is seen by many as a key aspect in developing learner autonomy and language analysis skills that will be so useful to students studying more academic subjects.

Project-Based Learning (PBL)

As its name suggests, PBL is a model of learning that revolves around projects. These involve students at every stage of the project process: design, problem-solving, decision making and investigation, presentation and sharing of findings. PBL gives students the chance to exercise autonomy over their learning over longer periods.

Some of the defining features of PBL have been suggested as:

- Teacher facilitation (but not direction).
- Authentic content.
- Cooperative learning.
- Reflection.

However, the diversity of these features, coupled with the lack of any universally accepted model or theory has led to a significant variety of approaches and related materials, many of which may be difficult to combine across models.

Summary of best PBL practice

PBL projects are central, not peripheral to the curriculum

In some approaches to PBL the project is the curriculum – students encountering and learning the central concepts of the particular discipline via the project. In other approaches project work follows instruction, providing illustrations and practical applications.

PBL projects are focused on questions or problems that drive students to encounter (and struggle with) the central concepts and principles of the discipline

In this approach the project is designed around a question which requires students to make the connection between the activities and the underlying concepts involved.

PBL projects are student-driven to a significant degree

Projects do not end up at a predetermined outcome or take predetermined paths. They require a great deal more autonomy and self-direction from students than may be the case with traditional learning and teaching.

Projects are realistic, not school assignments

The characteristics of projects are such that they feel authentic to the students. Such characteristics may include the topic, tasks, role(s) played by student (and teacher), the context for the work, the audience for the product. PBL is also intended to incorporate real-world challenges where solutions might be implemented.

Relevance of PBL to the Italian education system

PBL clearly fulfils some of the key aims of communicative language teaching and

learning, being student-driven, realistic and enquiry-based. A major difficulty in applying the PBL approach is the relative lack of any unifying set of materials or instructions. The approach may be adapted to, or adopted for, any educational context, but the requirement for students to be self-directed over relatively long periods of time will probably make it most suitable to contexts with the highest levels of motivation, i.e. where students are most interested in the subject. This may apply to all three types of secondary context – *liceo*, *istituto tecnico* or *istituto professionale*.

The Lexical Approach

The basic concept behind the Lexical Approach (LA) is summed up in Michael Lewis's view that "language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar"³ and that a major part of learning a language consists of understanding and using lexical phrases as chunks. In terms of teaching this represents a shift away from grammar, as fluency does not depend on having an array of grammar rules to apply to a store of words. Rather, users of language need automated, pre-fabricated 'chunks' of language alongside creative and generative structures and strategies. In this way a distinction is made between lexis, (word combinations in meaningful chunks) and words.

Summary of best LA practice

Successful language use places emphasis on successful communication, not on grammatical accuracy. We use phrases without understanding their construction or constituent parts.

- Grammar is acquired through a process of observation, hypothesis and experiment. Grammar is to be explored, not explained.
- Language activities need to focus on naturally occurring language, raising student awareness of patterns of use.
- Noticing and recording language use and language patterns is an essential part of language learning.
- Opportunities to repeat and recycle chunks of language and patterns of language use are an essential aspect of learning that language.

Applying the Lexical Approach in a class or on a course requires two key approaches to teaching:

- helping students to develop strategies for noticing and analysing patterns of language use and language chunks;
- raising student awareness of lexical structures - collocations, fixed and semi-fixed lexical phrases. Materials designed by the teachers, or adapted from course books need to take these requirements into account.

³ Lewis, M. The Lexical Approach (Language Teaching Publications 1993).

Relevance of LA to the Italian education system

The focus of the lexical approach on raising student awareness of language features makes it very suitable for students at *licei*, where a high degree of autonomy and self-directed learning is called for. However, the requirements of *istituti tecnici* and *istituti professionali* for language that is relevant to real-world situations also makes it very useful in the context of these schools.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is based around the view that the primary function of language use is communication. The goal of teaching, therefore, is to make use of real-world situations that necessitate communication – hence the principle of the information gap.

However, proficiency in communication can encompass a number of competences, including that of saying the appropriate thing in certain situations (sociolinguistic), that of contributing to a conversation in a variety of ways (discourse), and that of recognizing and repairing communication breakdowns (strategic). The materials and methods that a teacher uses in order to develop skills in these competences may vary greatly, and CLT does not adhere to one particular theory or method. However, there are a number of features which may be seen to characterise CLT:

- Activities that require frequent interaction among learners, exchanging information and solving problems.
- Communicative activities and tasks linked to real-world contexts.
- Integration between activities and skills, such that communicative competence is developed in a number of modes.
- Recognition of and response to the learner, placing them and their needs at the centre of the course and the class.

In implementing a communicative approach the following guidelines may be useful:

Using tasks as an organizing principle

Moving away from grammar as the basis for organization of a syllabus, a communicative approach emphasises social interactions, which provide opportunities for students to share information, negotiate meaning and move towards completing a shared goal.

Learning by doing

The suggestion here is that new knowledge and skills are most effectively integrated into what the student already has if they are tied to real-world activities, events and topics. The focus is on active production of language in a wide range of contexts.

Rich input

Outside the classroom, language is learnt in a wide range of contexts involving input that provides stimulus in many ways, forming multiple connections in the memory, allowing for easier retrieval. While such stimulus and input may be difficult to recreate in the classroom, materials and methods used should attempt to do so. This would include realistic samples of texts and tasks, such that students are exposed to authentic language.

Comprehensible, meaningful and elaborated input

The information and input presented to students needs to be related to what they already have, in order to make it recognisably relevant and more easily assimilated. This represents a focus on meaning rather than form. If the input cannot be meaningful to the learner, then it has to be comprehensible.

Promoting cooperative and collaborative learning

Classrooms and coursework need to be organized so as to provide opportunities and encouragement for collaboration and cooperation. Rather than simply absorbing input, learners must be encouraged to respond to it, interacting and negotiating output.

Focus on form

This approach emphasizes the connection between meaning and form. This is in contrast to a 'Focus on form'⁴ which is seen as a more traditional approach, where students spend much of their time on isolated linguistic items. In terms of materials and methods, this approach teaches grammar in context through communicative tasks.

Relevance of CLT to the Italian education system

CLT is in many ways seen as the foundation for all of the approaches outlined above. While EAP and ESP may be taught using methods that are more focused on the transmission of knowledge (from teacher to student) much of the most recent research, literature and teaching materials emphasises the need for students to be developing skills communicatively. TBL, and to a lesser extent PBL, explicitly require a communicative approach to language learning, while the Lexical Approach is based on analysis of real-world communication and language use. It would be difficult to use these approaches without adopting a communicative attitude to language teaching and learning.

⁴ See Ron Sheen "'Focus on form' and 'focus on forms'". *ELT Journal*, Vol. 56/3, July 2002 in <http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/56/3/303.full.pdf+html>.

1.6 Exemplifying good practice in High Schools

The standard approach in most European high schools to the teaching of English is to work through published course books which are tagged with the Common European Framework of Reference levels A1-C2, although in practice school students rarely get above B2 level. The books set out different syllabi which may include ones for grammar, lexis, the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), phonology, function and topic. In a lot of coursebooks authors are very aware of the need to incorporate learner training and cross-cultural awareness.

The general tenor around Europe currently is to adopt a broadly communicative or interactive approach. Students are encouraged to become more active in the classroom through increased use of pair and group work to communicate with each other in a more authentic and realistic manner. Grammatical and lexical input is often provided through semi-authentic or fully authentic listening or reading texts. Skills development is a key area; in addition to acquiring a knowledge of grammar and lexis, students are trained to be able to communicate in English and carry out tasks according to their level (see section on CLT p. 31).

Several of the 'methodologies' mentioned above fit easily into this framework (Task Based Learning, Project Based Learning, The Lexical Approach), as they are broadly 'communicative' in nature. However, it is up to individual teachers and their teaching styles to adopt classroom techniques that they are happy with and correspond to the needs, learning style and prevailing culture of their context. A prescriptive approach should be avoided.

Formative assessment is essential so that student progress can be measured and monitored and remedial action taken at an early stage where necessary. Summative assessment is also important so that students can see their own progress at the end of the year. It is crucial that summative testing is in itself communicative in nature and typically might include listening and reading comprehension, authentic writing tasks, speaking activities as well as knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. This always has a considerable washback effect on the teaching; if, for example, speaking is included in the end of year test then teachers will ensure that students get authentic speaking opportunities in the classroom.

It is becoming more common for secondary schools in Europe to offer fully accredited exams such as those offered by Cambridge English Language Assessment or Goethe-Institut as follows:

Key English Test (KET) / Goethe-Zertifikat A2	A2 level
Preliminary English Test (PET) / Goethe-Zertifikat B1	B1 level
First Certificate in English (FCE) / Goethe-Zertifikat B2	B2 level
Advanced English (CAE) / Goethe-Zertifikat C1	C1 level

In addition to assessment of learning, another aspect of quality assurance is the assessment of teaching. This is usually carried out by senior members of staff (heads,

heads of department, heads of year) through classroom observation, using criteria similar to those outlined in section 6.2. Feedback from students is an additional tool for feedback on the quality of teaching but this is a more contentious issue.

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is also being considered more and more in secondary schools. In the UK, for example, teachers have five in-service training (INSET) days every year where attendance is compulsory. In some schools teachers have taken part in additional professional development activities such as:

- Mentoring.
- Team teaching.
- Joint planning.
- Materials sharing.
- Ideas swap.
- Developmental observations and reflection.

CPD ensures the development of teachers which in turn impacts on the quality of teaching and learning in the organisation. (CPD will be addressed in greater detail in Output 2.)

1.7 Exemplifying good practice in teaching languages to young adults

Young people have specific learning behaviours because of their stage of life and development. Recommendations for teaching young people can be deduced from this, though these recommendations are in principle transferrable to other age groups.

Task based learning

Young people in particular are far more motivated to learn if the themes and tasks of the lesson have relevance to the world in which they live (e.g. content such as friendship, love, future plans), and if they see how they can use their foreign language skills.

Feedback on learning results

Young people should receive frequent feedback on their learning behaviour so that they have a point of reference for their personal learning results thanks to this endorsement (or criticism). This is particularly important for young people because they are often unsure of their own skills because their self-confidence is relatively low. For this reason, feedback should not just be given in the context of performance monitoring but should also play a role in day-to-day teaching.

Movement in lessons

Exercises involving physical movement in lessons can counteract sleepiness and passivity in youngsters. Changes to their group dynamics in the classroom can also help the young students cooperate more actively.

Clear lesson structure

Pupils can follow the teaching content more effectively if lessons are well structured. It also helps the students if they are provided with a summary of the upcoming lesson (for instance by displaying an overview on the board). An outline of the previous lesson can also be very useful at the start.

Common rules

Clear rules and routines should be put in place for lessons to give students a feeling of continuity and therefore security during lessons. In this context rules are more readily accepted by young people, and also actually followed, if they are allowed to help decide the rules themselves, and as a result are given the feeling that their own needs have been taken into account.

Anxiety-free learning atmosphere

Feeling anxious about speaking in front of the class is something that happens at the onset of puberty for many youngsters. Although public speaking anxiety can occur in all age groups, it is particularly pronounced in young people because of low self-confidence and their strong orientation towards peers, which results in insecurity. Because of this it is important to create a pleasant, anxiety-free learning atmosphere in the classroom. Students should also be given help to reduce their public speaking anxiety.

Selecting themes according to interests

The interests of the students, rather than the teacher, should be taken into account when determining the choice of lesson theme. Furthermore themes that particularly concern young people in this phase should be included (such as plans for the future, breaking away from the parental home, friendship and love). But it isn't just the choice of theme; it is also the way in which it is introduced or presented that plays a key role for young people.

Lesson content depending on the time of day

Particularly challenging lesson content should if possible be timetabled for late morning, because young people can concentrate better at this time than they can early in the morning. By the same token big and significant tests should not be written first thing but during the course of the morning.

Planning support

Since youngsters can quickly lose track when they are preparing for performance monitoring, it is a good idea to support them with this. This could be in the form of step-by-step learning timetables, for instance.

Visual learning aids

It is a great help to young people if teachers use the smartboard, whiteboard or similar, for example to write out tasks during the lesson. This provides a reminder for the less attentive students too.

1.8 Exemplifying good practice in language teaching and learning in vocational education

Learning outcomes for the teaching and learning of English in Vocational Education contexts should be informed by a clear set of competencies directly informed by current workplace practices, equipment and operating procedures, as well as by the CEFR. This in turn requires close collaboration with a range of occupational and professional employers to ensure that curricula are up to date and fit for purpose (See *English for the World of Work: Features of an Innovative Project* by Ruxandra Popovici and Rod Bolitho for an innovative needs analysis procedure involving employers and educators in collaboration). Industrial collaboration should also be sought in other ways, such as providing apprenticeship opportunities during the course of study. Switzerland for example, has one of the most successful Vocational English Teaching (VET) systems in Europe, where students study part-time at the educational institution while working in an internship in the relevant industry, and are regularly visited and assessed on the job. This increases dialogue and information flow between education and industry while providing valuable real-world experience for learners, as well as an income-generating opportunity for the students. Learners' workplace skills and communicative ability should be assessed together, preferably through direct forms of assessment of productive skills rather than multi-choice tests. This will ensure assessment of what learners can *do*, rather than what they may or may not *know*.

This emphasis on 'doing' is important to carry into the classroom. Teaching methodologies that are learning- and learner-centred, such as problem- and project-based learning based on real situations and actions in the target field, content-based activities that are discovery-oriented, integration of 21st Century Skills⁵ training and fostering of employability skills, are likely to produce more rounded workers better able to function effectively in the workplace. This requires development of flexible materials for the teacher to draw on and adapt as appropriate, that that are subject- and context-specific.

Certain classroom skills are seen as gaining more positive results than others (See *City & Guilds* for a distilled approach to vocational education in the UK). Denman, Tanner & DeGraaff (2013) found that the following were most favoured by learners and teachers in Dutch vocational secondary schools:

- Short, practical, hands-on activities, with lots of variety and communication between students in English.
- Creative tasks, where they can make things or write and speak in English and put something of their own personalities into the results.
- An element of choice.
- Lessons with surprises: the predictable is seen as boring and unhelpful.
- Use of authentic materials.

⁵ For definitions and exemplification, see http://www.imls.gov/about/21st_century_skills_list.aspx.

- Taking notes.
- Repeating and recycling material in different ways.
- Working in groups and pairs.
- Purposeful games and puzzles.
- Finding things out for themselves.
- Projects.
- Making things (e.g. a poster, cookery, a film).
- Discovery activities (web searches, research projects, analysing texts).
- Doing presentations.
- Taking English into the wider world:
 1. Use of popular media such as television and the internet.
 2. Hosting native speakers in the classroom.
 3. Trips abroad or exchanges.

It is very important to include a strong research element into any new programme. Changes implemented should be based on research conducted into the needs of those within the context, as well as those of the major stakeholders concerned with it. Both encouraging teachers to research and publish their findings about their own contexts, and incorporating a rigorous quality assurance framework with associated monitoring and evaluation procedures into the project from the outset will increase chances of real change happening on the ground. It should be noted here that a sophisticated support system for teachers and teacher educators will need to be designed and implemented in order to support the change process and better enable transfer of skills from training course to classroom.

References

- Denman, J., Tanner, R.L. & Graaff, R. de (2013): CLIL in junior vocational secondary education: Challenges and opportunities for teaching and learning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(3), 285-300.
- Governul Romaniei (undated). Auxiliare curriculare limba engleza-agroturism si turism rural. Available online at <http://www.edu.ro/index.php/articles/c1096/>.
- Lucas, B., Spencer, E. & Claxton, G. (2012): How to teach vocational education: A theory of vocational education. City & Guilds Centre for Skill Development.
- Popovici, R. & Bolitho, R. (2014): English for the world of work: Features of an innovative project. In S. Borg (Ed) (2014) *British Council Regional Policy Dialogues 2013-14*. British Council: London, pp. 15-17. Available online at http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/bc_regionalpolicydialogues_baja.pdf.
- UKNARIC.org (2015): Technical and Vocational Education and Training in Turkey – Part 2 Posted: December 17, 2015. Available online at <https://uknaric.org/2015/12/17/technical-and-vocational-education-and-training-in-turkey-part-2/>.

1.8.1 Examples of best practice in Austrian VET contexts⁶

This section outlines two examples of best practice in Vocational Education and Training (VET)⁷ in Austrian schools, both founded on the principle of authenticity of context and task. In each case the methods are described in terms of key activities and perceived strengths and weaknesses. There is also a brief description of a national VET language contest.

Training Firms (aka Practice Firms or Virtual Businesses)

Aims

The training firm allows for true-to-business practice and professional and didactic reappraisal. This simulation of economic reality supports the trainees' creativity, self-starting qualities, entrepreneurship, responsibility and teamwork, as well as the development of relevant language skills. The activities listed below are set in the context of a virtual company which is part of a national network of practice firms called ACT – www.act.at (ACT represents the Austrian practice firms in the international umbrella organisation EUROPEN - PEN International - <http://cms.europen.info/>).

Key activities

- Business-related correspondence.
- Filing.
- Use of telephone and ICT.
- Office work, including use of graphic software.
- Design of and production of PR materials.
- Preparing and giving presentations.
- Dealing with customers, suppliers, business partners.
- Buying and selling.
- Importing and exporting.

Perceived strengths

- Hands-on experience in a virtual professional setting.
- Learners come to appreciate real-life tasks and procedures, both individually and in teamwork and project groups.
- Work is both process- and outcome- oriented.
- Some 80% of the Austrian practice firms have a 'real' partner in the field.
- Renowned real-life enterprises sponsor office supplies and technology, let students have their catalogues or samples, or invite the students to visit their enterprise.

⁶ Data supplied by Franz Mittendorfer, Centre for Vocationally Oriented Language Education, Federal Ministry for Education, Arts and Culture, Vienna, Austria.

⁷ This acronym is also often used for Vocational English Teaching.

Perceived weaknesses

- Requires great flexibility and perseverance both from the providing institutions and from the learners.
- May be difficult to maintain motivation which, initially, tends to be exceptionally high.
- Foreign language competence is key, as is the training and learning effect in the scenario of a training firm.
- Conscious cross-referencing required between training firm proceedings and “regular” language tuition.

International Communication for Business Purposes

This programme was designed for learners at Austrian Upper Secondary Colleges for Occupations in the Social and Services Sector (*Humanberufliche Schulen*) aged 16-19 (the last 3 years of the colleges’ 5-year programme). It has been very popular since its launch, with a range of variations (e.g. focussing on a particular professional field such as tourism, rather than targeting general professional awareness, attitudes and skills). There are reasonably encouraging prospects as long as the programme is successfully promoted in the professional world.

