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TAKING THE MATTER TO TASK

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Abstract

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), considerato un nuovo ambiente di apprendimento, pone delle sfide agli insegnanti nei loro sforzi di assicurare l'apprendimento duale che l'acronimo richiede, ossia che il contenuto non linguistico venga appreso attraverso la lingua straniera e la lingua straniera attraverso il contenuto, contemporaneamente. Quali procedure, strategie e tecniche considerare per garantire tale apprendimento? Nel presente articolo si esplora il contributo del concetto di 'task' alla questione CLIL facendo riferimento alla ricerca in corso nell'ambito specifico nonché a dei task proposti in moduli CLIL da parte di docenti che hanno avuto una formazione nella metodologia CLIL.

Parola chiave: Tasks in CLIL, Apprendimento linguistico.

1. The curriculum as a collection of tasks

In a CLIL classroom the content the learners are exposed to is school subject matter. A strong preoccupation that naturally arises in a CLIL lesson concerns the comprehensibility of this input - the more so as the non-language subject matter is considered to be conceptually and linguistically more complex (and therefore more difficult for the student) than the fare normally provided in foreign language classes. The view is that what is not comprehended cannot be learned and thus, in line with Krashen's thesis², input needs to be formally adjusted to suit the (language) learning readiness of the pupils. In this way, according to Krashen's hypothesis, the conditions are created for language to be acquired³. In addition, the learner is able to gain access to the content in the input. But for learning to come about, more needs to be done. Working within the framework of a task-based syllabus for the teaching a second language, Prabhu (1987:66) states that the concept of 'comprehensible input' as proposed by Krashen is inadequate. He emphasizes the importance of on-line 'comprehensibilizing' and this is done through what he calls 'pedagogical dialogue' which draws the students directly into the content. It gets them to work on the content as it unravels. In this view, it is methodology therefore, rather than a-priori simplification only, that is of importance in making the input comprehensible. Whether the focus of attention is on acquiring language or on learning non-language content, or both as in the case of CLIL, we believe that the teacher's main preoccupation should be in getting the learners to work on the text rather than limiting intervention to the formal properties of the input. Thus, attention to the formal characteristics of input alone for facilitating access to content is of itself insufficient to provide the conditions for successful learning. Attention must necessarily be paid to pedagogical activities for it is they that "influence learners by directing their attention to particular aspects of content and by specifying ways of processing information" (Doyle 1983:161).

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The *action* carried out on the input is fundamental. Doyle states that in order to capture the inherent demands of the work required of the students it is necessary to view the curriculum as a collection of academic tasks because the academic work of the students is defined by the academic tasks that are embedded in the content. "Students will learn what a task leads them to do ... In other words, accomplishing a task has two consequences ... First, a person will acquire information - facts, concepts, principles, solutions - involved in the particular task that is accomplished. Second, a person will practice operations - memorizing, classifying, inferring, analysing - used to obtain or produce the information demanded by the task" (1983:162)

'Task' as a pedagogical construct currently occupies an important position in language teaching pedagogy together with associated movements of 'discovery learning' and 'cooperative learning' and developments in syllabus design - in procedural and process syllabuses where the task represents the organising criteria for the language course rather than it being, for example, structures, functions, lexis, or topics.

The value of 'task' is often highlighted by comparing it with the other pedagogical construct: 'exercise'. In language teaching pedagogy, an exercise is an activity that focuses on form, is elaborated for purely linguistic considerations with the primary intention of getting the learner to 'learn' the forms. Learning of language forms therefore is intentional. Unlike tasks, exercises are not meaning-focused and do not require the learner to 'use' the language in a meaningful and communicative

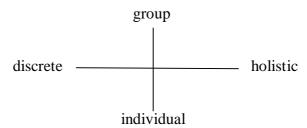
manner. Furthermore, exercises are normally associated with individual work as opposed to the collaborative group/pair work normally associated with task.

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'Task' has been defined in several different ways in the language teaching pedagogy literature (cfr. Ellis 2003:4-5; Skehan 1998:95-96 for a synthesis of these) calling our attention to important inherent features like 'meaning focus', 'relationship to the real-world', 'attainment of an objective', 'use of language' (as opposed to mere language practice), 'interaction with other participants', activation of 'thought processes'. In addition, tasks offer opportunities for holistic language use rather than focussing on single language skills or discrete forms.

The distinctions referred to above have been made with reference to the situation of language teaching where the contrast between form-focussing and meaning-focussing is quite strong. However, all activities in CLIL lessons can be called 'meaning-focussed' in as much as the learner always needs to carry them out by using his knowledge of the content being learnt. In other words, the reason for his activities is never purely linguistic. Indeed Doyle defines all instructional activities in content matter as tasks. Thus all the instructional activities presented with reference to CLIL will be referred to as tasks in this article.

The tasks are not the same however – some are done individually and others in groups, Some require the learners to draw on all their language and content knowledge to solve problems whereas others focus the attention of the pupil on discrete, isolated aspects. In order to capture the distinction to be found in tasks in CLIL lessons, a four dimensional diagram could be used indicating two focuses (discrete / holistic) and two organisations (individual/group).



Thus tasks can have a discrete focus by which we mean a narrow working focus on aspects of content (typically found in formats like *Complete..., Cloze, Match...*, etc). A holistic focus implies a wider view on content and a consequent wider use of language. Either types can be conducted individually, in pairs or in groups.

