CLIL Teachers and their Language

Οι εκπαιδευτικοί της CLIL και η γλώσσα τους

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Relatively little focus has been given to the language needed by CLIL teachers, of whatever first language background, to fulfil their roles in the classroom. This paper attempts to summarise research on various aspects of CLIL teacher language covering what the research says about what CLIL teachers may need to use language for, registers, the discourse characteristics of CLIL teacher language and the demands placed on this language by recommended CLIL classroom practices. Finally it focusses on the CLIL teacher and TLA (teacher language awareness) and then ties all this research into CLIL teacher competences. This summary of research on CLIL teacher language provides a platform through which the article then goes on to propose an initial specification of 'English for CLILing' and make recommendations for CLIL teacher language training as part of professional development.

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Σχετικά μικρή έμφαση έχει δοθεί στη γλώσσα που απαιτείται από τους εκπαιδευτικούς, οι οποίοι εφαρμόζουν τη μέθοδο CLIL, ανεξαρτήτως της πρώτης γλώσσας, για να εκπληρώσουν το ρόλο τους μέσα στην τάξη. Η παρούσα εργασία επιχειρεί να συνοψίσει ερευνητικές δραστηριότητες σε διάφορες πτυχές της γλώσσας των εκπαιδευτικών καλύπτοντας οπτικές για το πώς χρησιμοποιούν οι εκπαιδευτικοί τη γλώσσα, τα χαρακτηριστικά του λόγου του εκπαιδευτικού και τις απαιτήσεις που τίθενται σε αυτή τη γλώσσα από τις πρακτικές στην τάξη όπου εφαρμόζεται η μέθοδος CLIL. Τέλος, η εργασία εστιάζει στον εκπαιδευτικό της CLIL καθώς και στη γλωσσική επίγνωση των εκπαιδευτικών, και συνδέει όλα αυτά με τις δεξιότητες του εκπαιδευτικού στο συγκεκριμένο διδακτικό πλαίσιο. Η σύνοψη ερευνών που σχετίζονται με τη γλώσσα του εκπαιδευτικού που εφαρμόζει τη μέθοδο CLIL παρέχει μια πλατφόρμα μέσω της οποίας το άρθρο επιχειρεί μια αρχική εννοιολογική αποσαφήνιση της «αγγλικής γλώσσας για CLILing» και προχωράει σε προτάσεις για την επιμόρφωση των εκπαιδευτικών που εφαρμόζουν την CLIL ως συνιστώσα της επαγγελματικής τους ανάπτυξης.

Key words: CLIL teacher language, language use, discourse, classroom practices, CLIL teacher competences, English for CLILing, professional development.

1. Introduction

Much has been researched and written about different aspects of CLIL e.g. the rationale for CLIL, CLIL content, CLIL classroom practices and the evaluation of CLIL learning outcomes for subject content and language, but there is little unique focus on teachers' use of language for and in the CLIL classroom. Yet language is one of the means through which CLIL is delivered and through which CLIL learners learn both the language and the subject content of their CLIL lessons. As such it is pivotal to the success of CLIL initiatives.

This paper will attempt to piece together what has been written about teacher language in CLIL and then draw on this to outline the beginnings of a needs analysis of CLIL teacher language. This will lead on to a brief discussion of some possible implications of the needs analysis for teacher development that would enable the CLIL teacher to operate more effectively and confidently in their classroom.

To avoid misunderstanding, however, it is useful to start with a statement of the definition of CLIL that this paper will work with. It makes use of Marsh's well-known definition: 'A foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role' (Marsh, 2002). This definition highlights that CLIL has a dual focus: content and language. CLIL is more than learning subject content through a foreign language (immersion) or learning a foreign language through subject content (some versions of EFL). It is firmly in the middle of this spectrum (see Fig. 1).
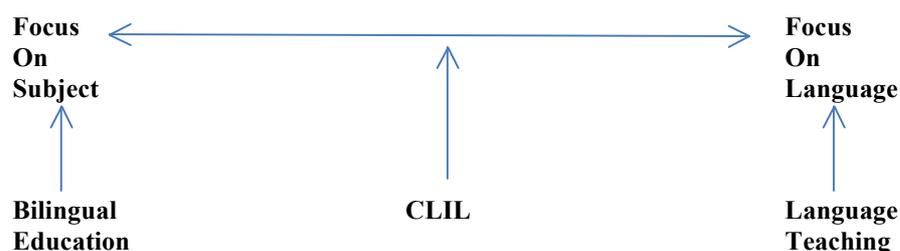

Figure 1: The focus of CLIL

This paper also only reports on studies of CLIL initiatives involving English as the medium of instruction.

2. Language use and language registers in the CLIL Framework

When we review what has been said about CLIL teacher language, we see it has focused on two themes in particular: what the language is used for and the registers of language that CLIL works with. We will look at both of these.