Aims

- To raise awareness of and insight into economic systems, structures and processes at regional, national and international levels.
- To systematically develop intercultural awareness and intercultural competence among learners.
- To systematically develop and practise communication skills in two foreign languages (at different levels) with a focus on communication routines in selected professional environments (office, front desk, PR, tourism).
- To apply information technology as appropriate.
- To focus on successful transfer of information, customer orientation and problem solving competences.
- To employ knowledge and skills acquired in main-suite subjects (business studies, accountancy, media studies, information and communication technology, service and catering, customer care) in a foreign language environment.
- To establish and make use of links with authentic professional environments.

Key activities

- A wide range of learning and practising processes are employed with a strong focus on interactivity, and an explicit orientation towards problem-solving and soft skills.
- Classroom-based learning is combined with authentic / quasi-authentic professional tasks and challenges.
- The “subject” is taught by linguists (with occasional consultation of content teachers), the prime focus is on **language development in two foreign languages** (targeting English B2, combined with French/Italian/Spanish B1).

- Practical experience in internships is obligatory - learners are strongly encouraged to do their practical training abroad.
- The “subject” is a key element in the College’s national final examination.

Perceived strengths

- Significantly developed and practically applicable multilingual and intercultural competences.
- A school subject that is close to professional life.
- Value of problem-solving attitudes and skills.
- Sense of performance and achievement and of professional-entrepreneurial thinking.
- Genuinely cross-curricular mode of thinking encouraged.
- Code-switching switching between languages, perceived initially to be extremely difficult but consciously trained, becomes routine.

Perceived weaknesses

- “Subjects” are perceived to be “difficult” by learners, so many choose “lighter options”
- Success depends on quality of teaching and on the providers’ readiness to be flexible and innovative (e.g. access to resources and ICT, flexible timing and scheduling).
- Planning needs to strike a balance between long-term and short-term objectives.
- Recognition by employers is still limited – mostly due to lack of interfaces between educational and professional platforms where the concept and value of **International Communication for Business Purposes** could be promoted.

National language contest in Vocational Education and Training

Aims and Key activities

- The National Austrian Language Contest in VET is a yearly event which is open to the public. It brings together the winners of similar regional contests who vie for the national championship.
- Candidates are students at state schools and colleges for VET. In addition to separate contests in English, French, Italian, Spanish and Russian, there is the option to compete in one of the bilingual domains that are offered – combining English with one of the other languages.
- Each contest consists of a series of tasks, all interactive and calibrated against the national educational standards (*Bildungsstandards*), which themselves rely on the CEFR.
- It focuses on speaking skills, but also covers receptive skills.
- Evaluation is based on a detailed set of criteria which cover language skills as well as discourse management and social competence; the jury combines experts in education and native speaker representatives of international businesses and companies.

Working methods

The contest is organised by the Austrian VET's language competence centre (CEBS), which consists of a team of practising teachers with a part-time commitment to in-service teacher training, the design and implementation of educational standards and varied consultancy work for their ministerial departments.

The contest consists of three parts:

Round One A short general opener based on visual input.

Round Two Candidates take the role of a representative of a real-life business. Once they have received their tasks, they have 30 minutes to access the website of the business they are meant to represent before they meet and interact with the jury who, themselves, represent a group of business partners (visitors, potential customers, press etc).

Round Three The three most successful contenders in Rounds One and Two enter the final round, where the task is collaborative ("Discuss and, together, decide/suggest/recommend").

Following the event, comprehensive documentation, including tasks, evaluation criteria and results, is made available to schools and partners on the CEBS website.

1.8.2 The relevance of CLIL in vocational education

Introduction

Excluding primary schools that have introduced early foreign language learning into the curriculum, some 3% of all mainstream schools in Europe are estimated to be using Content and Language Integrated Learning approaches (CLIL). The proportion of private schools is considered much higher. There are indications that such approaches are now increasingly entering both mainstream and vocational secondary education. CLIL is seen as providing a framework for achieving best practice without imposing undue strain on either curricular time or resources. One of the success factors has been that the approach is seen to open doors on languages for a broader range of learners. It therefore has particular significance in terms of vocational education. However, teachers, trainers and school leaders are faced with considerable challenges as the teaching of CLIL requires specially trained teachers and trainers, good organisation and effective team work between the different categories of teachers involved (e.g. language teachers and content teachers).

Report from the thematic working group "Languages for Jobs"
European Strategic Framework for Education and Training ET2020

Teamwork

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a collection of various approaches to English Language Teaching that is on a continuum between language learning and content learning. It takes various forms across European education systems (see

www.clilcompendium.com and the ECML CLIL Country Profiles)⁸, Good practice in CLIL contexts often involves an element of teamwork between subject specialists and language teachers. The nature of such co-operation may include any of the following:

- Language teachers observe subject classes and give feedback on language.
- Language teachers accompany students on work placements, field trips etc.
- Language teachers proofread and correct teaching and assessment materials produced by subject teachers.
- 'Full-blown' team teaching.

Learning outcomes

Learning outcomes for CLIL need to be dual-focussed, i.e. they should integrate language and content learning, as well as employability skills such as enhancing professionalism, reflective and critical thinking, lifelong learning, communication, and teamwork skills, and be clearly and specifically stated in active forms, e.g. "By the end of the lesson/ unit/ course/ learners will be able to..." .

The CLIL teacher

To implement a CLIL programme, teachers need to know how to:

- activate students;
- design and use a variety of tasks to stimulate participation;
- design lessons around different learning styles in order to deal with diversity;
- access appropriate CLIL resources;
- check understanding effectively;
- include humour and lots of compliments for good work in their lessons;
- create an atmosphere where students are allowed to make mistakes, so that students experiment with the language they are learning;
- be able to simplify language and scaffold content and cognitive development.

Research has shown that students appreciate teachers having a competent level of English themselves, speaking English (nearly) all of the time, encouraging the students to use English themselves, and correcting the students tactfully. Teachers should also provide lots of structure by talking slowly, asking questions and giving good explanations. They should also adjust their own level of English to their students through recasting and using translation minimally and judiciously.

⁸ The Associação de Centros de Línguas do Ensino Superior em Portugal (ReCLes.pt) held a conference in Estoril in October 2014 entitled *Languages and the Market: Competitiveness and Employability* in which one of the main topics requested by the organisers as a focus for proposals was " LSP (Languages for Specific Purposes) and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in the areas of Tourism and Hospitality, Medicine, Law, Business Management, among others" . <http://paol.iscap.ipp.pt/recles/index.php/2014announcement>.

Language development

With regard to language learning in all subjects it is important that the students' language development is supported while they are still at school. Teachers of the different subjects should link in with resources provided by the students (**multilingualism**). Language development should be provided consistently throughout all subject areas, and the target language should continually be related to specialist skills learning.

Content specific language skills

Students have to learn concept-related written and oral skills in subject lessons to enable them to be successful in all subjects. Every subject not only incorporates the linguistic intersection of learning the language (words and sentence structures); there are also complex sentence structures and links that are part of the register of concept-related written skills. This means that each subject has special constructions that are used more or less frequently. In addition to this there are text type attributes that vary as well, and this depends on the context of the specialist terminology. Each subject-related language area has its own specialist vocabulary that is characterised by sentence and text structures. What is termed "scaffolding" (macro- and micro-scaffolding) is used as a support system in subject teaching – it can be used to make new content, concepts and skills accessible. When the students are in a position to act out practical language scenarios themselves, this system can be removed and there is no need to replace it.

Particular attention must be paid to working on the content-obligatory vocabulary when developing language competence. The objective of working on this vocabulary is that the students can draw on an extensive receptive and productive specialist vocabulary. This makes it important for the students to have mastered word formation for example, and can form compounds.

Depending on the subject, a variety of text types are taught and the idiosyncrasies of reading, writing and speaking are practised.

CLIL, then, is an approach that covers content and language in equal proportions. Language and content are taught and learnt using an integrated approach; in other words they are linked together and treated as a whole. The added value of CLIL is related to the language and the school subject⁹.

⁹ The Goethe-Institut has already described the relevance of CLIL and recommendations for it to be integrated in schools in Italy in a comprehensive guideline: CLIL in the German Language in Italy - A Guideline, 2011. http://www.goethe.de/resources/files/pdf85/leitfaden_clil.pdf.

SECTION 2

CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL)

2.1 Bilingual Content Teaching (CLIL) – foreign language teaching or more?

2.1.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this section is to discuss the idea that CLIL should no longer be seen as an approach solely geared towards promoting foreign language learning. In fact it is equally important that the learning of school subjects in the foreign language undergoes added value, and that native language learning in institutionalised contexts (school) can be encouraged as much as possible by relating to the methodical inventory of CLIL.

The section begins by looking at definitions of CLIL. It then considers the relationship between CLIL and foreign language teaching and the role of language in a subject lesson delivered in a foreign language. It suggests ways of collaboration between CLIL teachers and language teachers, and a CLIL lesson plan demonstrates the methodology to be used in bilingual teaching and learning to enable integrated subject and language learning.

2.1.2 What is Bilingual Content Teaching (CLIL)?

In CLIL a language that is not the official school language is used to deliver a curriculum subject. Curricular subjects taught in a foreign language in Europe include History, Geography and Social Sciences – but also science subjects such as Biology, Chemistry and even Mathematics. Art, Music and PE are also taught bilingually.

But there are also key differences in the interpretation of bilingual learning. Even the terminology highlights this: CLIL on the one hand and **Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht** (abbreviated to BSFU, the approximate English equivalent of which would be Bilingual Content Teaching) on the other. To cite one more from the abundance of different terms – the concept of **Immersion**, which is still prevalent in some southern European countries – which helps to illustrate the main differences in interpretation of bilingual learning. Generally speaking, the term Immersion in a German-speaking context is nowadays more likely to mean playful foreign language learning at pre-school level, and

in some cases also bilingual learning at primary school (Elsner/Keßler 2013).

The concept of CLIL (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*) is defined in the literature as a “dual-focused approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, Frigols 2010; similarly EURYDICE EU Report 2006). The definition refers to the dual-method strategy of this approach: access to the foreign language and also to curricular content. So the central focus of the definition is bilingual teaching and learning, making it possible to learn linguistic and curricular content simultaneously.

In contrast with CLIL, there is still no standardised definition for the German term BSFU, though it is possible to find statements such as “Bilingual Content Teaching is teaching in two languages. Above and beyond the terms of traditional foreign language teaching, some of the curricular content is taught in the foreign language.” (KMK Report 2006). So bilingual teaching is subject teaching that utilises two languages to communicate curricular knowledge.

Our main focus will be on the different emphasis in the definitions of CLIL and BSFU, and we should question how this prioritisation came about, and why it has been retained until now. We will address these questions in more detail later on in this section.

2.1.3 About the relationships between foreign language teaching and CLIL

When BSFU was launched in the 1960s, its potential in comparison with traditional foreign language teaching was seen as being wider promotion of the foreign language, i.e. it would be better to learn the foreign language in a BSFU context because students would benefit from more extensive exposure (6 to 7 tuition hours in the foreign language instead of 3 to 4 hours in traditional foreign language teaching). Furthermore, the language would be used more intensively for here-and-now interaction, which would increase the learners’ motivation to use the new language.

For many years this led to BSFU/CLIL being seen as a form of foreign language instruction. Instead of the everyday content traditionally delivered in foreign language lessons (in English classes this might be: my family, my friends, my pets, school, Great Britain, the United States, and similar topics in French teaching), there was now material covering content from different school subjects right from the start (history, geography, biology...). However, the way the material was handled was still very reminiscent of the approach in foreign language teaching. The question as to whether the content provided through this teaching material was also being learnt was initially of secondary importance – as with foreign language teaching – but it did become a matter of concern to the experts, who were worried about the evaluation of what students had learnt.

Until well into the 1990s CLIL/BSFU remained a kind of optimised foreign language tuition; integration and bilingualism were not viewed as innovative, and the role of school subjects was barely reflected. One reason why this understanding of CLIL/BSFU

continues to be found in many European countries has to do with the fact that European language policy took possession of the concept at an early stage and identified it as one possible route towards the development of multilingualism in the European Union. EU politicians also saw CLIL/BSFU essentially as a language-oriented concept that could contribute towards bringing the vision of the trilingual European a step nearer – just like starting foreign language teaching at a young age.

At the start of the 21st century it could still be assumed that foreign language education played a key role in the development of CLIL/BSFU – after all, it was primarily foreign language teachers who had made the concept public and introduced it into their schools – but now subject teachers began to take a greater interest in this construct as well. They identified the risks they thought would arise if their subjects were taught in a foreign language, for example the simplification of the syllabus, difficulties in understanding by students etc. It was only when it became possible to provide conclusive research evidence of an added value for bilingual teaching and learning that they accepted the potential of this approach. At this point CLIL/BSFU broke free from the shackles of foreign language teaching, which led to it acquiring its own subject status (“Bili” in Germany) and it is understood explicitly as curricular teaching in the foreign language and the school language. Subject-based learning comes to the fore and language learning, as will be explained in more detail in the next section, is viewed as having a dependent relationship with subject learning. In this way, language becomes what it always is in the real world, a tool for communicating content from the real or invented world. This transformation from language teaching to subject teaching received a significant boost thanks to the realisation that learning curricular content in the foreign language had its own integral added value, which lies primarily in the deeper processing of this content, and furthermore in arts subjects in the improved formation of understanding where cultural differences are concerned (cf. e.g. Lamsfuß-Schenk, 2007).

2.1.4 Language in foreign language subject teaching

The question arises of how language and subject knowledge can be integrated. CLIL/BSFU cannot function as systematic language teaching in the same way as foreign language teaching if it is used to teach a subject. But despite this, the foreign language needs to be linked with the subject teaching. Language input is essentially controlled through the linguistic needs that arise during the lesson. As a result, a progression develops from the language perspective, which is governed by the curricular content.

But this does not mean that it is enough to provide students with a specific glossary for a subject and then have them learn it during the course of a lesson. Apart from the fact that most of the vocabulary found in a specialist dictionary will probably never be used in lessons (which is precisely why it is so important to control a lesson on the basis of specific language needs), no subject tuition, even if it is delivered in the school language, can be reduced just to specialist terminology. It is far more important to provide

learners with skills relating to subject-based discourse in a foreign language, or strategies that enable them to handle texts and discourse that use specialist terminology. Skills like this can only be learned by putting them into practice, for instance by working on written material with specialist content.

So what does this mean with regard to the use of the foreign language in a bilingual classroom? The teacher has to adapt to the language requirements of each lesson. After s/he has defined a learning theme for the lesson or block of lessons, s/he does this by assembling the required language tools or listing the skills needed for subject-based discourse and the specialist terminology for that lesson, and ensuring the availability of these materials for the lesson. But the linguistic interaction in the actual lesson itself is equally important. In this respect the teacher should be concerned with identifying language-related problems arising in classroom interaction and helping learners by making sure they can articulate what they want to say. This approach to language work in the context of bilingual teaching has also been referred to as the *language-sensitive classroom* (Leisen 2015). This means the teacher's ability to plan the teaching discourse firstly so that the content is freely structured, but secondly so that students are also provided with the language skills they need.

The actual language work is defined on this basis, too. It can be planned individually by the teacher in collaboration with the students. As well as simple language prompts (the teacher supplies students with a missing word in the foreign language), correction of grammatical structures during or after a phase of interaction, and clarification of difficult-to-understand student comments etc., language-sensitive teaching can be used to go into more detail regarding particular aspects of language: for instance, explaining or repeating a grammatical rule, or gathering and practising phrases for beginning an oral presentation. Additional themes such as developing and maintaining coherence in written texts, or the structure of certain text types in specialist texts in a foreign language (e.g. how to structure a description of a science experiment) should be addressed in this context. But care should always be taken not to disconnect language-sensitive teaching from curricular content. This is the only way for students to realise why they are learning a particular aspect of language. It is also a factor that distinguishes CLIL/BSFU from a traditional foreign language lesson.

2.1.5 Language teachers and CLIL teachers: how can they support each other?

CLIL/BSFU is still a comparatively new concept in our schools. For this reason it is no wonder that the number of trained CLIL teachers is still small. Admittedly there are some countries – such as Norway, Austria, Eastern Switzerland and Germany – in which trainee teachers have to study two subjects, which are frequently a school subject and a foreign language. A teacher who has studied Geography and English, or History and French, although not yet a CLIL teacher in the true sense, is still a person who has the academic skills for teaching in both subjects. But in most European countries it is usual

to have single-subject teachers, in other words people who from the perspective of bilingual teaching have studied one school subject or one foreign language.

In many schools in Europe, this situation originally resulted in subject teachers with comparatively weak skills in foreign languages and language teachers with little experience in the school subject taking joint responsibility for the preparation of CLIL lessons, which were then mostly taught by the language teachers. This is no longer an option today due to economic constraints. Instead attempts are being made by the authorities to give subject teachers additional skills in a foreign language by offering training programmes. But although this is a good idea, it also raises the question as to whether providing training for language teachers in a particular curricular subject might not also be a possible route. At the moment a kind of existential anxiety can be seen amongst foreign language teachers in many countries – because they believe that they would become superfluous if progress is made with language training for subject teachers. There is no doubt that the best route would be to offer Bachelor's/Master's degree courses that allow a foreign language and a subject to be studied in the countries concerned. At the moment the only option is to recommend to schools offering CLIL/BSFU that they should give subject and language teachers opportunities to cooperate more closely, which means opening up more time windows in which they can work together on the preparation of CLIL lesson blocks and projects. A joint decision should be reached to establish who delivers the actual lessons.

2.2 The relevance of CLIL as a model for 21st Century teaching

That CLIL has its roots in contemporary language teaching theory and practice is widely supported in the literature. Related to the aims of this project, it is suggested that there is a zone of confluence between the target schools' development of language teaching practice and their development of CLIL projects. By equipping the target schools' language teachers with contemporary methodology, those same teachers will be better placed and equipped to fulfil the function of 'informed experts' in collaborating with their CLIL colleagues.

The relevance of the PAL Partnership's 'best-practice' recommendations to the practice of CLIL

This PAL project has identified the following approaches and methods as appropriate contemporary best practice methodology for development in the target schools:

- English for Specific Purposes (ESP).
- English for Academic Purposes (EAP).
- The Communicative Approach and its attendant manifestations in the form of:
 1. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).
 2. Task-Based Learning (TBL).
 3. Project-Based Learning (PBL).
 4. The Lexical Approach.

As stated above, an analysis of the learning theories and approaches underlying CLIL reveals that much of its methodology has its roots in existing language teaching theory and practice. In the literature, Darn (2006) states that, "A CLIL 'approach' is not far removed from humanistic, communicative and lexical approaches in ELT", going on to cite, in particular, the approaches of Situational Learning, and Krashen's Natural Approach and Language Acquisition theories as being central to CLIL's methodological core. In a similar vein, McBeath (2009) suggests that, "CLIL is neither so new nor so radical as many of its advocates would have us believe," claiming that many of CLIL's methodological roots lie in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Ionnou-Georgiou and Pavlos (2011) in turn note that "CLIL draws its pedagogical approach from the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach" whilst Dalton-Puffer states that CLIL embodies "the ultimate dream of Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Learning".