Coyle (2006) has proposed that in the CLIL classroom three kinds of language use help to construct knowledge: language of learning, language for learning and language through learning. The language of learning refers to 'language needed for learners to access basic concepts relating to the subject theme or topic' (Coyle, et al., 2010, p.37). This language is made up of subject specific vocabulary (e.g. for geography: stream, confluence, tributary, to meander), including fixed expressions (e.g. for social sciences: as shown in the graph, as can be seen, a steep rise, gradually decrease) and subject typical grammar (e.g. use of the passive in descriptions of scientific processes, use of the past tense

in historical descriptions, use of past modal verbs in interpretation of evidence in history and social sciences). It also covers 'register' and genre. While the above quote from Coyle appears to focus on the learner, it is of course the teacher who will be engaged, with or without the help of aids such as input texts, videos, computer resources, in delivering or mediating that language to learners.

Language for learning is the enabling language of the classroom that allows the teacher to conduct classroom and learning management e.g. scaffolding learning, setting up pair and group work, encouraging etc. For learners it is the language which allows them to develop and work with learning skills such as 'cooperative group work, asking questions, debating, chatting, enquiring, thinking, memorising and so on' (Coyle, 2006). While the teacher may not need to use this learner language themselves they may well need to provide it to the learners to enable them to use it.

Finally, language through learning is defined as language 'to support and advance (learners') thinking processes whilst acquiring new knowledge, as well as to progress their language learning' (Coyle, et al., 2010, p.38). As learners struggle to express their understanding of their new learning, and, with this, new meanings, they will require their own particular expression of language through which to do this. They will, often as not, need the teacher's support to express these new meanings, hence the teacher must be able to supply that support be it linguistic or cognitive or both.

Llinares, Morton and Whittaker (2012) also identify three roles for language in CLIL (see Table 1).

SUBJECT LITERACIES		CLASSROOM INTERACTION		LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT
GENRE	A S S E S S M E N T	Instructional and Regulative registers (focus)	A S S E S S M E N T	Expressing ideational meanings (key concepts and understandings)
		Communication systems (approach)		Expressing interpersonal meanings (social relationships, attitudes)
REGISTER		Interaction patterns and Scaffolding (action)		Expressing textual meanings (moving from more spoken to Written forms of language)

Table 1: A three-part framework for understanding the roles of language
(Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012, p.15)

The authors developed this framework by combining views about language from systemic functional linguistics, Vygotsky's view of language as the essential mediating tool in our cognitive development (Llinares, et al., 2012) and a social perspective on second language development.
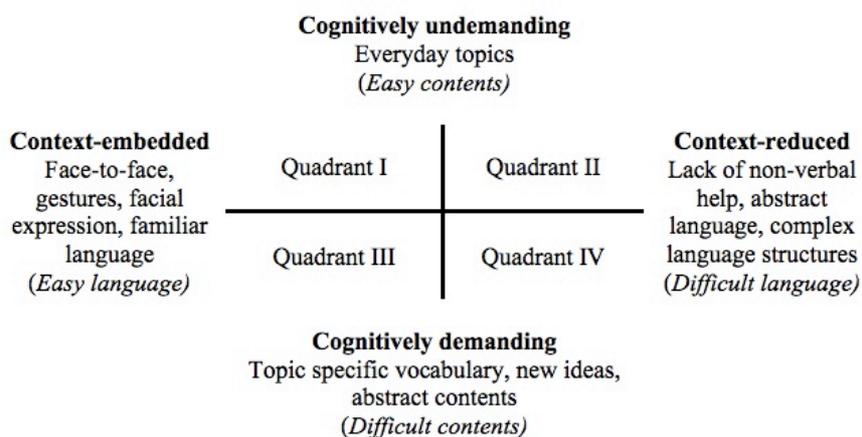
In the framework, genres refer to the text types that are typical of a subject area (e.g. in history: chronicalling, reporting, explaining, arguing (Dalton Puffer, 2007); in business studies: reports, journal papers, case studies; in science: reports, procedures and explanations) and register refers to the grammar and vocabulary typical of a subject. We can see that this category has much in common with Coyle's language of learning (Coyle, 2006). LLinares et al. (2012, p.16) say 'CLIL teachers can identify these genre and register features in the materials and activities they use, and highlight them

for their learners'. Genres and register are the text types and language through which content knowledge is expressed.

Under the heading Classroom Interaction the authors talk of instructional and regulative register, the former referring to the language used to talk about key concepts and ideas related to the subject being studied (Llinares, et al., 2012), while regulative register refers to the language used to manage and organise the social world of the classroom, similar to Coyle's language for learning (Coyle, 2006). In instructional language the authors draw our attention to a very useful distinction made by Bernstein (Llinares, et al., 2012, p.39), between vertical and horizontal language. Vertical language reflects the hierarchical knowledge structures of a subject area (e.g. description of cause and effect within a chronological narrative structure), whereas horizontal language refers to everyday language used to talk about everyday life and experiences. As a teacher delivers information about a subject they may well wish and need to move between these registers, maybe using a horizontal register to elicit students' knowledge and experience of a topic at a warm up stage of a lesson, then using a vertical register to identify participants, processes, circumstances, and causal, and other logical links between them (Linares, et al., 2012), then maybe reverting to horizontal register to give or elicit examples from everyday life of the concepts under discussion. Again, these registers will be used not only by teachers but also by learners, with teachers playing a very helpful role in advancing CLIL's dual aims if they enable learners' learning of this kind of language. Use of the two registers facilitates the dialogic inquiry advocated by Wells (1999) i.e. dialogue between teachers and learners to construct knowledge.