Given the confluence, then, between the above-cited influences on CLIL methodology and the Partners' 'best-practice' methodology recommendations, it would seem that the aims of this PAL Project are predicted to have an effect not only on language-teaching in the target schools but also, potentially, on their CLIL project planning and teaching capabilities. With the latter in mind, this section will now investigate the potential of CLIL methodology to influence the language-teaching practice in the target schools and will suggest that appropriately skilled language teachers versed in CLIL-compatible methodology could greatly enhance their schools' CLIL programmes.

CLIL and language teaching

In her discussion on the potential of language teaching as a vital support in CLIL projects, Coonan (2012) presupposes that foreign-language teachers possess the methodological skills to assist with giving "suggestions for teaching strategies or procedures" within a CLIL methodology context, thus presuming that language teachers have at least an understanding of, if not an expertise in, some of the pedagogic practices found at the centre of CLIL methodology.

Coonan (op. cit.) identifies two possible cross-curricular interventions, the "propaedeutic" and the "concurrent", that an adapted foreign language curriculum could make in a CLIL project.

Propaedeutic

Within the propaedeutic model, Coonan envisages two scaffolding scenarios. The first represents a purely linguistic support for the CLIL programme through the pre-teaching of "language forms (structures, text types, genres) which the learner will meet during the CLIL programme". In the educational context of the 'target schools', this would arguably be the 'default' CLIL collaboration mode, utilising as it does the (supposed) universal skills that language teachers bring to their profession without necessitating (in theory, at least) language teacher-training interventions. The involvement of EAP teaching expertise in the identification and exploitation of text types and genre analysis could, however, be problematic for language teachers given their 'language

for general purposes' backgrounds and thus teacher-training intervention in EAP is predicted.

Coonan posits an alternative propaedeutic intervention comprising "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," and which "aim to develop an academic competence in the second language." Here, then, Coonan is suggesting a deeper understanding, on the part of language teachers, of the language learning and teaching theories and practices underlying CLIL, thus raising the need for training (or retraining) language teachers in EAP theory and practice.

Concurrent

Using a similar rationale to the propaedeutic model, Coonan suggests two possible 'concurrent' scaffolding models in which the language curriculum could support CLIL initiatives. The first, and again, possibly the 'default' method due to their familiarity to language teachers, is collaboration on "aspects of language and communication which reveal themselves to be problematic during the lessons (and which) are identified and integrated into the "normal" FL curriculum". This solution, drawing directly from the ILCS (Integration of Language and Content in Second/Foreign Language Instruction) model (Snow, Met, Genesee, 1989), proposes that language and content teachers work together in the identification of language teaching objectives focussing on content-obligatory and content-compatible language that solve "the actual language problems detected in the actual lessons". The successful implementation of this model, then, rests on language teachers being versed in the theory and practice of EAP, of the language demands of Task-Based Learning (Willis: 1996) and of the Lexical Approach (Lewis: 1993), amongst others.

Coonan's second 'concurrent' support model is for language teachers to provide, in tandem to CLIL courses, CLIL modules within the foreign language 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". Such an intervention would necessitate extensive retraining of language teachers in the theories and practices of CLIL as well as involving an extensive knowledge of the content areas to be covered.

In summary, Coonan argues for a reappraisal of language teaching in primary and secondary education "in the realisation that, as the CLIL programme is destined to have an impact on the pupils' FL (foreign language) learning and developing FL competence, it is short-sighted to proceed as if the CLIL programme does not exist," a view echoed by Clegg (2013) who suggests that failure to adapt language-teaching content to the needs of CLIL students "is to put the success of such a project at risk" (op.cit.).

In his analysis of European CLIL projects, Clegg (op.cit.) recommends the re-skilling of language teachers in the theories and practices underlying CLIL so that "the language curriculum can thus be re-orientated to accommodate these academic language skills." Amongst the roles that language teachers can perform, he cites the central importance of being able to "advise subject teachers on their own language use, on

the language demands of their subjects and on the kinds of language support practice which the subject teachers can incorporate into their lessons". In addition, Clegg advocates a more meta-didactic collaborative role in the "co-planning of a scheme of work, co-planning of lessons, co-construction of materials, co-assessment of performance, co-evaluation of the project as a whole". Importantly, Clegg warns that "language teachers, however, are not used to doing this and they do not by training possess all the skills necessary" (op.cit.). Certainly, in the local context, the PAL project's target-schools' language teachers could need extensive training if they were to be asked to effectively advise their CLIL counterparts on the methodology behind certain communicative elements when designing a CLIL module, or to guide them in designing activities for a CLIL lesson.

Vasquez and Ellison (2013) concur with Coonan and Clegg, adding that the involvement of language teachers in CLIL projects would be mutually beneficial to their professional development. Language teachers can demonstrate how to set up and facilitate communicative tasks and Task-Based Learning activities whilst the content teacher can help the language teacher understand the cognitive demands placed on students by content teaching and the importance of appropriate questioning. Such collaboration should involve professional development programmes that "take into consideration the competences that will adequately prepare content teachers and language teachers for this" (op.cit.).

Should language teachers become conversant with the PAL Project's CLIL-compatible contemporary 'best-practice' pedagogy, then there is the potential to utilise them as 'specialist' advisors in the target-schools' CLIL programmes. Were these 'specialists' to introduce such a pedagogy into the language classroom, either in propaedeutic or concurrent phases of instruction, this would expose students to, and thus prepare them for, the paradigm shift that they will encounter in their CLIL experience. At the very least, such training would greatly enhance language teaching and bring it, with or without CLIL, into communicative maturity.

Conclusion

In the above, we have seen that the literature predicts language-teaching involvement in CLIL projects at both linguistic and pedagogical levels in both propaedeutic and concurrent phases of instruction. In all models of interaction, the need has been documented for language teachers to be appropriately skilled in EAP methodology as well as being conversant in the more familiar language teaching practices of the Communicative Approach, including Task-Based Learning and Teaching, the Functional Approach and the Lexical Approach.

The PAL project's identification of these same areas of contemporary good teaching practice can, therefore, assist language teaching in the target schools by giving the teachers greater insight into the contemporary best-practice components that coincide with CLIL, thus better equipping them to act as both linguistic and methodological advisers for their CLIL colleagues.

The second project output of the PAL Partnership Project foresees visits to the target

schools to observe language teaching in action and the collection of data concerning current classroom practice, the findings of which will, to some extent, predict the training needs of language teachers to enable them to participate effectively in potential collaboration in CLIL projects.

Finally, the experimentation and implementation phase of the third project output is expected to yield some interesting results in terms of the teachers' and students' reactions to the use of the PAL Partnership's CLIL-compatible best-practice methodology.

References

- Chamot, A.; Barnhardt, S.; Beard El-Dinary, P. & Robbins, J. (1999): *The Learning Strategy Handbook*. New York, NY: Addison-Wesley, Longman.
- Clegg, J. *Article: Teacher collaboration in CLIL*. Retrieved September 1, 2016, from [article](#).
- CLIL: A lesson framework. (2015, November 20). Retrieved September 1, 2016, from Ioannou-Georgiou, S., & Pavlou, P. (eds.). (2011): *Guidelines for CLIL implementation in primary and pre-primary education*. Cyprus: Cyprus Pedagogical Institute.
- Coonan M. C. (2012): *The Foreign Language Curriculum and CLIL* in 'Synergies Italie' n. 8 - pp. 117-128.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007): *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins BV.
- Lewis, M (1993): *The Lexical Approach: The state of ELT and a way forward*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.
- McBeath, N. (2009): *CLIL Or Deep Level ESP?* in 'Developing Teachers Monthly', March/April 2009.
- Pavón Vázquez, V. & Ellison, M. *Examining teacher roles and competences in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)* in 'LINGVARVMARENA' - VOL. 4 - AÑO 2013 - 65 - 78.
- Snow, M. A.; Met, M. & Genesee, F. (1989): *A Conceptual Framework for the Integration of Language and Content in Second/Foreign Language Instruction*, in 'TESOL Quarterly', 23: 201-217.
- Willis, J. (1996): *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Harlow: Longman.

SECTION 3

BEST PRACTICE IN DIGITAL TEACHING

Best practice for the use of ICT in the classroom encapsulates a set of big picture areas that are briefly summarised below. For truly principled, fully embedded and successful integration, all these steps should be considered and enacted.

There is a tendency in most educational establishments to adopt a top-down, financially-driven model of technology integration and these often fail for a variety of reasons that we can summarise here as follows:

- lack of principal stakeholder engagement;
- imposed purchase and implementation of technology;
- excessive expenditure on hardware, reduced expenditure on training & support;
- lack of maintenance, repair, replacement and upgrade planning;
- lack of a mid- to long-term route map.

These, then, are the principal steps recommended for any technology implementation:

1. Identifying needs & opportunities.
2. Canvassing stakeholders.
3. Setting budgets.
4. Organising training.
5. Providing support.

3.1 Identifying needs & opportunities

In this first stage a school needs to take stock of what it already has in terms of technology infrastructure and what it needs. Here we are mainly thinking about the hardware and software requirements – do we need laptops, tablets, desktops? What sort of connectivity will we be able to offer? What do we have already that we can already use? Can we take advantage of the technology that comes into our centre each day, adopting a BYOD (Bring Your Own Device) approach, whereby students use their own devices and we provide the connectivity, charging stations and learning content? What form will that content be in? Will we use web content, or electronic coursebooks? Prepare our own materials, or buy them in? How often will we change our courseware? What will the state of this be in five years' time? And in ten years? What is the best investment to be made?

For technical and vocational schools it might be that the school can rely on the technology coming in with the learners and adopt a primarily BYOD approach, but there are also issues with complex ecosystems (iOS, Android, Windows...) and compatibility of materials.

What will the teachers need? Do they have their own devices, or should we be providing them? If we provide them, what should we provide: a laptop and projector in each class, an Interactive Whiteboard (IWB), an iPad or other tablet?

At this juncture, it seems highly likely that mobile learning and associated hardware are here to stay, at least for the next few years, and this is where investment is recommended.

3.2 Canvassing stakeholders

Having identified hardware and courseware needs and opportunities, this should be confirmed with principal stakeholders: head teachers, teachers, learners and (where appropriate) parents and guardians. Involving everyone in decision-making at this point goes a long way to ensuring buy-in at adoption stage. Ensure that everyone feels involved with technology investment and implementation choices. If BYOD is to be adopted, for example, how will you guarantee equality throughout the school? How will safety of devices be guaranteed? These conversations are vital.

In recent years there have been many examples of top-down imposition of new technology, and few of them have fared well after the initial enthusiasm has passed. Find out what teachers want and need, confirm this with technical consultants and advisors, and help them to get it – this is perhaps the most basic of steps.

3.3 Setting budgets

With technology investment and integration, the tendency from above is to spend all, or almost all, of the budget, on hardware, software and connectivity, and to ignore the training and support needs of the people who are going to use it. Time and time again this approach has been shown to fail.

It is recommended that a significant proportion of a technology plan budget be kept back for training and support. Training should be regular and ongoing, and support should be organised such that teachers are given timely and efficient access to experts who can keep the technology running for them, so that they can concentrate on the teaching, and let the technology run itself. This is, by its very nature, costly, but ignoring it, and not budgeting for it, is far more costly in the medium to long term.

3.4 Organising training

Training should be organised before new technology is introduced to the teachers in their classrooms. Training should be given by experienced teachers who are technology experts, and not by technologists or sales people. Initial training needs to concentrate on what the technology means to the teachers and what they do on an everyday basis, highlighting the positives: how can this enhance my teaching, and my learners' learning?

Teachers must be able to see a connection between their teaching styles and approaches, and the chosen technologies. They must also be able to fully integrate the technologies into their teaching in a principled and consistent way. They, in turn, must be able to show learners how the technology fits with everything else they do in class, and how it fits in the curriculum. Technology should never be an afterthought or unplanned addition – it must be properly embedded in the school's approach and philosophy.

3.5 Providing support

Step five ensures that teachers feel supported when they need problems solved, or technology fixed, or when something simply isn't working for them. It also implies support systems (e.g. 'Support Ticket'¹⁰ or similar) and workflows, and is something that should be available quickly and efficiently at any time the school is open. Support is also consistent with a policy for fixing, replacing and updating technology as a mid- to long-term school policy. Whilst not having any relevance to teaching itself, support is as important as training for successful technology implementation.

3.6 Digital Tools for Learning Languages

Introduction

In September 2013 the European Commission launched the 'Opening Up Education' action plan with the aim of boosting innovation and digital skills in schools and universities. The three main areas of interest are:

- The creation of opportunities for institutions, teachers and learners to innovate.
- The development of Open Educational Resources, ensuring that they become available to all.
- The improvement of infrastructures and connectivity in schools.

¹⁰ 'Support Ticket': a software package that manages and maintains lists of issues, as needed by an organization.

Considering that the educational system is changing fast, Androulla Vassiliou, the European Commissioner for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth, stated the need to “open minds to new learning methods so that people are more employable, creative, innovative and entrepreneurial”.

At the same time, however, the paper of the European Commission indicates that a very large number of teachers do not feel ‘digitally confident’ and able to teach digital skills effectively.

The Report entitled “Students, Computers and Learning: Making the Connection”, published in September 2015 by the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), highlights that the integration of technologies in teaching activities, which differs from country to country and from school to school, depends on many factors. These include access to devices in dedicated classrooms or directly in class, the implementation of a curriculum that envisages the acquisition of digital skills, and especially teachers’ teaching skills in digital environments.

Indeed, new skills are required of a teacher these days, as already indicated in the ‘UNESCO ICT Competency Standards for Teachers of 2010’: capacity to share, to cooperate, to interact, to use network resources. The learning environment is no longer limited to the physical space of the classroom, but is extended via a new time-space concept, i.e. an ‘open-space’ of knowledge. The concrete possibility of ‘ubiquitous learning’ generates a new concept of learning that becomes open, accessible and certainly inclusive. Access to information that used to occur exclusively through printed books is now available to all. Because technologies are tools and not teaching objectives, spaces, too, must adapt to the change. The laboratory is no longer a separate space and becomes a work resource where ‘knowledge merges with know-how’, thereby promoting the active participation of the student who is finally placed at the centre of the learning activity.

The implementation of ‘augmented’ classrooms, in which everyone can use the web either individually or collectively, mobile laboratories in which boxes or trolleys transform any classroom into a digital one, and alternative spaces open to all (groups, open classes, etc.) becomes a model that any school can adopt. One is no longer asked to choose a single layout, because these ‘hybrid’ solutions help provide digital access to all.

The BYOD (Bring Your Own Device) solution, already used in a number of school settings, favours the creation of a ‘light digital class’ and of an inclusive learning environment. Often, guidelines and indications concerning the use of mobile phones, aimed at regulating the use of personal devices during classroom hours, have drastically curtailed the chance for conscious and responsible use of these tools. Instead, an initial educational contract shared with parents, and precise school regulations governing the correct use of these devices would favour the ‘mixed’ use of light technologies. The learning environment, therefore, is an important variable in the study of a foreign language, and technological support may bring significant added value for teachers and students alike.

To be “beyond the classroom” with the use of the Cloud allows us to bring what

was once relegated to the informal sphere, into dialogue with the formal or institutional sphere. The student is placed at the centre and becomes the main protagonist of his/her own learning process. The teacher, who is no longer the sole repository of knowledge, must be capable of providing students with equal learning opportunities and must be competent in the digital environments that are part of their own education and professional development.

Content: Open Educational Resources (OER)

Thanks to the web, every teacher has free access to a large number of teaching practices, resources and content of various kinds. Certainly, open resources are one of the main focuses of education today, but it should be stressed that not everything found on the internet can be used freely.

The book "Going Open with Lang OER", published by European Schoolnet¹¹, provides a versatile guide for anyone wishing to approach OER. It contains useful, basic instructions for teachers regarding searching for and selecting images, audio, and texts to use via 'Creative Commons' licences.

Teachers needing help in creating an interactive lesson will benefit from the many useful repositories that can be found on the internet. For example, with the videos of Ted-Ed, and the lessons found on *Scientix* and the *TeacherTube* channel, teachers will find ready-made and ready-to-use material and lessons. It is also possible to create a sharing community in which every teacher makes his/her own work and activities available to others. Of particular note in this regard, is the repository¹² of the IPRASE Institute, which contains all the lesson plans of the teachers who have attended the CLIL methodology courses. These are released via a 'Creative Commons' licence, giving users the right to reuse and adapt material for their own purposes.

Communication

Communication is the fundamental linguistic skill that makes language truly 'activated' in the learning process. Teachers can create online environments and virtual classes capable of transferring teacher-student and student-student interaction in a foreign language, "beyond" the physical classroom. *Edmodo*¹³, a tool used throughout the international school world, is a platform that allows for the management of learning groups. The teacher can assign homework, tests and surveys and can arrange students to work in small groups, as if they were all in a real classroom. In a protected environment with an interface similar to that of Facebook, it allows the student access via a simple password, without having to register his/her own e-mail address.

Listening and comprehension skills can be augmented via the use of Podcast, a tool

¹¹ <http://goo.gl/ViRBRe>.

¹² <http://trilinguismo.iprase.tn.it/lesson-plan>.

¹³ www.edmodo.com.

that allows the distribution of audio and visual content via the internet. Using services such as *Spreaker* or *Podomatic*, both teachers and students can record short texts and make them available to share via the internet.

Cognition

How can one develop comprehension in a creative way? With various different web apps for creating Mind Maps, the cooperative classroom is made simpler, while sharing helps collaborative construction.

Mindomo, *Coggle*, *Mindmeister*, *Bubble.us* can all help us to take notes, brainstorm and connect other resources to various nodes, thus rendering the map hypermedial and hypertextual. Keeping in mind that the map is a graphic representation of thought, we should avoid using ready-made templates, and favour, instead, the cognitive process in making them, so as to make learning more meaningful.

Creative thought can be intensified with the construction of presentations that go beyond the classic '*PowerPoint*', and are produced using applications such as *Emaze*¹⁴, via the creation of personal miniature websites, or a digital portfolio that will boost thought and metacognition, such as *Tackk*¹⁵. One's own portfolio is transformed from a personal, 'closed' tool into one that exists in a shared environment which also exploits interaction with the outside world.

For those relatively new to the internet and its navigation, we would suggest the construction and use of *WebQuest*. With the aim of acquiring digital citizenship skills, by exploiting the 'Problem Solving' mode, students gather information via the various links and websites suggested by the teacher in a sort of 'treasure hunt'. In the paid-for version of *Zunal*¹⁶, a web app used to construct *WebQuest*, one can even reuse and re-adapt the webquests created by others

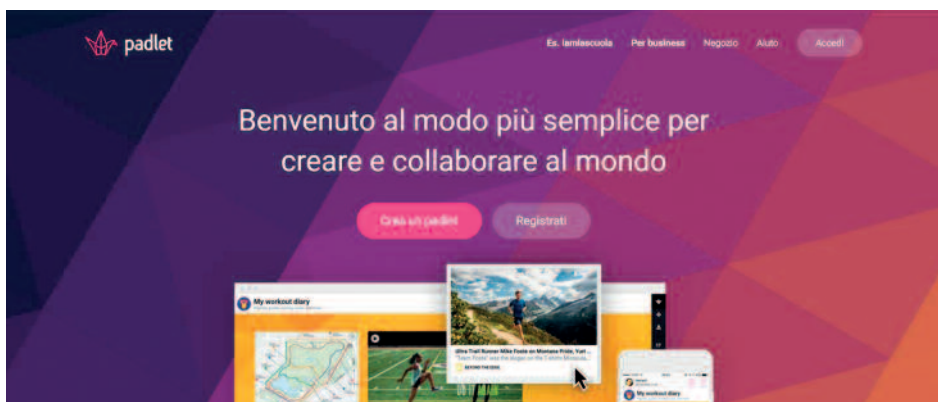
One of the tools we will examine in detail here is *Padlet*¹⁷, a virtual "wall" that can be used in class and allows interaction via simple, virtual 'post-its' posted by the users.

¹⁴ www.emaze.com.

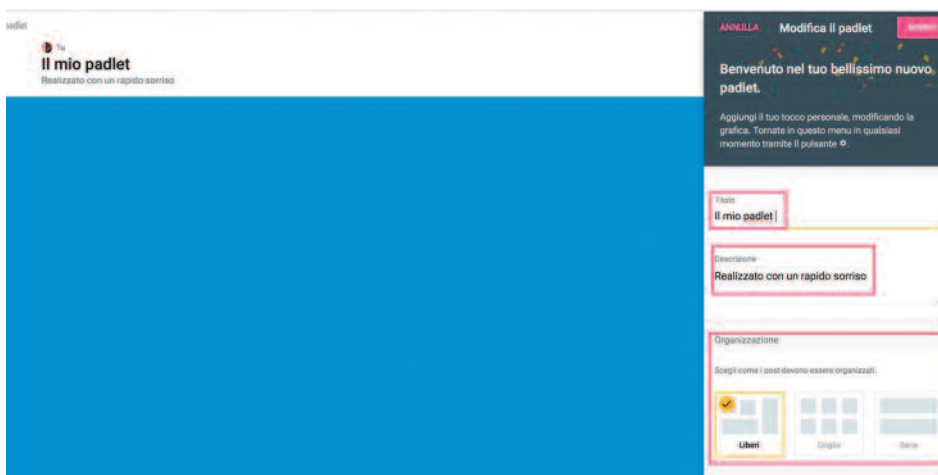
¹⁵ <https://tackk.com>.

¹⁶ <http://zunal.com/>.

¹⁷ <https://padlet.com/>.



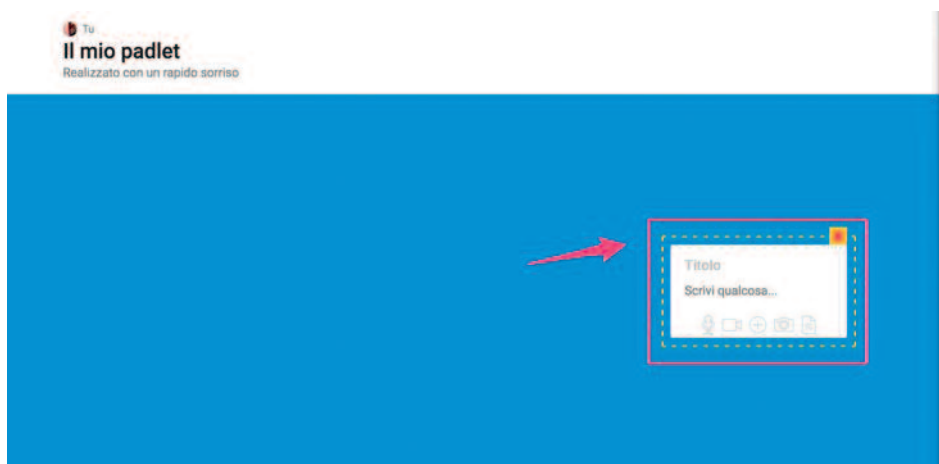
Once we have registered and created an account, by clicking on “new padlet” we can create our own virtual page, give it a title and a description and we can decide how our post-its will be laid out: freeform, grid or stream.



The teacher can choose various levels of sharing and privacy regarding the participation of the students: make the wall completely private, assign an access password, or make it entirely accessible to the public, and assign personalised ‘privileges’ for writing and/or viewing. The teacher can also invite collaborators for shared writing via an email address.



At this point, the padlet wall is ready. From their device (smartphone, tablet or PC) each contributor can add a 'post-it'. Photos, links or documents can be added to each post.



Padlet therefore becomes an inclusive tool in which everyone can participate with their own personal resources. It can be used for brainstorming, group work, personal revisions, or for keeping track of debates. It is a versatile tool that can be used in a BYOD mode, too – with any device. An alternative to *Padlet* is *Linoit*¹⁸, (also in a tablet version) that can use post-its of different colours.

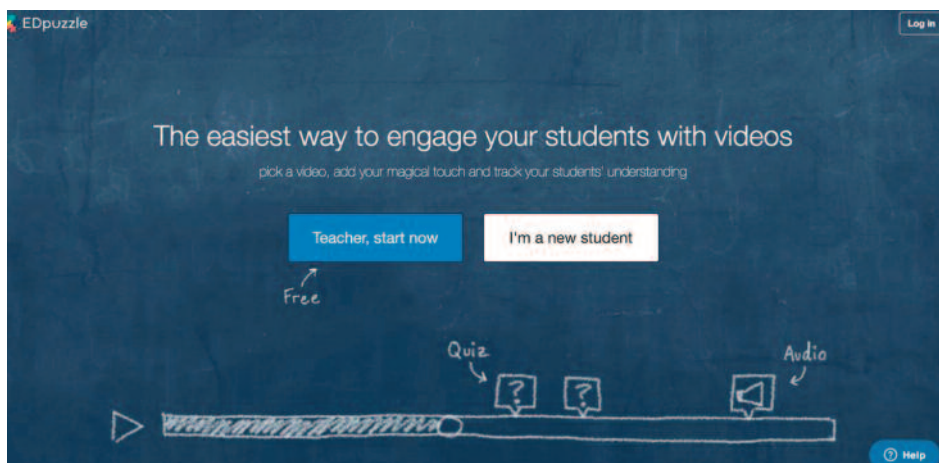
¹⁸ <http://en.linoit.com/>.

Culture

Throughout our school education, printed books have played a key role. Encyclopaedias – thick volumes and heavy digests – have shaped our ‘being’ in school. In modern society, access to information is now free for all through the “ubiquitous learning” context mentioned earlier. The use of multimedia, and especially of videos, has become an everyday practice.

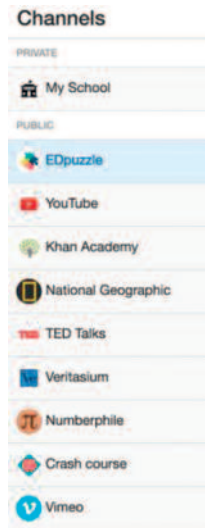
The quantity of videos on the internet offers both general educational opportunities and specific help in studying foreign languages. In addition to simple viewing, one can creatively re-edit them for classroom purposes. How can we make these interactive through the addition of notes, remarks and other resources so as to use them in a flipped classroom? To this end, in the last few years a number of web applications have been developed that allow the user to tailor and edit films and videos so as to publish and share new multimedia objects with others.

*Edpuzzle*¹⁹ is one of the recent web apps that allows us to transform a video into an interactive lesson.

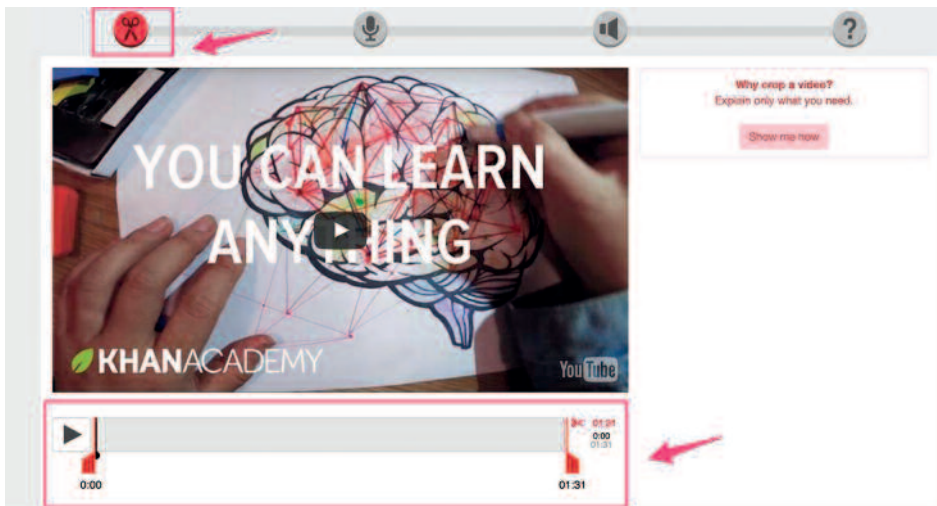


After signing up, we can look for videos through various channels, such as *YouTube*, *Khan Academy*, *National Geographic* or upload a video we have created ourselves.

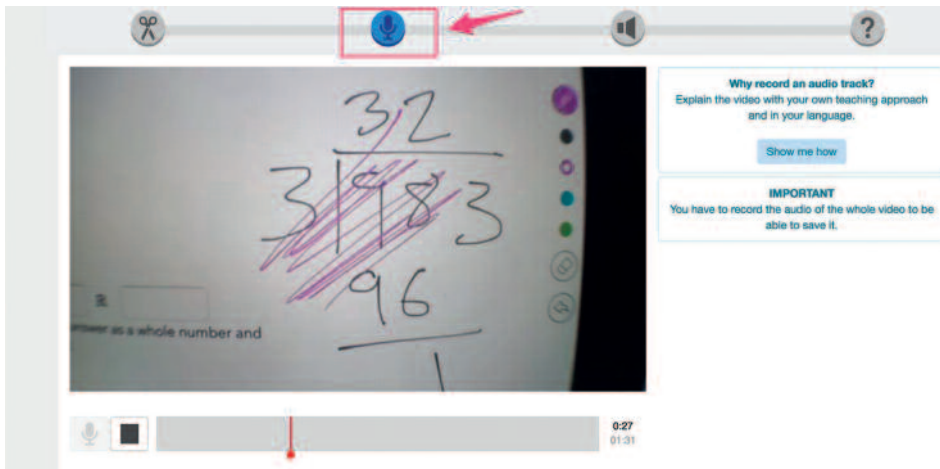
¹⁹ www.edpuzzle.com.



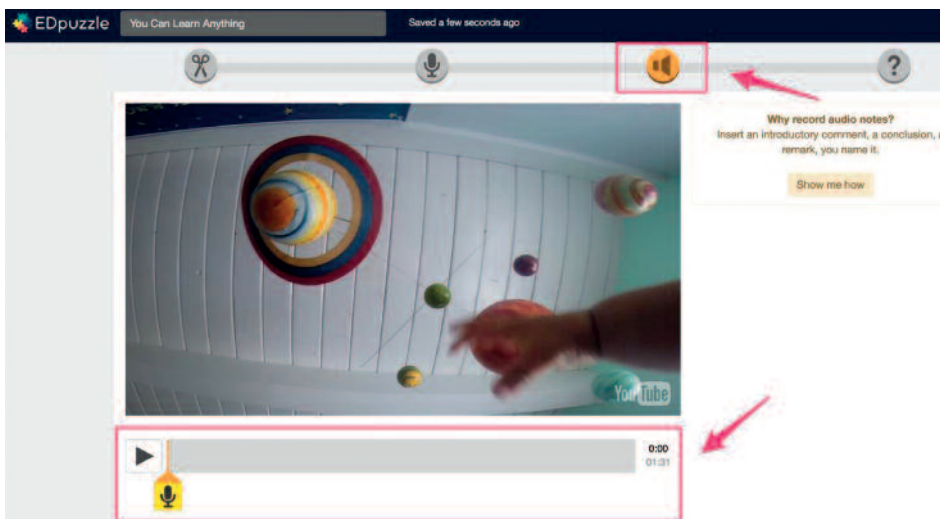
Once we have chosen a video to work with, there are various tools we can use to make it interactive. For example, we can choose to crop it to make it shorter, using a scissor icon and two cursors:



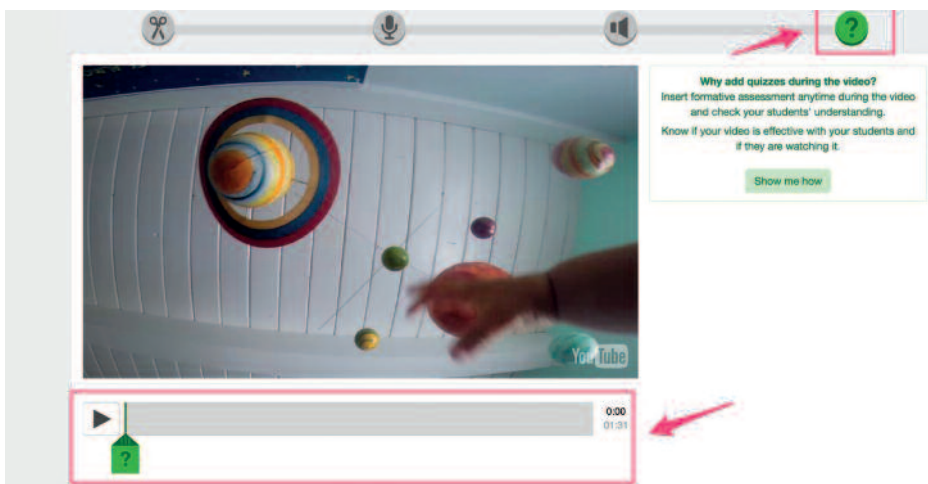
We can remove the whole audio track and add one recorded by the teacher or by the student in which the main concepts are explained, for example.



Note – It is possible to enter comments, an introduction or insights in an audio format.



Last but not least, we can add text questions and questionnaires to obtain immediate feedback from the student, thus monitoring the student's learning through formative assessment.



At this point, the video lesson is saved and assigned as homework to the students in the previously created virtual classroom. The teacher can check and monitor the entire process, see who has watched the video, for how long and whether he or she has answered the questions. This is an extremely useful aid in making the lessons interactive and in actively involving the students.

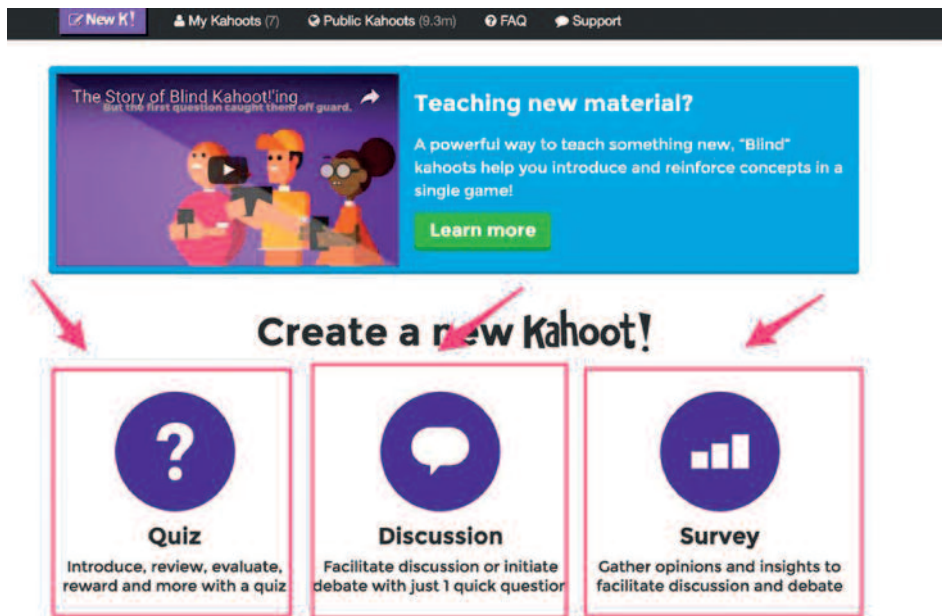
Assessment and evaluation

What do technologies offer in terms of assessment? The immediacy of feedback, for example, is fundamental when co-constructing knowledge or when building up an assessment grid that allows the teacher to assess various aspects of the learners' language. Possibly even more important is the ability to help students self-assess.

One of the most popular tools of this kind is *Kahoot!*²⁰, in which every device present in class can be used as an automatic responder by each student.

Once logged in, the teacher can choose between the creation of a quiz, a discussion or a survey.

²⁰ <https://getkahoot.com>.



The creation continues by adding a title, a description, an image or a video and by selecting the language to be used.

The screenshot shows the 'K! Description' form. It includes fields for 'Title (required)', 'Description (required)', 'Cover image', 'Visible to' (set to 'Everyone'), 'Language' (set to 'English'), 'Audience (required)' (set to 'Please select...'), 'Credit resources', and 'Intro video' (with a URL: 'https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xvNR4SR3u08'). Red boxes highlight the 'Title', 'Description', and 'Cover image' fields.

At this point, one can start creating questions and enriching them with images or videos and, most importantly, set the time limit for answering.