2.1 CLIL classroom discourse

We can analyse a teacher's classroom language from the perspective of the uses it needs to be put to, as above, and also from that of the type of language characteristics that it makes use of. Cummins and others have proposed that in order to aid students' learning of both content and language through the development of both higher and lower order thinking skills (HOTS and LOTS), the teacher in the classroom should tailor their lesson content and development round the Cummins (1984) quadrant, as given below:

Cognitively undemanding
Everyday topics
(*Easy contents*)

Context-embedded Face-to-face, gestures, facial expression, familiar language (*Easy language*)	Quadrant I	Quadrant II	**Context-reduced** Lack of non-verbal help, abstract language, complex language structures (*Difficult language*)
	Quadrant III	Quadrant IV	

Cognitively demanding
Topic specific vocabulary, new ideas,
abstract contents
(*Difficult contents*)

(Cummins, 1984; modified format, https://juanpwashere.wordpress.com/page/3)

Cummins maintained that there are two causes of ease and difficulty in expressing or understanding topics in the classroom: the amount of cognitive demand they create and the complexity of the

language through which they are expressed. Easier language is made easy partly by being supported by the clues (e.g. gestures, surroundings, facial expressions) provided by the context in which it is produced. More difficult language is made difficult partly by the fact that it is not contextually supported, and is also expressed in language which is structurally complex. Cummins (1979) also maintains that these variables mean that language can be used to express low level thinking skills in easy language. Conversely it can also express high level thinking skills in difficult language, or difficult concepts can be expressed through easy language or vice versa.

The CLIL teacher is encouraged to make use of all these quadrants to scaffold the learning of language, subject or thinking skills, to cater for different levels of learner and to aid the acquisition of the more abstract language through which subject matter and higher order thinking skills (HOTS) are often expressed, especially in various written genres. As can be seen, moving between these quadrants is likely to require the teacher (and learners) to operate with and in both formal and informal registers of language, involving the use of BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and CALP (Cognitive academic language proficiency) i.e. in the CLIL classroom it is not sufficient for participants just to be able to use the day to day language needed to interact socially (BICS) , but they also need the language for formal academic learning that covers not just subject specific language, but also the comprehension and expression of higher level thinking skills such as comparing, analysing, evaluating, hypothesising, inferring, synthesizing, as in Quadrant IV above (CALP). These are skills and language which the learner will need for academic activities such as listening to a lecture, reading an academic textbook, presenting a paper or writing an essay.

In a CLIL class the teacher will need to teach the thinking and language skills involved in such tasks. Research (e.g. Collier, 1989; Thomas & Collier, 1997) has found that whereas BICS can be learnt within a few years in the school context, it may take five to seven years for learners to master an appropriate level of CALP, though other research suggests that in a CLIL context, in which exposure to the target language outside the classroom may be very limited or non-existent, the opportunities for encountering and using BICS may therefore be similarly limited (Dalton-Puffer, 2007) and insufficient for it to be acquired automatically (Varkuti, 2010). This suggests that the CLIL teacher may in some contexts need to help learners to learn both BICS and CALP. There are clear similarities between Cummins' CALP and Bernstein's 'vertical register' (discussed above), and similarly between BICS and Bernstein's 'horizontal register'. (Cummins, 1979; Bernstein 1999 in Llinares, et al., 2012, p.39).

In the CLIL literature we also find reference to the discourse of the CLIL classroom. Unlike in the above research, the literature on classroom discourse bases itself on studies of what talk actually occurs in the CLIL classroom, as mentioned by Nikula, et al.(2012). While the studies in these areas do not usually focus uniquely on teacher discourse, certain features of CLIL teacher discourse nevertheless emerge. Before identifying these, it needs to be stressed that the practice of CLIL varies considerably from classroom to classroom, and country to country, and it is difficult to talk of a typical CLIL classroom and therefore of typical CLIL classroom discourse. Most of the studies report on teacher-led classrooms and on whole-class interaction in secondary schools throughout a range of countries in Europe. Features of teacher discourse such as the following receive attention in the studies: negotiation of meaning; dealing with errors and providing feedback, particularly through the use of recasts; teacher use of different types of questions, particularly open and referential questions; teacher-led whole class discussions; the teacher's central role as input giver; the teacher's role as provider of comprehensible input; the teacher's modification of input so as to make it comprehensible; the teacher's use of explicit discourse markers to structure lectures particularly in university settings. The studies also suggest that these features are generally more prominent in CLIL classrooms than they would be in the average EFL classroom. The authors conclude:

"Overall, discourse analytic and pragmatic studies suggest that teaching content matter through a foreign language has the potential for rendering classroom discourse qualitatively different from contexts where language is the object of scrutiny. The biggest differences relate to students' increased opportunities to be active participants in interaction and to use the target language for contextually relevant meaning making. However, these differences also relate to pedagogical practices: gains are less obvious if teacher-centered methods prevail." (Nikula, et al., 2012, p.86).