Question (required)

Time limit: 20 sec

Award points: YES

Media

Add image Add Video

or drag & drop image

Answer 1 (required)

Answer 2 (required)

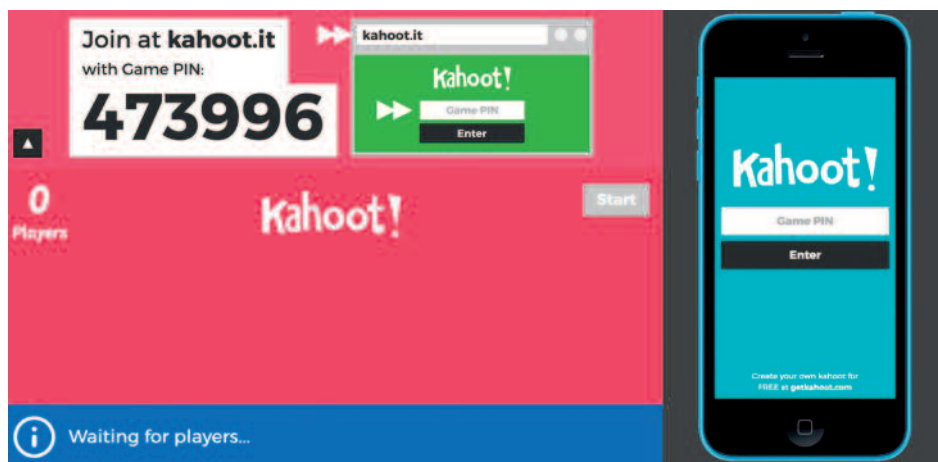
Answer 3

Answer 4

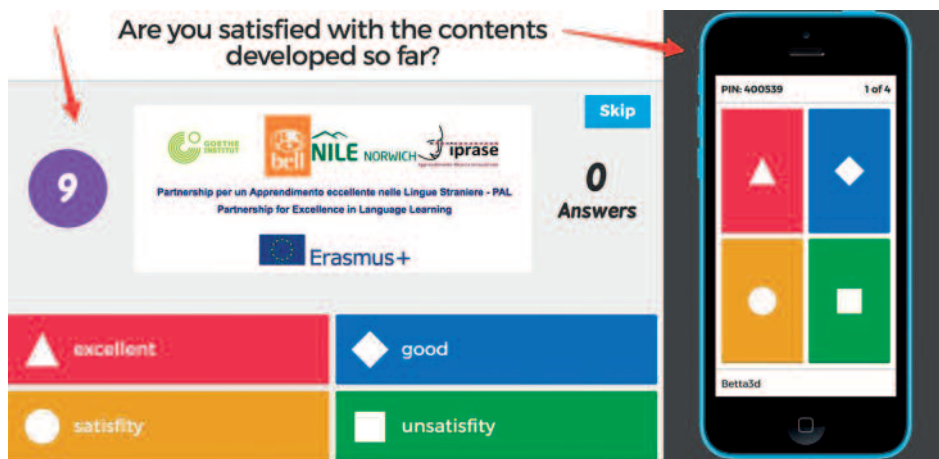
Credit resources

Once the activity has been completed and saved, through 'Preview', the teacher can confirm that the activity works, and then launch *Kahoot*.

Each participant can then connect to the kahoot.it link, enter the Game PIN and his/her nickname.



The teacher launches his/her quiz or survey by simply clicking on Start. The questions appear projected onto the screen of the IWB in class, while the student views the possible answers on his/her own device. Each answer has its own colour or symbol.

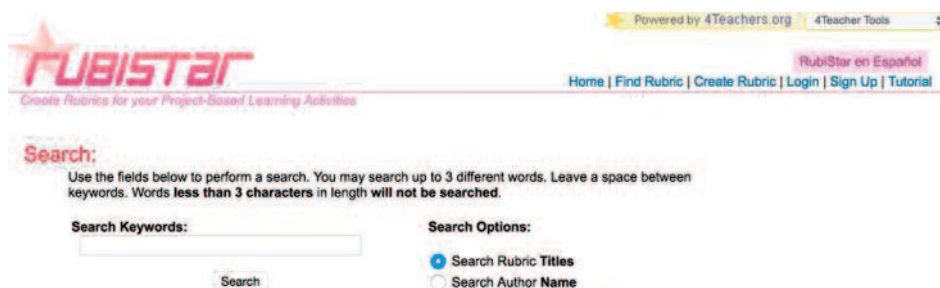


Once the time interval set at the beginning for each answer has expired, the system collects the data and makes them visible on the screen via a histogram.

This continues until all of the questions have been answered.

At the end of the session, the teacher downloads all of the stored disaggregated data into a spreadsheet so as to monitor each single answer.

For the compilation of assessment criteria, we can also suggest *Rubistar*²¹, a tool offering all of its registered users (teachers) the possibility of saving and changing their own criteria. The search template also allows them to find already developed assessment criteria that they can share.



Lesson plan

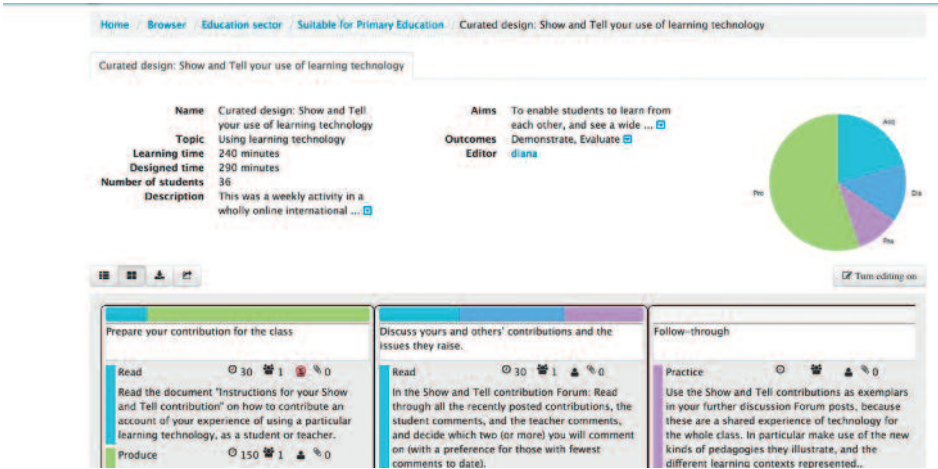
The purpose of the *Learning Designer*²² tool created by the London Institute of Education is to help teachers build up effective teaching activities by integrating them

²¹ <http://rubistar.4teachers.org/index.php>.

²² <http://learningdesigner.org/>.

with technology. To do this it provides a set of web-based interactive tools and presents itself as a sequence of activities, similar to a lesson plan, with all of its main characteristics and displayed as a real lesson plan. The teacher wishing to start also has at his/her disposal a series of lesson plans subjected by other teachers that can provide a starting idea that can be developed and adapted to their own needs. After having gone through the mandatory specification of skills and objectives, the system allows the teacher the opportunity to catalogue them based on the model of Bloom's taxonomy. The type of learning identified gives indications regarding the technological tools to be used, such as a wiki or shared documents, to make cooperation and production easier, while the forum or blog commenting functions can help discussion. While this tool is useful for reflecting and self-assessing one's teaching activities, it also allows to interconnect various kinds of resources – audio, video, documents – to each single activity. Once the projects have been created, they can be uploaded into a common repository and shared with others.

An example of a lesson plan created using *Learning Designer*:



The eBook is not a book!


Moving from one online environment to another, each requiring different credentials, may be a cause of some confusion for both teachers and students. As e-learning platforms used in schools are often used as simple repositories, it would be better to connect all of the activities in an eBook. Unlike PDF format books, designed mainly to be used as hardcopy (normally, PDF files are printed out before being read), eBooks are in ePub format and can be used via any kind of device. In an ePub book, the size and layout of text can be changed, notes can be added and sections highlighted, thus further customising the learning process.

*Epubeditor*²³ is an Italian tool for the creation of digital books in ePub format. It currently has approximately 35,000 registered users and is being used by many Italian schools. The added value of this versatile and easy-to-use tool is the sharing of collaborative writing. In short, it allows the creation of a book written by various hands. It can be used to create teachers' lecture notes or of students' notes. Furthermore, using html code it is possible to embed all of the tools mentioned above.


Here is a simple tutorial for using *Epubeditor*.

An italian tool to create ebook

www.epubeditor.it



Sign in with facebook or google account



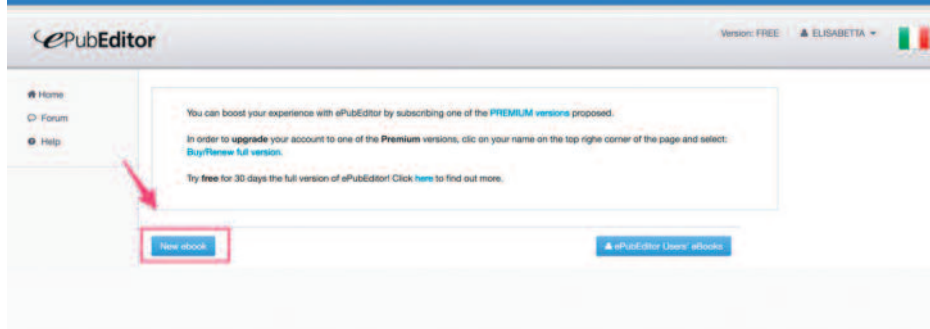
Scegli il tipo di sottoscrizione:

Free Componente di team	<p>gratuito versione con funzioni base. Per dettagli e contenuti vedi qui.</p> <p>Se ti stai registrando come componente di un team, inserisci il codice che ti è stato comunicato dal responsabile del tuo team, altrimenti lascia pure vuoto questo campo.</p> <p>Codice Team: <input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/></p>
Single	<p>37.40 36.00 Euro/anno offerta lancio! versione completa.</p>
Team	<p>138.40 90.00 Euro/anno offerta lancio! versione completa, solo un massimo di 30 utenti che potranno registrarsi gratuitamente presentando il codice assegnato al team.</p>
Team Extended	<p>344.70 200.00 Euro/anno offerta lancio! versione completa, con un numero illimitato di utenti che potranno registrarsi gratuitamente presentando il codice assegnato al team.</p>

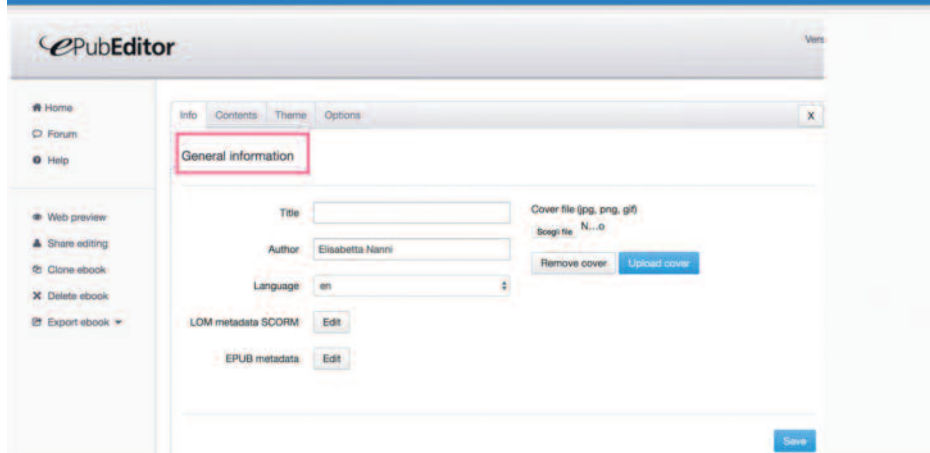
For the beginning choose free account

²³ www.epubeditor.it.

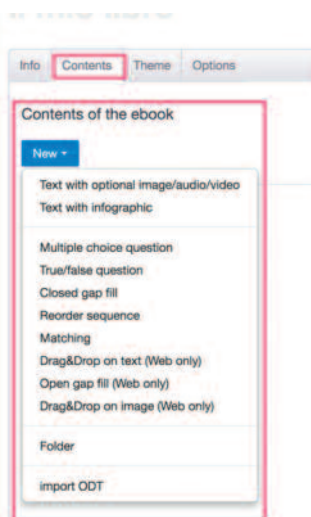
How to create ebook

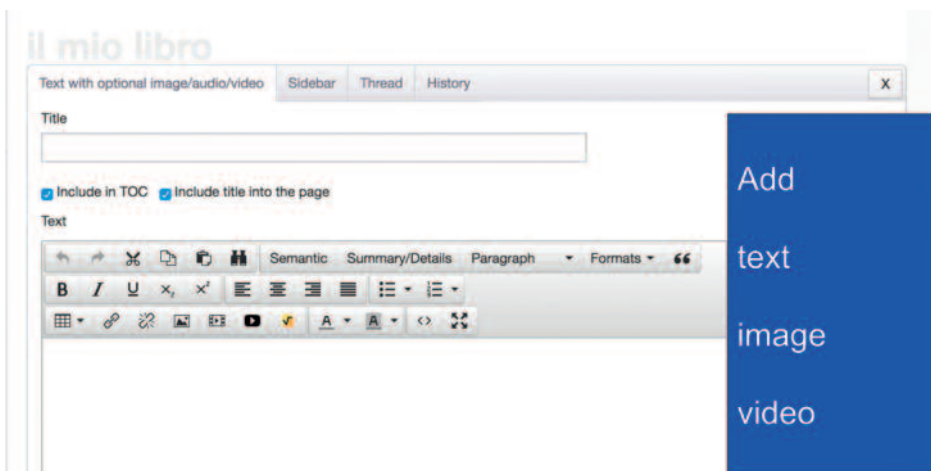


Choose a title for your ebook

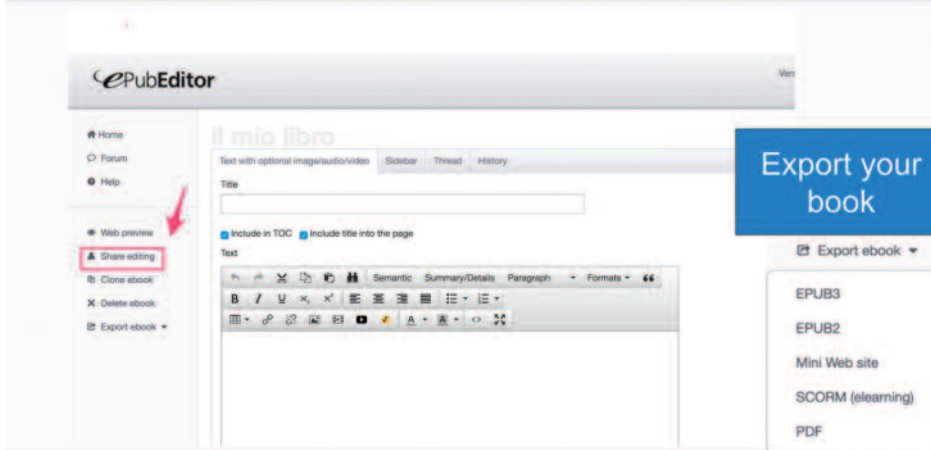


Choose content for your book





Share to collaborate writing with other teachers and students



Conclusion

This section has provided an overview of some of the most useful and user-friendly digital tools for teaching, learning, communication and assessment. The tools described and exemplified have enormous potential to facilitate and enhance students' sense of autonomy and teachers' effectiveness. Our learners are growing up as 'digital natives', accustomed to getting information and communicating online. In the 21st century classroom – and outside the classroom – digital resources form an essential part of the teacher's 'toolkit'. But digital technology advances at an increasingly rapid rate, so readers should be aware that this section can only be a work-in-progress, and that new web tools will be added and updated on a regular basis.

Note

Readers can obtain an overview of all of the tools mentioned in this section by navigating the map “Tools for learning languages”²⁴ created using *Mindomo*. Access to this content is also possible via QR codes. These are special codes that can be scanned and then takes the user to a website page containing the required information. This is done via an app, or via Android or IOS systems. Thanks to their special features, QR codes can be very useful for teaching activities, such as creating additional materials and resources, or for assigning homework, for example. When used to share notes or content, it is even possible, via *QR Voice*²⁵, to record an audio track inside the QR code.

²⁴ <http://goo.gl/prR0KG>.

²⁵ <http://qrvoice.net/>.

SECTION 4

BEST PRACTICE IN TEACHER TRAINING

Sitting next to Nellie is a term used to describe poor-quality on-the-job training where a trainee is not instructed by a qualified trainer but instead is expected to learn how to do the job by observing someone who has been doing the job for years (i.e. Nellie). Such training is not planned or systematic, but instead is haphazard and variable. Although the trainee might glean much of Nellie's expertise, he or she will also pick up her bad habits. And although Nellie might well be personable, she does not necessarily have the skills to train others.

www.oxfordreference.com

This definition seems rather unkind to Nellie, and in fact, 'sitting next to Nellie' is a time-honoured way of passing on technical skills and is still the basis of much on-the-job training – including much of the training received by teachers in many parts of the world. Whether just starting their careers or seeking mid-career professional refreshment, teachers can, of course, learn a great deal from observing experienced colleagues. And as long as the model provided is a good one, emulating that model can be a good springboard for trainee teachers who need to have confidence in an approach that they know will work before they start trying out variations and moving on eventually to create their own original classroom activities. But if training is to have any lasting effect, it needs to take teachers beyond this kind of apprenticeship and provide them with an understanding of the rationale informing their classroom practice.

Teacher training, whether it takes the form of extended courses or in-service seminars and workshops, needs ideally to strike a balance between the practical and the theoretical. Training courses and sessions that focus exclusively on classroom practice to the exclusion of underlying principles are unlikely to have any durable impact on teaching – they may appear to make a difference initially, but any change will probably be short-lived. By contrast, training that concentrates on theory not anchored to classroom practice may produce one kind of (declarative) knowledge *about* teaching without sufficient connection to another kind of (procedural) knowledge of *how* to teach.

It seems clear, therefore, that the most effective teacher training will strike a balance between the two extremes described above. Furthermore, the stronger the connections between theory and practice, the more coherent the training will be and the more likely it is to have a lasting effect. A number of models and frameworks have been proposed in the literature on teacher training which suggest ways of integrating and relating the different elements that should form part of an effective training experience.

4.1 'Activities and procedures for teacher training' (Ellis 1986)

Rod Ellis makes a broad distinction between two types of teacher training practices, which he calls 'experiential' and 'awareness-raising'. As well as the actual teaching practicum conducted with real classes, the experiential label can be applied to peer teaching / micro-teaching, while awareness-raising relates to practices aimed at the understanding of underlying principles and extending trainees' repertoires of classroom techniques. As Ellis points out, these two approaches are not mutually exclusive: teacher training will often be a combination of the two, for example, in the post-lesson reflection and evaluation that is a feature of most supervised teaching practice. Pre-service courses (e.g. Cambridge CELTA or Trinity Cert TESOL) will tend to privilege the experiential, while in-service trainees (e.g. Cambridge Delta or Trinity Dip TESOL) who are assumed to have mastered fundamental aspects of classroom practice will tend to focus to a greater extent on awareness-raising.

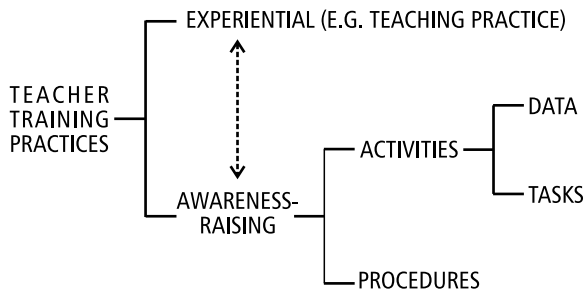


Figure 1 - An outline of teacher-training practices

Ellis goes on to focus on the awareness-raising side of his model, sub-categorising these practices into the 'activities' and 'procedures' signalled in his title. Activities are further sub-divided into 'data' and 'tasks', which provide valuable checklists for the trainer of the kinds of material that the trainer can make use of and the training operations that can be employed to make use of such materials. Data can include:

- Audio or video recordings of lessons.
- Transcripts of lessons.
- Readings.
- Textbook materials.
- Lesson plans.
- Case studies.
- Samples of students' written work.

(To this list could be added classroom teaching, peer teaching and micro-teaching, although these belong on the experiential side of the model.) The tasks that trainees can be asked to carry out with these kinds of data can involve one or more of the following:

- Comparing.
- Preparing.
- Evaluating.
- Improving.
- Adapting.
- Listing.
- Selecting.
- Ranking.
- Adding/completing.
- Rearranging.

And these are the procedures that complete Ellis's taxonomy of awareness-raising practices:

- Lectures.
- Group / pair discussion.
- Workshops.
- Individual assignments.
- Demonstrations.
- Elicitation.
- Plenary discussion.
- Panel discussion.

Ellis's data, tasks and procedures provide teacher trainers with a useful checklist of the options available to them in terms of materials, operations and modes of delivery. But his model is static and does not take into account the dimension of time, which is addressed explicitly by Donard Britten.

4.2 'Three stages in teacher training' (Britten 1988)

In a sense, teacher training is a career-long process, and Britten's article was an early view of the types of progression involved. Table 1 captures the tensions inherent in any teacher training programme between the needs of trainees at the initial stages of training ('first desideratum') and the skills and behaviours which they need to develop as they gain more experience ('second desideratum').

TOPIC IN TRAINING	FIRST DESIDERATUM vs. SECOND DESIDERATUM	
Guided observation	Directly observable behaviours	More significant categories
Skills training	Prescriptive approach to basic skills (lockstep training)	Exploratory approach to develop individual teacher's potential
ELT approach	Focus on the teacher (for training purposes)	Learner-centred teaching (for better learning)
Evaluation of teaching performance	Assessments made or checked by trainers	Practice in self-assessment
Methodology component	Need to impart knowledge (lectures)	Reflexive principle: practice what you preach
Working mode	Small groups for attitude development	Individual for self-reliance

Table 1

Britten's discussion of these inherent tensions in approaches to teacher training leads him to suggest three forms of progression (shown in Table 2) which might form a useful principle in the design of any extended training programme.

PROGRESSION OF	FROM	TO
Scale	Small learner groups Short teaching encounters	Full classes Whole lessons and lesson sequences
Integration	Isolated skills or lesson segments Skills objectives	Skills integrated to achieve learning objectives
Autonomy	Lesson planning and evaluation by trainer or group	Individual planning and self-assessment

Table 2

4.3 The Cambridge English Trainer Framework (Cambridge English & NILE 2016)

A greatly elaborated version of Britten's concept of progression to describe a developmental schedule in teacher training has been produced recently (2016) in the Cambridge English Trainer Framework (developed by Cambridge English in collaboration with NILE, the Norwich Institute for Language Education). The Framework is an extension of the **Cambridge English Teaching Framework** and aims to:

- help trainers to identify where they are in their professional career;
- help trainers and their employers to plan professional development pathways;
- explore research into trainer development.

The framework supports trainer development by tracking progression as a trainer across five main categories, each broken down into framework components, and three stages of competency: *From Teacher to Trainer*, *Autonomous Trainer* and *Lead Trainer*. The framework allows for flexible progress, based on individual training development. It can be used for full-time, part-time, and occasional trainers, as well as roles that incorporate some form of training. As professional needs change, the framework can be used to profile and identify development priorities.

The five main categories are:

- Understanding of individuals and situations.
- Knowledge of teaching, training and teacher development.
- Planning, conducting and evaluating training activities.
- Supporting, observing feeding back on and assessing teaching.
- Professional development and values.

The chart on the next page provides an overview of these five categories of trainer development at each of the three stages of competency. It is worth pointing out that the framework is a descriptive tool and a trainer may find him/herself at different points on the scale at different times, depending on the particular training situation they are in. As with foreign language learning, you can be C1 in some contexts and A2 in others!



	From Teacher to Trainer	Autonomous Trainer	Lead Trainer
Understanding of individuals and situations	Conducts training in familiar or predictable situations largely based on the trainer's own teaching experience. Deals with predictable individual needs using basic strategies. Demonstrates basic sensitivity to diversity when planning and conducting training.	Conducts training for diverse groups in a variety of situations based on their own and others' teaching experience. Plans in advance to deal with individual needs and attempts to deal with emergent needs using a range of strategies. Demonstrates a diversity-oriented approach to planning and conducting training.	Based on thorough advance needs analysis, often in unfamiliar situations, efficiently deals with needs of individuals, including emergent needs, using a wide range of strategies. Demonstrates deep sensitivity to diversity when planning and conducting training.
Knowledge of teaching, training and teacher development	Demonstrates a clear understanding of language systems, including basic language analysis strategies, and core principles of effective teaching practice, which in turn informs their training. Is aware that training differs from teaching. Demonstrates basic training principles. Uses a limited range of resources.	Understands a number of language analysis strategies. Demonstrates a range of effective core teaching principles and practices. Is aware of non-core teaching practices. Demonstrates a clear understanding of how training is different from teaching. Demonstrates effective training principles. Uses a wide range of resources.	Uses a wide range of language analysis strategies. Demonstrates a wide range of effective core and non-core teaching principles and practice. Demonstrates a range of training approaches, in-depth understanding of a wide range of theoretical concepts in the field as well as practical know-how. Uses an extensive range of resources.
Planning, conducting and evaluating training activities	Conducts pre-prepared training activities with given materials with support. Demonstrates a basic ability to plan, conduct and evaluate teacher training activities.	Adapts given training materials for a particular audience appropriately. Demonstrates a clear and coherent approach to and rationale for planning, conducting and evaluating teacher training activities.	Designs, through principled application and innovation, learning units and courses to meet a wide range of individual needs. Manages the complex interplay of situational factors related to planning, conducting and evaluating training activities.
Supporting, observing, feeding back on and assessing teaching	Sets up and conducts classroom observations using given tools and procedures. Offers general feedback on areas for improvement in teaching and suggests basic strategies for teacher learning. Generally applies given assessment criteria accurately.	Employs a range of observation methods. Applies given observation tools and procedures appropriately. Offers specific feedback on areas for improvement. Suggests clear and appropriate strategies for teacher learning. Consistently applies assessment criteria accurately. Critically appraises given assessment criteria and feeds into their development where necessary.	Creates, through principled application and innovation, tools and procedures for observing and giving feedback. Nurtures specific needs, including emergent needs, and suggests a wide range of clear and appropriate strategies for teacher learning. Researches assessment tool effectiveness and develops assessment criteria for specific situations.
Professional development and values	Uses beliefs about own teaching practice to inform training values and practice. Responds positively to feedback on their training and demonstrates basic understanding of trainer and teacher-in-training roles in the training process. Is aware of resources available to support trainer professional development.	Uses own and others' teaching practice and beliefs as a basis for reflection and developing training values and practice. Seeks feedback on their own training and demonstrates good understanding of trainer and teacher-in-training roles in the training process. Is actively exploring avenues for their own development and specialisation within the field of teacher training.	Exemplifies own values and clearly defined beliefs through training practice. Acknowledges diverse viewpoints and encourages the articulation of emerging beliefs of teachers-in-training. Builds feedback on their own training into the training process and demonstrates a deep understanding of trainer and teacher-in-training roles. Uses contemporary research and critical reflection to continue own professional development while supporting others in developing appropriate specialisms.

CE/4390/6Y04 © UCLES 2016

4.4 The EROTI Model (O'Brien 1981)

Tony O'Brien's EROTI Model comprises five inter-related components: Experience, Rationale, Observation, Trial and Integration:

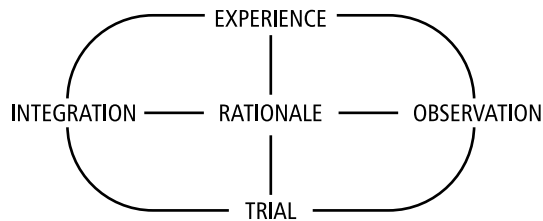


Figure 2

- **E**xperience refers to experiential activities where teachers adopt the role of learners to try out new practices in the teacher training classroom.
- **R**ationale applies to the theoretical component of teacher training – the underlying principles informing new practices.
- **O**bservation may be of peers within a training session or during teaching practice, or of the trainer or another experienced colleague teaching a demonstration lesson, or of a regular lesson (whether live or video-recorded).
- **T**rial is the stage at which the teacher tries out some new practice in his/her own classroom.
- **I**ntegration is the process whereby new practices become part of the teacher's personal teaching repertoire.

As Figure 3 clearly illustrates, Trial and Integration presuppose previous stages, whereas Experience, Rationale and Observation all offer possible points of entry to any training sequence, and the double-headed arrows indicate possible pathways within the model. It is also worth emphasising that Rationale does not have to be delivered in a single monolithic block (e.g. a lecture), but may be interspersed throughout a session, or throughout the whole sequence, in smaller chunks.

The essential feature of O'Brien's model is its flexibility. Rather than imposing a unitary view of how sequences of training should be structured, it provides trainers with a framework of planning options, and O'Brien gives examples of ways in which the elements of the model can be used to guide and check the organisation of individual sessions as well as longer sequences.

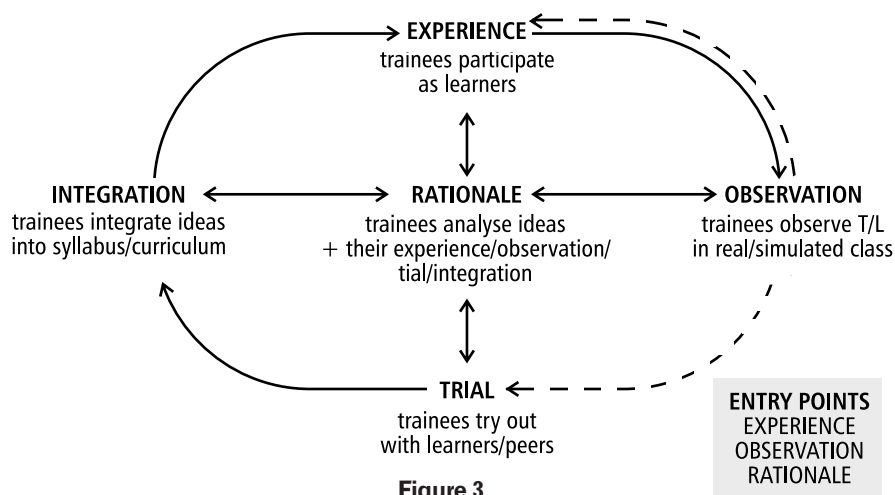


Figure 3

4.5 'Feeding, Leading, Showing, Throwing: Process choices in teacher training' (McGrath 1997)

Ian McGrath suggests a similarly flexible way of categorising and sequencing process options in teacher training:

- 'Feeding', as the name suggests, applies to input (the transmission of information), though it is not intended to imply that trainees should simply be passive receivers. For example, lectures can be broken up with pair work tasks, 'buzz group' activities or opportunities for intervention, while reading can also be made more interactive by breaking up texts with tasks or questions for reflection.
- 'Leading' refers to elicitation techniques and entire activities that draw on teachers' previous knowledge and experience. It is naturally more time-consuming than feeding, but its great advantage is that through experiential activities it creates the conditions for trainees to construct their own knowledge ("Tell me and I forget; teach me and I remember; involve me and I learn").
- 'Showing' may apply to models that teachers are required to follow, to examples that they can adapt, or to experiential activities where they take the role of learners and learn by doing. McGrath points out that Tessa Woodward (1988) also mentions the value of what she calls 'anti-models', deliberately bad examples of teaching behaviour not to be copied.
- 'Throwing' is again concerned with learning by doing, but in this case doing the job (i.e. teaching) itself, whether through peer teaching or observed teaching real students. Throwing may be carefully scaffolded and supported with clear guidelines (e.g. the early teaching practice sessions on an initial training course) or it may be more of a 'deep end' strategy. (The comparison is with throwing someone into the deep end of a swimming pool to encourage them to learn to swim!).

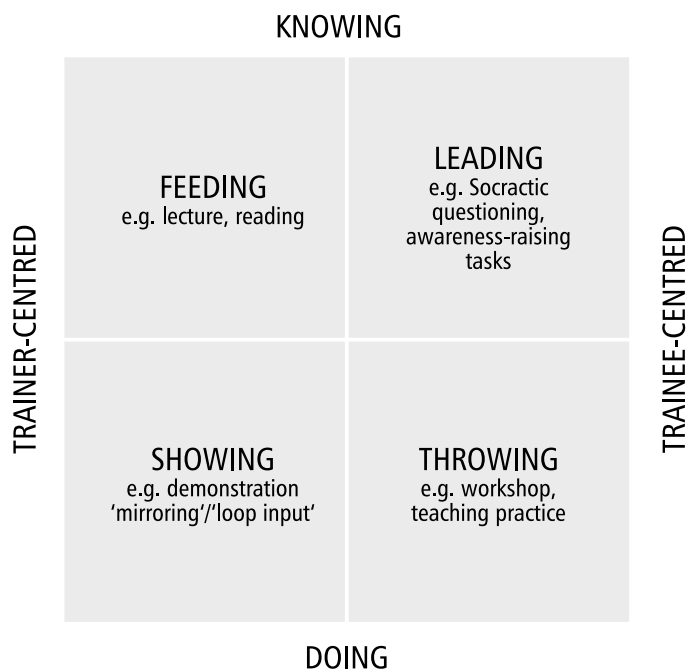


Figure 4

As can be seen from McGrath's grid, the training practices in two upper quadrants have more to do with the acquisition of knowledge, while those in the two lower quadrants are more concerned with the application of knowledge. Looking at the horizontal axis, the practices on the left-hand side will tend to be more trainer-led, while those on the right will tend to focus on what the trainee teacher brings to – or has taken from – the training process.

McGrath's model shares with O'Brien's the flexibility of multiple pathways. Some possible chains or sequences, for example, could be:

- Feeding (o Leading) → Showing → Throwing
- Showing → Feeding → Throwing
- Throwing → Showing

What all the training practices described above have in common are the ways in which they attempt to take account of the complex processes involved in effective training. They all seek to identify the necessary balance between theory and practice, between experience and reflection, between authority of the professional literature and the discovery of first-hand classroom teaching. They are all valuable reminders of the range of options available to the conscientious trainer, the possible interplay of approaches that the trainer can employ and most of all, that training processes can be configured and re-configured in many different ways.

References

- Britten, D. (1988): Three stages in teacher training, in *ELT Journal* Volume 42/1 January 1988.
- Cambridge English Trainer Framework** (accessed 13/07/16)
- Introduction: <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/297310-cambridge-english-trainer-framework-introduction.pdf>.
- Complete framework: <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/297312-cambridge-english-trainer-framework.pdf>.
- Ellis, R. (1986): Activities and procedures for teacher training, in *ELT Journal* Volume 40/2. April 1986.
- McGrath, I. (1997): Feeding, leading, showing, throwing: Process choices in teacher training and trainer training". In McGrath, I. [Ed] *Learning to Train: Perspectives on the Development of Language Teacher Trainers*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall in association with The British Council.
- O'Brien, T. (1981): "The E.R.O.T.I Model: a stimulating guide for teacher training". In Marsh, G. [Ed] *ELT Documents 110: Focus on the Teacher* London: The British Council.

SECTION 5

BEST PRACTICE IN ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT

For effective teaching and learning to take place, it is essential to have a set of academic procedures and processes in place to support this. The majority of successful educational organisations have an institutional vision that will help all stakeholders understand the learning objectives and ethos of the school. This vision should be explicitly stated in a departmental handbook.

Teaching and learning

It is important that an educational organisation puts forward an agreed approach to teaching and learning. The approach should identify an agreed teaching methodology (eg: broadly communicative) with its attendant implications such as language of instruction, adherence to a prescribed syllabus, use of pair and groupwork, personalisation, error correction, pronunciation teaching, setting of homework. The approach will frequently be a reflection of a broader educational philosophy adhered to by the centre.

It is important that this approach is communicated to all stakeholders so that parents and students can be confident that there is a logical, coherent approach to learning that all teachers and academic managers are aware of and actively promote.

Evaluation and Assessment

It is important that students and parents can measure the progress of learning in any subject. It is also important that teachers can be confident that progress is as expected. If not, it is likely that some remedial measure will be put into place so that the majority of students can keep up with the syllabus. This is normally done through regular formative and summative assessment and letting students know the results. Formative (or progress) testing measures recent learning whilst summative (or achievement) testing refers to what has been learned as a result of work carried out during the whole year.

It is important that the centre has a consistent testing policy that is adhered to by all teachers and that any testing has face validity, appropriate content and that teachers are standardised for the marking of such tests.

Professional Development

It is a generally accepted belief that all professionals can continue to develop as they progress through their careers. The centre needs to provide opportunities for profes-

sional development so that teachers and support staff don't become stale or left behind when new practice becomes widespread. The advent of new technology is a good example of this; are there ways to help students learn foreign languages using computers, mobile phones and tablets? Are teachers aware of these new technologies and how they can support students? Does the centre provide the necessary training?

Professional development can take many forms including:

- **Developmental observations:** well-established and effective classroom practitioners observe a teacher and subsequently provide constructive feedback. In this way the teacher can learn from a more experienced colleague or mentor. In some cases there may be a particular focus for the observation such as classroom management, pronunciation teaching, adapting the coursebook etc. A developmental observation should be entirely constructive, non-threatening and it is likely the result will remain confidential to the teacher and person observing.
- **In-service training sessions:** training workshops and seminars are given to teachers on a regular basis. These can be used to exemplify teaching techniques or procedures, to introduce new materials, to discuss teaching and learning issues, to present new technologies etc. They can be given by external consultants, onsite academic management staff and/or teachers with an area of expertise or knowledge. Often the best in-service sessions are delivered by local staff with an understanding of the prevailing context. Account should be taken, where possible, of the different levels of expertise and experience found in the local staff when designing an in-service programme. On occasions, more extensive training (anything from a full day to two week specialist courses) can be the shot in the arm that some teachers will find stimulating and career enhancing.
- **Mentoring:** a teacher is paired up with a mentor and works with that person for a period of time. The working together could include joint lesson planning, identification of suitable strategies and materials for a particular lesson or sequence of lessons and team-teaching with subsequent reflection.
- **Peer observation:** many professionals learn from working alongside each other. Unfortunately, in the world of education teachers have found themselves relatively isolated and devoid of opportunities to compare best practice. Peer observation gives teachers the opportunity to see how other professionals teach; this should be a developmental process. It may need careful setting up so that teachers who have particular skills (eg: classroom management, creative teaching techniques) are targeted for those particular skills.
- **Supplementary Resources:** in order for teachers to keep in touch with developments in their field it is important that they have access to new materials, as well as teacher resource books and methodology handbooks. A teachers' resources library should be an essential component of any effective educational centre.
- **Conferences:** sponsoring attendance at professional conferences is another option to enable academic managers help themselves or their teachers develop.
- **Action research:** this is a procedure whereby teachers set themselves a specific task to research in the classroom. The collection of data will help them analyse what hap-

pens in the classroom and reflect on how things could be done differently. The process is refined and repeated over a number of iterations in a set period of time.