Another study of CLIL classroom discourse of particular relevance and interest to this paper is in Nikula (2010). This reports on a study of the classroom discourse of one Finnish teacher with a good command of English (Nikula, 2007), teaching one class biology in English and another class biology in Finnish. Differences are noted in the teacher's discourse between the two classes. These are that when teaching in his mother-tongue, Finnish, the teacher engaged in more monologic and less interactional language whereas in the CLIL class where he was speaking in English his discourse tended to be more dialogic and interactional. The researcher hypothesizes that this may be due to the fact that the teacher does not command the formal register of English sufficiently to allow for his extended use of it for monologues, and/or that in the CLIL classroom where the teacher and students are working collaboratively to find their feet, there may be less place for the teacher to adopt an authoritarian role. Yet we have seen above that in CLIL the teacher may well need on the occasion to make use of vertical language and CALP. The study also finds that in the CLIL class the teacher makes less use of nuanced interpersonal strategies for classroom management and attributes this to the teacher's lack of language ability in this register. Although these findings cannot be generalised, as they are a case study of one teacher in one classroom context, they suggest a methodology for further studies of CLIL teacher language and potential areas on which teacher language might impact.

2.2 Language and CLIL classroom practices

These findings from discourse analysis provide us with some clues as to the kinds of pedagogic interventions a CLIL teacher needs to use language for themselves, and also indicate areas where CLIL learners may need support for their language comprehension and use. We are arriving at a picture of what the CLIL teacher may need to use their language for. Absent from this picture so far, however, is a detailed focus on CLIL methodology and the demands it may place on teacher language. This goes beyond Coyle's 'language for learning' as it is linked to specific recommended CLIL classroom practices. While it is generally accepted that there is no one fixed CLIL methodology, certain principles are constantly promoted for CLIL classroom practices as they enable the achievement of CLIL's dual aims. We find that CLIL teaching practices are frequently placed within the context of the teaching of the 4 C's (Content, Communication, Culture/Community, Cognition) as these underlie and enable the dual aims of CLIL. Coyle illustrates the 4C's as shown in Figure 2.

We see that while there is a focus on the 4C's in CLIL teaching, it is nevertheless Content that drives and decides on the content of the other C's, i.e. what from the other C's will be selected and focussed on to enable and extend the teaching of content. At the same time the 4Cs will be constantly integrated so the teaching/ learning of one supports the teaching/learning of the others. Words and phrases which often occur in discussion of recommended CLIL classroom practices and how to promote the 4C's are:

- Exposure and acquisition;
- Scaffolded learning;
- Interactive, co-operative, dialogic, and exploratory teaching;
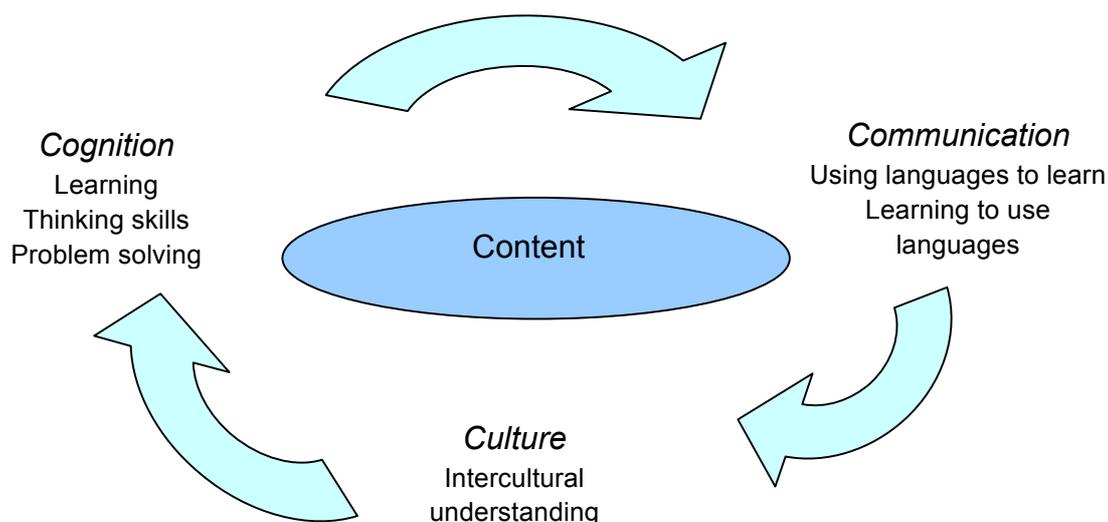- Focus on form.

Figure 2: Coyle's 4C's model.

Exposure to language is thought to be essential in CLIL as it is through this that learners will acquire the target language. As we have seen, this language may well vary in register (BICS/CALP, instructional/ regulative). It may also be spoken or written and produced by the teacher or delivered through aids such as reading passages or videos. Teachers will provide this input when, for example, they explain something to learners, describe visuals or processes, give their opinion in a whole class discussion, provide feedback to a learner/ learners, organise project or group work, engage in oral whole class exploration of a new concept, etc. However, experts in language acquisition such as Krashen, Lightbown, Ellis have long maintained that in order to learn from and through exposure to language, learners need to be exposed not just to any language but to what they term 'comprehensible input', a term elaborated by Krashen (1982), which refers to language which is just above the learners' current level of competence. They have also maintained that language can be learnt, and, indeed is mainly learnt, through acquisition rather than learning i.e. by being exposed to it rather than focussing on it. In CLIL, exposure is obviously required to enable language learning, but it is also required to communicate about subject content and to enable the teaching of the other C's (culture/community, cognitive skills). This means a teacher will need to be able to gauge whether the language they themselves are using seems to be at the right comprehensible level for students, and if not, be able to modify it. They will similarly need to gauge the language of any materials or aids they use, and modify the language in them if it is at the wrong level. There is a very nice quote from Swan (1994) that captures the essence of providing comprehensible input in the classroom:

> "Good teaching involves a most mysterious feat – sitting, so to speak, on one's listener's shoulder, monitoring what one is saying with the listener's ears, and using this feedback to shape and adapt one's words from moment to moment so that the thread of communication never breaks. This is art, not science……" (Swan, 1994 in Andrews 2012, p.4)

Scaffolding is another mainstay of the CLIL classroom-whether it is scaffolding of content or scaffolding of communication. Scaffolding involves providing temporary support to the learner in order to make specific learning goals more attainable. It may consist of techniques such as breaking

tasks up into smaller tasks and sequencing the subtasks appropriately, providing learners with visual organisers to enable them to see the route that a line of argument or topic development follows, giving learners a (bilingual) glossary of key terms, providing a model text (spoken or written), providing learners with language frames to support writing or speaking activities, providing emerging language to learners as they, for example, answer questions or take part in discussions, demonstrating an activity prior to asking students to do something, doing a warm up to engage learners' schemata, providing feed-back before moving on to the next stage etc. Scaffolding is said to be particularly necessary in CLIL because of the dual demands, cognitive and linguistic, that CLIL places on the learner. Scaffolding makes demands on teachers' language in a variety of ways. In the activities above, for instance, teachers may need to be able to supply emerging language/language through learning, recognise a discourse structure (e.g. cause-effect, cycle, ordering of a process, event sequence in a narrative) in order to provide a suitable visual organiser, gauge the difficulty level (linguistic and/or cognitive) of tasks in order to sequence their use, swap between regulative or instructional registers in a warm up etc.

CLIL teachers are also encouraged to make their teaching 'Interactive, co-operative, dialogic, and exploratory'. Interaction can be between teachers and learners, or between learner(s) and learner(s). It is believed that it is through cooperation in the verbal exploration and social construction of ideas that learning fully takes place. Coyle, et al. (2010, p.35) say: According to Freire:

> 'without dialogue there is no communication and without communication there can be no true education' (1972, p.35). This puts classroom communication- interaction between peers and teachers- at the core of learning. There is also growing recognition that 'dialogic' forms of pedagogy-that is, where learners are encouraged to articulate their learning—are potent tools for securing learner engagement, learning and understanding. Focussing teaching and learning on quality discourse between learners, and between learners and teachers—where learners have different opportunities to discuss their own learning with others as it progresses, where feedback is integrated into classroom discourse and where learners are encouraged to ask as well as answer questions—promotes meaningful interaction fundamental to any learning scenario. This is what Wells (1999) terms 'dialogic learning' (Coyle, et al., 2010, p.35).

So, in dialogic teaching the teacher is prompted to use language interactively with learners, so as to encourage cooperation between learners, to encourage the joint exploration of new concepts to allow for the co-construction of knowledge and multiple associations with it, to provide feedback and to respond to students' questions as well as ask their own. Mortimer and Scott (2003) focus on four kinds of classroom talk: interactive/ non interactive and dialogic/ authoritarian. In dialogic talk, students are encouraged to contribute their own ideas and understandings, whereas in authoritarian talk only the teacher's or official view is recognised (Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012). We can see that when a teacher is giving the facts of a subject they might want to use an authoritarian mode, whereas a dialogic mode would lend itself more to exploration and interpretation of those facts.

The fourth set of words often used in relation to CLIL teaching is a focus on form, by which is meant a deliberate focus by the teacher on language forms which are key to and within particular interactions, registers or genres in use/focus at that moment in the classroom, drawing learners' attention to how something is said while remaining within the context of communication. This is not to suggest that activities might involve a deliberate and separate focus on different grammar points – these would break the flow of communication and exchange of meaning- but rather, for example, providing learners with a range of exponents of the function of agreeing to enable group work, giving them a handout with a list of ways of expressing cause and effect to aid them with writing a report, providing on the spot correction of pronunciation of key lexis or of use of key grammar or

lexis after a learner has used this language inaccurately. In other words, a focus on form involves integrating into the lesson flow a brief focus on key language required for a specific activity. This is different from the procedures and focus of much language teaching. There has been great debate amongst CLIL experts and practitioners about how much CLIL teachers should focus on form, with some maintaining that there is no place in the CLIL class for such a focus, and that exposing learners to language is sufficient for them to learn it. Many recent studies, however, suggest that this is not the case. Learners, in immersion or CLIL settings, whose learning of the language has been limited to exposure have regularly been found to fall short of the desired level of proficiency, particularly on the level of grammatical accuracy. (e.g. Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lightbown, 2014). There have also been findings from language acquisition studies suggesting strongly that before something can be learnt it needs to be noticed (Schmidt, 1990). The teacher can help learners to notice key language features by employing ways of making them more salient. These techniques have been reported to have resulted in greater accuracy (Vazquez, 2010).