Internal Communication

The department needs to be certain that all stakeholders are kept informed of necessary information and departmental policy at all times. This is likely to entail regular meetings for which an agenda is set in advance and which is minuted and communicated to any member of staff who may be absent. Meetings are likely to include information about classes, timetables, the syllabus, materials being used, any professional development initiatives, details of evaluation and assessment arrangements, classroom observations, reports, communication with parents etc. It is also important that staff are consulted on issues whenever possible, so space should be left at meetings for this.

Quality assurance

Quality assurance procedures are crucial in ensuring that the learners can be confident that they are being effectively taught. These procedures can exist in many forms including:

- **Self-evaluation audits:** ideally an organisation should be able to evaluate itself and develop according to its findings. A template with set criteria helps the organisation to be more rigorous. The criteria should be open and accessible to all staff.
- **External inspections or audits:** sometimes it is useful to have a fresh pair of eyes looking at the various aspects of the organisation. In many countries there are official inspection bodies such as Ofsted and the Independent Schools Inspectorate (ISI) in the UK. These bodies carry out two or three day inspections of all aspects of a school and report openly on their findings (reports are made available online). In certain cases schools which are deemed to be failing are put into special measures²⁶ so that improvements can be made. Alternatively, a representative from a local school can act as a 'critical friend' and carry out an audit according to set criteria. This model can be developmental for both sides.
- **Observation of lessons:** in order to be confident that teaching is effective and follows the methodology advocated by the department.
- **Feedback:** feedback from teachers, parents and students is often a useful tool for monitoring the success of a language learning programme. Feedback can be collected through questionnaires or focus groups.

²⁶ Special measures: applied to schools when Ofsted considers that they fail to supply an acceptable level of education and appear to lack the leadership capacity necessary to secure improvements. A school subject to special measures will have regular short-notice Ofsted inspections to monitor its improvement. The senior managers and teaching staff can be dismissed and the school governors replaced by an appointed executive committee. If poor performance continues, the school may be closed.

It is important that note is taken of the information gathered in the above audits, inspections and feedback, and any suggestions for improvement are considered and, if found valid, acted upon.

Conclusion

In many schools, universities and other educational organisations most attention is rightly given to the quality of teaching and learning. However, behind every successful learning programme lies an academic management team that can support and help develop the learning process. As indicated above, this support can be delivered in many ways: by recruiting the best teachers for the job, by providing an effective induction programme, by reviewing and developing the curriculum according to the changing context of language teaching, by inputting new materials when relevant, by helping teachers develop professionally and by setting up processes and procedures understood by all members of the department and finally by establishing effective quality assurance procedures. Even more important is the ability to create a sense of a language teaching team that can work together, exchange ideas, support each other and have a sense of pride in the achievements of the department. Regular communication with members of the department is necessary and this should include opportunities for teachers and ancillary staff to give feedback on aspects of the department so a sense of joint ownership is achieved.

It is crucial, therefore, that those with some form of academic responsibility are well-chosen, have the respect of their peers and are sufficiently trained to carry out their duties. For example, most practitioners would agree that effective observation and feedback is a complex skill and anybody not familiar with this should receive training.

The effectiveness of academic management will be considered in the school visits carried out by the Erasmus Plus PAL team members.

SECTION 6

BEST PRACTICE IN SCHOOL NEEDS ANALYSIS

This section describes best practice in school needs analysis, focusing on principles and procedures for school inspections, evaluation criteria and approaches to classroom observation.

6.1 School inspections

Ofsted Inspection criteria

Ofsted is a non-ministerial government department, headed by Her Majesty's Chief Inspector. It is independent of the Department of Education, reporting without 'fear or favour'.

Inspectors – recruitment and training

Inspectors are recruited based upon an assessment of key competencies, including skills of analysis, evaluation, leadership and communication. Ofsted approves the process and the training materials. Inspectors must have degrees and a track record of experience in schools.

Key judgements for evaluation of schools

Inspectors judge the quality of education provided by the school based on:

1. Achievement – attainment and progress of pupils.
2. Teaching and learning.
3. Behaviour and safety of students.
4. Leadership and management – including curriculum.

These judgements are underpinned by an assessment of how well the school promotes the pupils' spiritual, moral, social and cultural development (SMSC).

The evaluation process

Schools are given notice of a period within which the inspection will take place. Parameters are set for the school's involvement, establishing a professional dialogue.

Questions are raised from data to formulate key trails.

During the inspection, inspectors scrutinize outcomes for groups according to:

- Disability or special educational needs.
- Disadvantages – socio-economic circumstances.
- Gender.
- Ability.
- Ethnicity.

Judgements are made based on evaluation of:

- First-hand evidence.
- Observations of lessons.
- Scrutiny of performance data.
- Scrutiny of student work.
- Scrutiny of documents.
- Scrutiny of information relating to teacher development and performance management.

Grading of schools

Schools are graded in one of the following categories:

- Outstanding.
- Good.
- Requires improvement.
- Inadequate – Serious weaknesses or special measures.

After the inspection a report is produced, setting out the strengths and weaknesses of the school and making recommendations for improvement. These reports are written for the parents and the community, and will have important consequences for the head teacher.

Timing of inspections – rewards and sanctions

Not all schools are inspected with equal regularity – outstanding schools are exempt unless causing concern; good schools are inspected within 5 years of their last inspection; satisfactory schools are inspected every 3 years; inadequate schools are inspected more frequently. Schools in special measures require regular monitoring.

The value of the inspection

The inspection process seeks to ensure the best opportunities for young people regardless of age, gender, ethnicity or socio-economic status. The inspectors work collaboratively with school leaders in the interests of young people.

Here are two examples of the effectiveness of the Ofsted process:

- Schools that have failed inspection experience a more rapid improvement in test results [Hussain, I. *Subjective performance in the Public Sector: Evidence from school inspections* (2012)].
- A secondary school judged to be inadequate was subsequently judged outstanding and ranked in the top 3% of all schools nationally for their English results [*Sustaining improvement – the journey from special measures* (Ofsted 2008)].

6.2 Lesson observations

Observations can provide a snapshot of a long-term endeavour. They are, however, seen by many teachers as being a stressful process, both because they are often carried out by someone viewed as an 'outsider' to the class or course, and because they are viewed as 'high-stakes'.

In order for the observation process to involve as little stress to the teacher as possible, and to be as effective as possible, a number of recommendations can be made.

- **To reduce the bias and 'baggage' of the observer**

The observer may come to the class or course with their own preconceptions of what should be done or what they would do in the teacher's place.

To reduce this, the observer should:

- focus on what the teacher is trying to do, and aim to understand why they are doing it, avoiding thinking about what they might do themselves in a similar situation;
- talk to the teacher before the observation, to understand the class and course from their point of view;
- go into the observation aiming to learn from the teacher and the class;
- be fully present in the observation, clearing the mind of any other concerns.

- **To reduce the 'perception gap' between teacher and observer**

The observer – seated and at the back of the class – may have a very different physical view of what is taking place from that of the teacher. The observer – having had little contact with the students – may also find it difficult to see the class and the teacher from their point of view.

To reduce this, the observer should:

- use the post-lesson feedback to explore the differences in perceptions between teacher and observer;
- explore the lesson from multiple perspectives: teacher, students and observer;
- treat each of the perspectives as having equal validity.

- **To reduce the impact of the observer's presence**

Observation of a class has the potential to alter the interaction between those in the class, potentially producing a 'staged' lesson that bears little relation to what takes place there normally.

To reduce this, the observer should:

- keep a low profile in the class, distracting learners and teacher as little as possible;
- be introduced to the class as someone interested in the learning (and teaching) taking place, rather than someone assessing or evaluating;
- agree with the teacher prior to the lesson what they will be doing in the class – e.g. in terms of their taking notes;

- avoid taking part in the lesson as much as possible, unless invited to do so by the teacher.
- **The question of assessment**
Despite the best of intentions for the observation process, it often has to have an element of assessment, particularly when conducted with newly recruited or newly trained teachers.
 To reduce the (negative) impact this may have:
 - Be clear and transparent about the criteria being used for the assessment.
 - Be careful about the gathering of information during the lesson, minimising the use of checklists in order to retain the 'bigger picture' and avoid overemphasis on micro-issues.
 - Ensure that those observing and assessing receive regular training and development, helping them to pay attention to the issues raised above.

6.3 Appreciative Inquiry (AI)

Here we describe the principles and practice of Appreciative Inquiry (AI), which as the name suggests, is an innovative alternative to school inspection, designed to build on positive achievement rather than the deficit perspective of conventional inspection. Its relevance to the PAL Project can be seen in terms of its positive outlook and its philosophy of support for institutional development rather than any intention simply to identify problems and shortcomings.

Appreciative Inquiry (AI) originated in the late 1980s as a reconfiguration of action research that has been adopted in a number of organisational settings. Rather than focusing on what is wrong, AI practitioners ask affirming questions and encourage participants to focus on what works. The aim of the 4-D (Discovery, Dream, Design, and Destiny or Delivery) AI Cycle is transformational change, arising out of collaborative inquiry with participants.

Principles

Four beliefs about human nature and human organising are the foundation of AI, and highlight its roots in social constructivist theory:

- People individually and collectively have unique gifts, skills and contributions to bring to life.
- Organisations are human social systems, sources of unlimited relational capacity, created and lived in language.
- The images we hold of the future are socially created and, once articulated, serve to guide individual and collective actions.
- Through human communication (inquiry and dialogue) people can shift their at-

tention and action away from problem analysis to lift up worthy ideals and productive possibilities for the future.

The transformational elements of AI reside in its claims that it generates new knowledge and results in generative metaphors²⁷ that compel new action.

A summary of the five ‘foundational principles’ of AI is provided in Table 3 below. These principles are derived from social constructionism, image theory and grounded theory. From social constructionism comes the notion that social reality is constructed and maintained through language and communication. From image theory comes the notion that people’s decisions are influenced by the images they hold of their future. And from grounded research come the notions that participants hold the key to understanding their culture or reality, and that any research is also an intervention.

PRINCIPLE	DEFINITION
The Constructionist Principle	Reality is socially constructed through language
The Simultaneity Principle	Change begins from the moment a question is asked
The Poetic Principle	Our choice of what we study determines what we discover
The Anticipatory Principle	Our image of the future shapes the present
The Positive Principle	Positive questioning leads to positive change

Table 3 - Summary of the five foundational principles of Appreciative Inquiry
Whitney & Trosten-Bloom (2003)

AI is described as a change from more conventional problem-solving approaches to organisational improvement that tend to focus on what is not working, or what is wrong. Such approaches can include strategic planning, restructuring, redesigning work and project management. According to Sullivan (2004) the deficit-based thinking underpinning these approaches emphasises “... problems; ... people who are perceived to be causing these problems; [criticism] of ideas, accomplishments, and the people involved; and a focus on resources that are limited or lacking.” McKenzie (2003) argues that such problem-solving, deficit-based approaches have a negative effect on an organisation (in her case, school climate and student achievement) and do not produce effective, positive solutions that enable an organisation to change and move forward.

²⁷ Generative metaphors are sayings that tend to juxtapose two words in evocative ways that ‘unstick’ social systems, for example, ‘sustainable development’ (Bushe & Kassam, 2005).

AI, by contrast, has been described as: strength-based, asset-based, ethnographic, a strategic planning model, participatory and a system-wide approach. AI seeks to discover what works in an organisation based on the assumption that solutions already reside within the organisation. In this way, it is argued, AI can describe a preferred future for the organisation alongside an understanding of how an organisation can build toward that future.

Transformational organisational change is associated with a more radical AI change prescription, namely, changing how people think rather than changing what they do. It is also associated with an improvisational, rather than planned, approach to change. Organisations are acknowledged as dynamic, whole systems that change when improvised action by members is encouraged.

Elliot (1999) described AI within evaluation as a teaching and training exercise as much as an evaluative one. It invited stakeholders to “reflect on their best practice rather than admit their failures and unsolved problems” (p. 203).

Definitions of AI often stress the collaborative nature of the research whereby groups create a vision for themselves based on affirmations from their past. In order to create this dialogue participants are engaged in interviewing one another. AI brings with it the promise of “enhanced relationships and communications while building enthusiasm, ownership, commitment, and a sense of purpose which [is] shared both within and outside [an] organization” (Trosten-Bloom & Whitney, 1999). AI has also been found to accelerate learning, stimulate creativity, and enhance people’s capacity for change.

AI practitioners do not...[turn] a blind eye to the negative and difficult experiences that are a part of all organisational experiences. To them, opting to use AI is to choose a starting point from which to work, rather than to choose some naïve and idealistic end point at which you will arrive.

The AI ‘atmosphere’ created for research participants may lead to the over-disclosure of information. This might occur because of the very intimate and caring environment AI initially creates through the discussion of positives and strengths. This environment, in turn, may aid relationship building between researcher/ interviewer and participant so that the participant feels both comfortable and safe to disclose the ‘bad news’.

Application

The first step in AI is the selection of topics that the AI will focus on. The choice of topics has been described as “fateful”: when a group is selecting a topic of inquiry, the group will be asked, “Given that [people and groups] move in the direction of what they study, what is it that you want more of in [this group]?” Such a question leads to the selection of “affirmative topics.” An important issue in the selection of topics is who does the selecting, and the importance of “whole-system” involvement is stressed as a way of securing buy-in and motivation. This may mean, for example, that all divisions of an organisation are represented at the inquiry, or all stakeholders in a particular service are invited.

The selection of topics proceeds from an overview of AI, mini-interviews between participants, the identification of themes arising from the mini-interviews, the sharing

of stories and themes, and an overview of the criteria for topic selection. The mini-interviews set the tone for the interviewing that takes place throughout AI, with appreciative interviews described as an essential factor in successful AI within an organisational setting.

Appreciative interviews bring out the best in people and organizations. They provide opportunities for people to speak and be heard. They ignite curiosity and the spirit of learning, and in doing so enhance organizational knowledge and wisdom. They enhance the organization's positive core by surfacing stories that illuminate the distinctive strengths and potentials. And they bring positive possibilities for the future to life.

Following the selection of the topics the AI 4-D Cycle is embarked upon. This is made up of four stages: **Discovery**, **Dream**, **Design**, and **Destiny** or **Delivery**.

Figure 5 shows a 4-D Cycle that focuses on relationships.

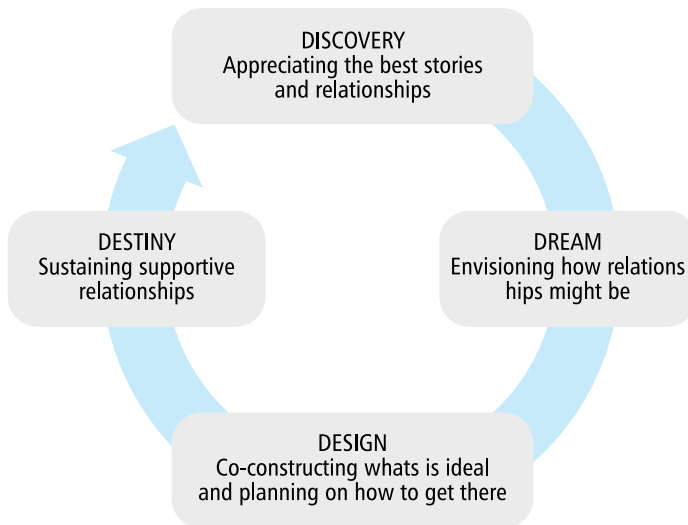


Figura 5 - An Appreciative Inquiry relational 4-D cycle

Adattato sulla base di Truschel (2007) e Stavros & Torres (2005)

In the **Discovery** stage, participants are asked to identify what is best about their group through appreciative interviews. The questions asked of or by participants are about eliciting a positive discourse (e.g., stories, examples, metaphors) about their organisational life. These discourses will be about their most memorable experiences and accomplishments in the area of focus.

Some AI studies have taken a very participatory approach by training a core group to ask these questions of other participants. This core group subsequently participates, alongside the researchers, in the analysis of the interviews.

The **Dream** stage involves "the creation of a vision that brings to light the collective aspirations of stakeholders" that emerged in the Discovery stage (Sullivan, 2004).

This stage is about challenging the status quo and building upon or expanding potential. Stavros and Torres (2005) pose dream questions such as “What world do we want to create? What best possible dream can we share together?” The ways in which people are encouraged to dream are multiple, including silent reflection, role-plays, poetry and song. In an organisational setting, a mission or a purpose statement will often be written at this stage.

Working together in small groups, participants share and discuss the data and stories collected in the Discovery phase. Even as these discussions ground them in the most positive aspects of their organization’s past, they inspire them to imagine possibilities – what ‘might be’ for themselves and their organization in relation to the world.

In the **Design** stage people work together to put a structure, or social architecture, to the Dream elucidated above. In an organisational setting this will include details about structure, systems, culture, and work design and environment.

In the 4-D cycle high-impact design elements are drawn from the interviews and dreams and turned into ‘Provocative Propositions’ (or Design Statements). These are written in the present tense and are statements of the ideal situation. For example, a provocative proposition from an AI at a high school was that “Teachers freely give their time to parents by responding to questions and concerns” (Ryan *et al.* 1999).

Destiny/Delivery is the final stage and is about the commitment of individuals and the group to achieve their aspirations. While change occurs at all phases of the 4-D Cycle, the Destiny phase focuses on paths forward. According to Stavros and Torres (2005) “Destiny says live the principles – stay awake, change, improvise, be open, and flexible, practice the principles in alignment with the design and the dream will emerge. Engage in supportive intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships.”

When this 4-D Cycle is followed, AI becomes a tool (or ‘methodology’) for change, with members of a group being active participants in both the discovery and implementation of goals and visions. Whitney and Trosten-Bloom (2003) describe AI as ‘improvisational’; it is loosely structured so that each AI is a ‘new creation’.