3. Teacher Language Awareness in the CLIL context

The overview provided so far by this paper allows us to see that a CLIL teacher not only needs to be able to use the language in particular ways but also needs to 'know about' language so as to be able to do things such as focus on form, recognise genres, make input comprehensible, provide correction and feedback on language use. As these authors say:

> "The teacher of whatever material is being taught in an L2, should not only update his linguistic knowledge to a standard and recognized level of fluency but should develop a different linguistic sensitivity to be able to adapt the contents to the new language and develop teaching procedures that make it possible for the student to learn." (Lorenzo, et al., 2005, p.71).

What is being discussed here is 'Teacher language awareness' (TLA) which Thornbury defines as 'the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively' (Thornbury, 1997, p.x). Thornbury is talking about language teachers. However, what he says becomes relevant for CLIL teachers too in light of CLIL's dual aims, though it is probably more appropriate to say that CLIL teachers need knowledge of the uses, genres and registers of language that are typical of their subject area and of language for learning or regulative register, rather than of the underlying systems of language as a whole. We can see very good examples of subject specific language in Dale and Tanner's 2012 book 'CLIL Activities'. The authors provide descriptions of the language of different subjects, in terms of their typical genres, genre features, functions, thinking skills, use of spoken and written modes, recurrent grammar and vocabulary. Dale and Tanner (2012, p. 80-81) point out, for instance, that the subject of science is typified by thinking skills such as reasoning, questioning, creative problem-solving and evaluating, and genres such as scientific articles, written reports, instructions for experiments. Within these, its functions are often those of recounting, describing, informing, explaining, predicting and hypothesising, and the subject content makes frequent use of grammatical structures such as present tenses, time clauses, linking words, future tenses and modals, complex sentences with subclauses, comparisons and specialised technical terms such as alkali, molecule, energy, atom, solution, soluble.

Different materials and activities will vary in their use of these features, and TLA will enable the teacher to recognise them, make judgements about whether the text is comprehensible for a particular set of learners, decide which features, if any, are important to focus on with learners, decide which need scaffolding and how, allow the teacher to anticipate learner problems with the language of the text and devise appropriate tasks round the text that focus on content and/ or language. In other words TLA facilitates both the planning and the delivery of a lesson.

Andrews (2012) identifies the positive enabling influence of TLA when planning a lesson as giving the teacher:

- Sufficient freedom/control over content of teaching to engage fully with language related issues of lesson before entering classroom
- Confidence in own explicit grammar knowledge and communicative language ability, and confident about assuming responsibility for shaping the language related content of the lesson.
- Information for pre-lesson reflections about language-related issues, and therefore to influence language related aspects of preparation

And when delivering a lesson allowing the teacher to:

- Act as a bridge between the language content of the materials and the learners, making salient the key features of the grammar area
- Filter the content of published materials and notice/avoid potential pitfalls
- Filter their own classroom output (spoken and written) to ensure that it is structurally accurate, functionally appropriate, clearly expressed, pitched at the learners' level
- Filter learner output (as appropriate in the context of form focussed activity). Mediation takes the learners' perspective into account and is correct, precise and intelligible, structurally accurate, functionally appropriate, pitched at the learners' level, an adequate basis for learner generalisations
- Operate the filter in real time, responding spontaneously and constructively to issues of language content as they arise in class
- Employ metalanguage to support learning correctly and appropriately
  (paraphrased from Andrews 2012, pp.42-45)

We can note that these factors relate to both lesson planning and delivery. Also interesting to note is how much the factors mention the importance of TLA in making the teacher feel confident in planning and delivering the lesson. Here are some examples of how TLA can affect details of a lesson:

> "Within the classroom, TLA has the potential to exert a profound effect upon the teacher's performance of a range of tasks. These tasks include: (i) mediating what is made available to learners as input; (ii) making salient the key grammatical features within that input; (iii) providing exemplification and clarification, as appropriate; (iv) monitoring students' output; (v) monitoring one's own output; (vi) helping the students to make useful generalisations based upon the input; and (vii) limiting the potential sources of learner confusion in the input; while all the time (viii) reflecting on the potential impact of all such mediation on the learners' understanding." (Andrews 2012, p.43).

Thornbury (1997, p xii) draws attention to the negatives of not making use of TLA:

- Failure to anticipate learners' learning problems;
- Inability to plan lessons pitched at right level;
- Inability to interpret materials and adapt them to specific learners;
- Inability to deal satisfactorily with errors or field learner queries;
- General failure to earn learner confidence …and present new language clearly and efficiently.

While both Andrews (2012) and Thornbury (1997) are talking about TLA in relation to language teachers who are teaching a foreign language, it is not hard to see the relevance to the CLIL teacher of much of what they identify.

The above overview of a CLIL teacher's uses of language in the classroom and of TLA, and of their impact in the classroom show the importance and centrality of teacher language in CLIL. We find recognition of this in some statements about the competences required by CLIL teachers. Keith Kelly, for instance, mentions in his list of competencies for the ideal CLIL teacher: is proficient in the FL, uses language-appropriate materials, integrates content & language learning during lessons, able to identify language demands of subject matter (Kelly, 2012).