The appreciative approach involves collaborative inquiry, based on interviews and affirmative questioning, to collect and celebrate the good news stories of a community – those stories that enhance cultural identity, spirit and vision. AI is a way of seeing that is selectively attentive to – and affirming of – the best and highest qualities in a system, a situation or another human being.

Freely adapted from Fiona Cram, “Appreciative Inquiry”. MAI [Maori and Indigenous] Review, 2010, 3
<http://ojs.review.mai.ac.nz/index.php/MR/article/viewFile/366/527>

6.4 Self-Assessment: example taken from the EAQUALS handbook

EAQUALS provides its members with a questionnaire whose aim is to encourage those within an institution to conduct a systematic internal review, in line with the areas which would be considered as part of an EAQUALS inspection. The questionnaire covers 12 areas.

	STAFF INVOLVED	AREAS INCLUDED
Teaching	Teachers, teacher trainers, academic managers	Pedagogic approach, syllabus, appropriate methodological approach, learning aims, language used
Academic Management Curriculum and Syllabus		Curriculum document, descriptors – can do statements, placement, syllabus and lesson plans, records of work
Academic Management Progress Assessment and Certification		Progress testing and feedback, homework, preparation for public exams, certification
Academic Management Quality Assurance	As above & owners	Lesson observation systems and feedback, training and teacher development, self-assessment
Academic Resources	Teachers & appropriate admin	Appropriate facilities and resources, maintenance, reporting and training, materials awareness and adaptation
Other Services and Course Participants	Appropriate admin	Contracts and conditions prior to course, advice systems, social & leisure programmes, accommodation, student welfare, attendance and absence
Staff Contracts, Terms and Conditions	All staff	Contracts and conditions – clear, complying with law, conditions, clear systems for grievance and discipline
Staff Qualifications, Experience and Training		Appropriate qualifications (teacher, managers, admin), clear selection criteria, job descriptions, training systems & feedback, funding and opportunities
Communications		Organisational structure, lines of responsibility, representation and review of performance, records
Information	Admin Staff	Up-to-date and available, clear and comprehensive, accurate
Premises		Appropriate size, layout, study facilities and amenities
Management and Administration	All staff	Legal requirements & certification, terms & conditions, procedures or complaints etc.

SECTION 7

THE PROJECT METHODOLOGY AND TOOLKITS FOR SCHOOL NEEDS ANALYSIS

This section outlines a procedure for gathering information about the current state of MFL teaching adopted in the action-research activity carried out within the Erasmus Plus PAL project. It is comprised of the following components:

- A methodology for the information gathering procedure.
- Criteria for classroom observation.
- A questionnaire for language teachers.
- A questionnaire for language students.
- Useful background information to collect.
- A reduced version of the above classroom observation criteria for use during the partners' school visits that focus on assessing teaching practice and areas needing attention in preparation for the introduction of context-specific 'pathways'.

Methodology – Classroom observation

Classroom observation of English and German language teaching is one of the key components of the toolkit. Genuine observation of current practice is the first stage in any programme that is orientated towards the professional development of teachers. Observation according to fixed criteria is important in order to ensure consistency.

It is essential that teachers do not feel they are being assessed in the observations and no information have to be passed on to Heads of Department or Head Teachers. Teachers were told that the aim was to identify areas of focus for future professional development and teacher support. The observation process was accompanied by teacher questionnaires that helped them to identify their own priorities for areas for development. Teachers were told of the aims of the project and their full cooperation was sought regarding classroom observations.

Grading scheme

In order to get a feel for current practice, a grading scheme, appropriate to the Italian context, should be applied by the research team to record their observation of teaching and learning in the classroom. Criteria can remain relatively broad, as in this example:

- A. A strength – the teacher shows particular competence in this area.
- B. Standard – neither a strength nor a weakness.
- C. A weakness – this is an area which needs attention.
- N/A Not observable in this lesson [Observers may not be able to grade every criterion in every lesson].

The ultimate aim is to identify areas that the observer feels are in need of development, which can be the focus of future training programmes or in-service sessions.

At the end of each batch of observations the grades should be analysed and the ones with the highest number of Cs should be identified. Head teachers should not be given any information about assessment of teachers working in their schools.

7.1 Lesson Observation Criteria

CRITERIA	INDICATORS / REFERENCE POINTS FOR LESSON OBSERVATION	GRADE
1. Learning environment (classroom, laboratory etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The atmosphere and décor are conducive to learning • The disposition of desks is appropriate for student-centred pair/group interaction. • Multi-media facilities are functional and adequate. 	
2. The teacher 2.1 Classroom management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher creates a climate that encourages learning. • The teacher shows efficient classroom management, including grading of language to suit (diverse) levels of the class. • The teacher gives clear instructions. • The teacher uses rituals and rules, e.g. at the beginning, during the process, at the end. The learners are familiarized with these rules and follow them. • There are no disturbances in the class. • The teacher commends and encourages. • The documentation on the board (taking notes,...) is appropriate and structured. • The teacher provides chunks and phrases for specific purposes of communication (visible on board or likewise). • The teacher maintains an appropriate pace. • The teacher varies role (teacher, facilitator, moderator, etc.) according to activity phases. 	
2.2 Communicating aims	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher makes the learning goals transparent and presents these, for instance on the smart board or similar. • The teacher formulates the learning goals/skills as "can-do" statements. 	
2.3 Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher uses the target language consequently throughout the class. • The teacher follows a lesson plan with clearly stated aims and learning outcomes. The lesson reflects the plan. • The lesson plan corresponds to one of current lesson models. • The teacher simulates real authentic situations of communication which are relevant for the students. • The teacher attaches more importance to communicative success than to formal correctness. • The teacher uses an appropriate and systematic approach to error correction. • The teacher uses a systematic approach to the teaching of pronunciation. • The teacher applies the principle of intercultural orientation, so that the learners realize similarities and differences of the two cultures. • The teacher does a project-orientated class. • The teacher provides accurate and clear information about language (grammar, lexis, phonology etc.). 	

2.3 Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher provides opportunities for learning and this learning is checked as far as possible. · The teacher provides tasks and exercises according to the internal differentiation · The teacher provides an appropriate level of challenge and differentiation. · The teacher gives space and time for individual learning. · The teacher provides differentiated material (e.g. for weaker and for stronger learners/for various types of learners). · The teacher encourages the learners to reflect their learning progress. 	
2.4 Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher uses audio-visual technology to support learning. · The teacher uses the technology with confidence and competence. · The teacher deploys technology effectively. · The technology contributes to achieving the learning goals. 	
3. The learners 3.1 Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The learners are noticeably motivated and active (for instance high student conversation ratio, learners are fully attentive, learners ask questions, etc.) · The learners are involved as actively as possible in the lessons and the learning process. · The learners are not overstretched and they experience success. 	
3.2 Personalisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The learners are given the opportunity to express their own opinions in the target language, as well as responding to others' opinions. · The learners contribute prior knowledge and interests. · The teacher marks similarities to and differences from the learners' L1 or other L2s. · The questions and exercises in the teaching material or texts encourage the learners to formulate statements about themselves. · The teacher accommodates as much scope as possible the learners' individual learning requirements and learning styles. · The learners have in some cases contributed towards deciding on the learning goals. 	
3.3 Learner autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher provides opportunities and motivation for independent learning. · The learners discover and draw conclusions about language structures and rules themselves. · The learners control and evaluate their peers' learning success as well their own. · The learners are encouraged to apply awareness and self-reflection to their learning. · The learners are given the opportunity and are encouraged to reflect on their learning process, including the use of learning strategies. 	
4. The lesson 4.1 Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher provides the learners with a selection of exercises and approaches. · The teacher attaches more importance to communicative success than to formal correctness. · Grammar rules are taught as an integral part of the skills learnt by learners. · There is an appropriate balance between teacher-centred and student-centred interaction. · A blend of reception and production skills work is incorporated into the lesson. 	
4.2 Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher uses diverse materials (works sheets, tactile material, etc.) and a variety of working methods to ensure learning is fun/interesting/motivational, including songs, games, role-play. Materials choice is appropriate. · The teacher's choice of materials and activities takes into account the age, gender, cultural and linguistic background, and the interests of learners. · The teacher shows ability to adapt the course book (if used) to include personalisation techniques making teaching and learning more meaningful to the learners. 	

4.3 Activities

- Student groupings vary according to different phases of the lesson
- The teacher gives individual attention to learners during group activities.
- The teacher provides the learners with themes that are relevant to them as a target group, and play a role outside the classroom as well.
- The learners have the opportunity to tackle real questions that are relevant to the world in which they live ("they are grounded in real life").
- The teacher prepares the learners for real contact situations with the target culture.
- The activities have personal relevance to the learners or their everyday lives.
- The learners are given a variety of exercises to inspire them to cooperate with one another in a social context.
- The learners use the target language in activities and the learning goals are designed and formulated with this in mind.
- The learners simulate activities by using authentic language scenarios provided by the teacher.
- Learners are encouraged to express their own opinions in the target language, as well as responding to others and making themselves understood.
- Activities are designed around pair and group work, or other working methods such as role-play or similar. Exercises are designed so that all learners interact.
- The learners also move in the classroom to fulfil their work in activities like "classroom walk", "blind date" etc.
- Cooperation is by means of partner and group work, or other working methods such as role-play or similar.

Final reflection

- What in the observed lesson was especially well done?
- What in the observed lesson needs to be improved? What is missing?

7.2 Methodology – Teacher Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to identify the attitudes that teachers have towards their job and to allow them to identify areas for professional development. It could be delivered in the following ways:

1. Face to face with an interlocutor who records the answers.
2. On paper and subsequently collected.
3. On paper but with face-to-face follow-up where necessary.

The full understanding and cooperation of teachers should be sought at all times. It is therefore important to reassure teachers that all responses will remain completely confidential (Nevertheless, it may be useful to be able to follow up responses where possible, and teachers could be given the option of providing their names or remaining anonymous.)

It will be equally important to explain to the head teachers the nature of this confidentiality agreement, and thus the Partners' policy of non-disclosure of details resulting from interviews (not only with the teaching staff but also with the student body).

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE	
Years of experience:	Position:
What are the essential features of a good lesson?	
How can students continue language learning outside the lesson?	
What materials are you using in your teaching?	
How relevant do you think the syllabus is to your students' academic needs?	
How do you assess your students?	
How much training have you had since you started your career in teaching?	
How has this training been delivered?	
What training would be useful for you at this stage of your career?	
What aspects of your teaching would you most like to develop?	

7.3 Methodology – Student Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to get students to reflect on their current language learning experience and provide information on how they view it and what could be done to improve the experience.

Given the numbers we propose, this should be delivered as a paper questionnaire and should be administered and subsequently collected.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE
How long have you been learning English?
On a scale of 1 (not important) to 10 (very important) how important is it for you to learn English?
On a scale of 1 (not at all confident) to 10 (very confident) how do you feel about your knowledge of: Vocabulary: English grammar:
How competent (1-10) do you feel about the following: Ability to understand spoken English: Ability to speak in English: Ability to write in English: Ability to read in English:
What activities do you most enjoy in your classes?
What could your teacher do to make your lessons more interesting?
What could your teacher do to make your lessons more effective?
How much time per week do you study outside the classroom?
How relevant do you think your lessons are to your needs?
What do you do outside the classroom to help you learn English?

7.4 Methodology – Background Information

The information can be supplied by the Head of Department or Head Teacher within the target schools.

HEAD OF LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT / HEAD TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE
Current policies and procedure Are there any school/provincial/regional/national language education policies and procedures that your department has been asked to follow? How do you feel about them?
Curriculum What are the general language teaching aims of your school? Is there a preferred methodology? Is there a written curriculum/syllabus? Is there a preferred language teaching methodology? What are your school's expected learning outcomes?
Students At what age do students start learning English in the partner schools? How many years do they study for? How many hours per week do they study? What is the estimated total number of hours per year? What is the average number of students in each class? Is there any streaming or setting in the schools? ²⁸
Materials used What language teaching materials do teachers generally use in their lessons? What textbooks and supplementary resources are used on a regular basis in the schools in each year? Who decides what materials to use? What criteria are used in their selection?
Additional resources What supplementary materials are available to teachers in your school? Do you have a materials bank?

²⁸ Setting: "the (re) grouping of pupils according to their ability in a particular subject" Department of Education and Science HMI 1979.

ICT

What ICT resources do you have in your school? Are they adequate?

What part does technology play in the current practice of language teaching?

What is your school's policy on the purchase of and use of IC technology for general teaching in your school?

Does your school have an ICT teacher-training programme?

Methods of assessing progress

How do teachers assess their students' language learning progress during the academic year?

What formative assessment takes place during the school year?

Final achievement assessment

How are students assessed at the end of each year?

Who monitors summative tests for quality and validity?

What is the nature of the final assessment taken as part of the high school leaving certificate?

Professional development initiatives for teaching staff

What training did the teachers initially have?

What initiatives are currently available for teaching staff?

What opportunities are there for professional development?

What initiatives would you like to see in place?

What limitations are there on an expanded professional development programme?

ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT

Has the organization got a language policy statement that explains to all stakeholders (teachers, learners, parents, inspectors) the purpose of language tuition, the extent and details of the language programme within the school, the hours of study and the expected outcomes in terms of level, knowledge and skills achieved.

Does the statement fit in with any mission statement that explains the overall educational ethos of the organization?

Is there a transparent and logical management structure? Do teachers understand the roles of different managers?

Are there measures in place that monitor all aspects of the programme so that learners and other stakeholders can be assured of a quality product?

Is there a curriculum which is clear and effective in mapping out the educational programmes of the organization including details of materials and assessments? Does the curriculum include statements on the methodology to be used by the teachers?

Do teachers use the curriculum to base their programmes on? Do learners understand the pathway created for them and know where they should be by the end of the courses?

Is on-going assessment part of the programme structure so that learners can be aware of their progress; do learners get remedial support when needed?

Is any final assessment reliable and valid? Do learners, parents and potential employers understand the meaning of the assessment and appreciate what language skills the learners have acquired?

Are there sufficient educational resources in place to support the learners and teachers (eg: course books, supplementary material, IT facilities and software)?

Is the physical environment conducive to learning (e.g.: spacious classrooms, sufficient light, visible whiteboard etc.)?

Is the staff recruited in an open and fair way? Has the staff got the necessary qualifications and practice to teach in the organization? Has the staff got clear, transparent and fair terms and conditions with equal opportunity for all? Does the staff fully appreciate what their role entails?


Is the staff actively supported by the management team?

Is there some measure of continuing professional development to enable teachers to progress? Is there some form of annual appraisal scheme?


Is communication within the department effective? Is communication with other stakeholders (learners, parents, corporate clients, local education authority) open and efficient?

7.5 Reduced version of classroom observation criteria




Having established the above criteria for 'best-practice' contemporary teaching and learning, the project team was tasked with condensing the lesson-observation criteria into a more practical instrument (see below) for use during their school visits in Output 2 investigations into potential academic context-specific 'pathways':



Erasmus+
Changing lives. Opening minds.



iprase
Apprendimento Ricerca Innovazione

OBSERVATION SHEET

Hand-out for lesson observation at the Erasmus Plus PAL target schools

School type: _____ Language level: _____ Class/year: _____

Teacher: _____

Lesson theme: _____

Learning outcomes: _____

Grading system:
 Applies clearly: + + +
 Applies mostly: + +
 Applies partly: +
 Does not apply: n/a

	INDICATORS / REFERENCE POINTS FOR LESSON OBSERVATION	GRADE	NOTES
1. Learning environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The atmosphere and décor are conducive to learning. The disposition of desks is appropriate for student centred pair/group interaction. Multi-media facilities are functional and adequate. 		
2. Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher uses audio-visual technology to support learning. The teacher uses the technology with confidence and competence. The teacher deploys technology effectively when used to achieve the learning goals. 		

3. The teacher Classroom management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher creates a climate that encourages learning. • The teacher grades language to suit (diverse) levels of the class. • The teacher maintains an appropriate pace. • The teacher varies role (teacher, facilitator etc.) according to activity phases. • The teacher gives clear instructions. • The teacher uses rituals and rules, e.g. at the beginning of the lesson, introducing activities, error correction phase etc. • Discipline is well maintained and any disturbances are quickly and effectively dealt with. • The teacher commands and encourages. • The documentation on the board is appropriate and structured. 		
4. Lesson plan and lesson aims	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher follows a lesson plan with clearly stated aims and learning outcomes. • The teacher makes the learning goals (can-do-statements) transparent to the students. • The lesson aims and learning outcomes were largely achieved. 		
5. Approach and lesson methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher uses the target language whenever appropriate throughout the class. • The teacher gives students the opportunity to communicate in the language in authentic situations. • The teacher provides chunks and phrases for specific purposes of communication. • During student communication phases of the lesson, the teacher attaches more importance to communicative ability than to formal accuracy. • The teacher uses an appropriate and systematic approach to error correction. • The teacher uses a systematic approach to the teaching of pronunciation. • The teacher applies the principle of intercultural orientation, so that the students realize similarities and differences of the two cultures. • The teacher provides accurate and clear information about language (grammar, lexis, phonology etc.). • The teacher provides the students with a selection of exercises and approaches. • The teacher provides an appropriate level of challenge and differentiation. • A blend of reception and production skills work is incorporated into the lesson. • There is an appropriate balance between teacher-centred and student-centred interaction. • Grammar rules are taught as an integral part of the skills learnt by students. • The teacher marks similarities to and differences from the students' L1 or other L2s. 		
6. The students' motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher provides the students with themes that are relevant to them, and play a role outside the classroom as well. • The students are noticeably motivated and active. • The students are involved as actively as possible in the lessons and the learning process. • The students are not overstretched and they experience success. • The students are given the opportunity to express their own opinions in the target language. • The questions and exercises in the teaching material or texts encourage the students to formulate statements about themselves (personalisation). 		

7. Learner autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The students are encouraged to discover and draw conclusions about language structures and rules themselves. · The students control and evaluate their peers' learning success as well as their own. · The students are encouraged to apply awareness and self-reflection to their learning, including the use of learning strategies. 		
8. Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · The teacher uses diverse materials and a variety of working methods, including songs, games, role-play. · The teacher's choice of materials and activities takes into account the age, gender, cultural and linguistic background, and the interests of students. · The teacher shows ability to adapt the course book (if used) to include personalisation techniques making teaching and learning more meaningful to the students. 		
9. Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Student groupings vary according to different phases of the lesson. · The activities have personal relevance to the students or their everyday lives. · The students simulate activities by using authentic language scenarios provided by the teacher. · Students are encouraged to express their own opinions in the target language, as well as responding to others and making themselves understood. 		

FINAL REFLECTION

Comment on the following:

What in the observed lesson was especially well done?

Strengths of the teacher:

Weaknesses of the teacher:

Developmental needs of the teacher:

According to the teacher:

According to the observer:

Finito di stampare
nel mese di marzo 2017
da Tipografia Mercurio
Rovereto