But probably the most detailed specification of CLIL teacher competences is that of Bertaux, et al (2010), CLIL experts, who produced the specification in 2010 under the European Union's Leonardo da Vinci programme. Many of the competences are language related as can be seen from these extracts:

- Using Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
- Using the language of classroom management
- Using the language of teaching
- Using the language of learning activities
- Designing a course
- Lesson planning
- Translating (lesson) plans into action
- Knowing second language attainment levels
- Applying SLA knowledge in lesson preparation
- Applying SLA knowledge in the classroom
- Applying interactive methodology
- Having knowledge and awareness of cognition and metacognition in the CLIL environment
- Knowing about and applying assessment and evaluation procedures and tools

(extracted from Bertaux, et al., 2010). (See appendix for details of how these different competences are evidenced in lesson planning and delivery).

We see the specifications pick up on both language proficiency and language awareness and make clear the importance and centrality of language to the CLIL teacher's role.

So far in this paper we have identified what CLIL teacher language needs to be used for and characteristics it contains. We can summarise these in the following table (see Table 2).

The areas outlined in this table are a summary of the research this paper has reported on so far. The researchers reported on were working separately from and independently of one another, and inevitably use different units of measure and different terms, sometimes for the same thing. To arrive at a clear specification of English for CLILing it would be useful to use a single over-riding perspective for analysis for all the areas. We also note that the above research only deals with the CLIL teacher's roles as, amongst others, input source, mediator, generator of interaction, manager. The CLIL teacher however plays other roles e.g. adviser/ counsellor, assessor, materials designer, CLIL teaching partner. These would also need to be taken into consideration in any further specification of the CLIL teacher's language needs. The table provides a departure point.

Within a subject specific 4 C's framework:	
Uses of language	Language of, for, through learning Language for subject literacies, classroom interaction and language development - Instructional and regulative register - Vertical and horizontal language
Language characteristics	BICS CALP Subject specific genres (lexis, grammar (register), text types)
Features of CLIL teacher discourse	Negotiation of meaning; dealing with errors and providing feedback, particularly through the use of recasts ; teacher use of different types of questions, particularly open and referential questions; teacher-led whole class discussion; input giving; providing comprehensible input; modifying so as to make it comprehensible; explicit discourse markers to structure lectures
Demands on language from CLIL pedagogies/ pedagogic interventions	Provision of -exposure to language and opportunities for acquisition -scaffolding - a focus on forms Use of interactive, exploratory and dialogic language
Language awareness	TLA (teacher language awareness) -to enable lesson planning and delivery
Other teacher roles	e.g. adviser/ counsellor, assessor, materials designer, CLIL teaching partner et al.

Table 2: CLIL teacher language/ Language for CLILing.

The table shows us that CLIL teacher language is not the same as general language proficiency as it contains features that go beyond general language proficiency e.g. CALP, TLA. We could say that what has been presented is the basis for an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) which we might call 'English for CLILing'. Freeman, Katz, Garcia Gomez and Burns argue in their 2015 ELTJ paper that EFL teachers' language is a kind of ESP and note the advantages of seeing it as such. They say:

> "Focusing the target domain of language use on the classroom work teachers are doing has several advantages. It makes that target more relevant and attainable to teachers as learners. It simultaneously affirms clear, consistent communicative language that students are likely to understand in the context of the classroom. In this way, this focused approach converts the problem of language improvement from one of general proficiency to one of specialised contextual language use, which is likely to be more efficient in bringing out practical impacts on teacher classroom efficacy and student learning outcomes." (Freeman, Katz, Garcia Gomez & Burns , 2015, p.131)

These authors (2015), for example, use Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ESP model to arrive at an ESP analysis of EFL teacher language needs. A similar specification for CLIL teachers would allow course designers working in different training contexts to choose from it areas relevant for their particular teachers, as not all CLIL teachers will have the same needs. They will have different 'gaps'. For example, it could be that native speaker subject teachers who have not studied language at school or during their professional training lack TLA and a knowledge of formal registers such as CALP. On the other hand, proficient language teachers may lack subject specific language, as well as an ability to 'talk CALP' and the awareness of TLA related to it, but in neither case is their need simply for greater general language proficiency. Similarly, primary teachers will not have the same CLIL language needs as secondary teachers, and teachers operating in CLIL situations in which the subject

teacher just teaches the subject and a separate language teacher provides the language input will have different needs too.

It could also be that CLIL teachers from different backgrounds and working in different contexts require different levels of language training. The analysis might provide the basis for a more honed specification of the level of this language. This level is often described as B1 or B2 or C1 (cf clilingmesoftly.wordpress.com) using CEFR reference points. But the CEFR was intended to be applied to general language proficiency, which, we suggest, is not customised enough to meet the needs of the CLIL teacher. There are several areas here worthy of further study.

4. Conclusion

To conclude, this paper has provided an overview of research on CLIL teachers' language and drawn from that a set of CLIL teacher language needs which could form the basis for a more detailed and consistent analysis of those needs as well as a platform for differentiation in language development programmes as part of CLIL teacher development. The paper makes a case for CLIL teacher language to be regarded as an ESP. Some CLIL teachers may find daunting the language needs outlined above, and their presentation as CLIL teacher requirements. Vasquez and Ellison (2013) have spoken of the great unease CLIL subject teachers feel about their lack of language knowledge while being expected to teach CLIL. And others (c.f. Harder, 1980; Moate, 2008) of other negative effects on how teachers and learners view and express themselves when they don't feel fully at ease in or with the language they are using. What is clear is that it is not just up to the CLIL teacher to get themselves trained, but for trainers, school administrators and educational authorities such as ministries to provide such targeted language training. The risk of not doing so is that CLIL will not achieve its dual aims, teachers will feel frustrated, restricted in their pedagogical choices and kinds of intervention, and undermined; and learners will have been deprived of the opportunity for a rich learning experience and all that can provide in terms of educational achievement, learner motivation and self-esteem.

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APPENDIX

	Competences	Indicators of competence
	Using the language of classroom management	Can use the target language in: - Group management - Time management - Classroom noise management - Giving instructions - Managing interaction - Managing co-operative work - Enhancing communication
	Using the language of teaching	Can use own oral language production as a tool for teaching through varying: - Registers of speech - Cadence - Tone and volume
	Using the language of learning activities	Can use the target language to: - Explain - Present information - Give instructions - Clarify and check understanding - Check level of perception of difficulty Can use the following forms of talk (Barnes, Mercer, et al.) - Exploratory - Cumulative - Disputational - Critical - Meta - Presentational
	Designing a course	Can integrate the language and subject curricula so that subject curricula support language learning and vice versa Can plan for the incorporation of other CLIL core features and driving principles into the course outlines and into lesson planning, including: - Scaffolding language, content and learning skills development - Continuous growth in language, content and learning skills development - Fostering of BICS and CALP development - Fostering communication with other target users Can select the language needed to ensure: - Student comprehension - Rich language and content input - Rich student language and content output

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			- Efficient classroom management
		Lesson planning	Can analyse content in terms of language needs
		Translating (lesson) plans into action	Can support students in moving from 'context embedded' to context reduced' materials (Cummins)
			Can make content and language accessible by helping students to turn their tacit/passive knowledge into explicit/active knowledge
		Knowing second language attainment levels	Can use the Common European Framework for languages as a self-assessment tool
			Can use the CEF as a tool for assessing students' level of attainment with colleagues
			Can call on the CEF to define language targets in the CLIL class
		Applying SLA knowledge in lesson preparation	Can distinguish between language learning and language acquisition and select language input accordingly
			Can identify words, terms, idioms and discourse structures that are new for the students in text, audio or audio-visual materials, and support comprehension thereof
			Can identify the language components needed by the learners for oral or written comprehension and produce support material
			Can identify the language components needed by the learners for complex oral or written production and produce adapted resources (e.g. vocabulary, sentence and text types)
			Can, if necessary, plan prior language learning
			Can call on a range of strategies for fostering BICS and CALP development
		Applying SLA knowledge in the classroom	Can support students in navigating and learning new words, terms, idioms and discourse structures
			Can call on a wide repertoire of strategies for supporting students in oral or written production
			Can use a wide range of strategies for scaffolding language use so as to produce high quality discourse
			Can navigate the concepts of code-switching and translanguaging, and decide if and when to apply them
			Can decide whether production errors are linked to language or content
			Can use a wide range of language correction strategies with appropriate frequency, ensuring language growth without demotivating students
			Can use strategies such as echoing, modelling, extension, and repetition to support students in their oral production
			Can develop a classroom culture where language learning is supported through peers and learner

		autonomy

	Applying interactive methodology	Can select learning activities in terms of classroom interaction (learner<->learner, learner<->teacher, teacher<- >teacher)
		Can support the development of learner autonomy through choice, planning outcomes, identification of scaffolding needs and sources, and formative assessment
		Can give students a substantial 'voice' in classroom discourse
		Can create rich learning experiences, e.g.:
		   - group work that involves definition of each group member's role
		   - mid-task analysis of work process and results, scaffolding language and content for interaction and task completion
		   - peer enhancement - tasks for those listening to presentation
		   - end-of-task assessment of group work processes and results, and using this in planning for next group task
		
		Can draw out current student knowledge, ways of organising knowledge, ways of thinking, and interests, and help students to learn and use related language

	Having knowledge and awareness of cognition and metacognition in the CLIL environment	Can scaffold learning along a scale from lower order to higher order thinking, e.g., remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating, creating (Anderson and Krathwohl) Can identify, adapt and design materials suited to the students' current level of cognitive development Can identify syntactic structures and other language required for higher order thinking Can foster higher-order thinking about language, content and learning skills Can foster thinking about the interrelationships between language, content and learning skills Can use differences between languages to analyse how two cultures perceive one and the same concept Can use linguistic similarities and differences to develop metalinguistic awareness
	Knowing about and applying assessment and evaluation procedures and tools	Can engage students in an assessment-for-learning culture including maintaining a triple focus on language, content and learning skills Can distinguish and navigate CLIL-specific characteristics of assessment and evaluation including: - language for various purposes

		- work with authentic materials - communication with speakers of the CLIL language - ongoing language growth (being alert to plateauing) - level of comfort in experimenting with language and content - progress in achieving planned content, language and learning skills goals - developing all language skills - distinguishing content and language errors - carrying out assessment in the target language

(Extracted from Bertaux, Coonan, Frigols-Martin and Mehisto, 2010)

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