Doyle (1983:179) states that "... in general, 60 to 70 percent of class time is spent in seatwork in which students complete assignments, check homework or take tests".

It is essential that in this class time tasks that involve interaction (with teacher and/or with peers) and provide holistic experiential action on the content must be included alongside those that focus on discrete information and are carried out individually. The context of 'working' provided through these holistic types of tasks - experiential in nature – enables the content to be better mastered and the language to be nurtured and developed. It is precisely this type of task that is the most difficult to devise with success.

The further up the school level, the more the teaching style becomes frontal, lecture-like, with the main 'activity' of the student being that of listening, reading and

taking notes. The lessons in other words are minimally 'didactisized'. Depending on the decisions taken (in the planning stage of the CLIL programme) concerning the direction the LS development will take (all four skills? receptive skills only?) such a type of lesson will need to be integrated with a variety of tasks that allow for language growth in the direction chosen (e.g., if oral language production is to develop then tasks will need to be devised that will allow for this.)

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2. Tasks for learning

Whilst not representing a criteria for syllabus selection⁶, the position of task in the overall specification of the CLIL curriculum⁷ needs to occupy a forefront position as it is *only* through the tasks done that the learner can reach the objectives specified for the content. It is essential therefore to keep in mind the objectives of the lesson, the level of LS competence of the students, purpose and variety in tasks, and the appropriateness of these for the lesson.

Tasks have been variously classified and the implications of their internal structure and their methodological exploitation explored in order to understand their contribution to learning in general and (foreign/second) language learning and acquisition in particular. As the main pedagogical focus of CLIL programmes is the subject matter, types of tasks that promote content learning and the cognitive operations associated with it are of considerable interest.

Doyle (1983) discusses four general types of tasks found in academic learning, based on the cognitive operations they involve. These are:

- *Memory tasks*: e.g., verbatim recall (recite a poem or multiplication tables, recall dates, quantities, facts, etc). Attention is directed to the surface structure of the text and the recall of the exact words used.
- Procedural or routine tasks: e.g., application of a standardised formula or standard route such as when doing divisions or expressions in mathematics or carrying out grammatical analysis.
- Comprehension or understanding tasks: e.g., recognition of transformed versions of information, application of correct procedures to problems, drawing of inferences, making predictions. Attention is directed to the conceptual structure of the text and to the meaning conveyed by the words and sentences.
 - Opinion tasks: e.g., stating a reasoned preference.

Prabhu's research on task (1987:46-53) is conducted within a task-based syllabus in the field of second language pedagogy where the principal characterising feature of the programme taught is the meaning focussed-ness of all the tasks. The tasks he identifies have (like Doyle's) a cognitive base and are of three types: 'information gap', 'reason-gap' and 'opinion-gap'. Information-gap type tasks involve the transfer of *given* information to another person/place or into another form (e.g., transfer the information on A's map to B's map where such information is missing). The reasoning-gap type task "involves deriving some new information from the given information through a process of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, perception of relations, patterns". Although it involves transfer of information (just as in the information-gap type), the information is different from the original as it has been transformed through reasoning. The opinion-gap type task involves expressing personal preferences, feelings, ideas, attitudes, etc. Prabhu identifies the reasoning-

gap task as the one most suitable for (language) teaching: it shows a balance between predictability, to be found in the shared purpose and direction of the task, and unpredictability, inherent in the interaction and negotiation; it is not as repetitious in language use as tends to be the case in the information gap task; it stimulates sustained engagement of the learner - an important condition for language development:

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Information gap: information-meaning A \rightarrow (move) \rightarrow information-meaning A

Reasoning-gap: information-meaning A \rightarrow (reasoning) \rightarrow information-meaning B

Opinion gap: information = attitudes, ideas, etc.
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Willis (1996:149-154), also working in the tradition of the task-based foreign language syllabus, provides a classification of tasks based on activities commonly found in foreign language text books but which also highlights, to some extent, the cognitive operations or processes (in brackets below) the students carry out. She singles out:

- Make a list (brainstorm, fact find)
- Order and sort (sequence, rank, categorize and classify)
- Compare (match, identify differences and similarities)
- Solve problems (analyse, compare, justify, evaluate, make decisions...)
- Share personal experiences (narrate, describe, explore, explain attitudes, opinions, reactions)
 - Carry out creative task, e.g., projects (potentially all the above processes)

Tasks classified in a psycholinguistic frame highlight the importance for second language acquisition of variables like interactional structure (one-way or twoway), convergent or divergent orientation, or open or closed outcomes. One-way tasks are those in which the imbalance in the distribution of the information in the dyad or group is such that the task can be accomplished with a minimum of interaction and negotiation (A has all the information B has none A tells B.). In two-way tasks, on the other hand, the information is equally divided (but not totally shared) such that all the members of the dyad or group are obliged to interact and negotiate to get the information they need from the others. A perfect example of two-way task is 'jigsaw' but other types of tasks can be two-way depending on the manner in which the input is distributed among the participants. In two-way tasks there is more interaction and negotiation and therefore potentially greater possibility of acquisition. In tasks where the learners work together to find a common solution (converge) or to identify a right solution out of several provided, there is also more interaction and negotiation as opposed to those tasks where the direction the learner can take is completely open (diverge). Convergent tasks are usually closed, meaning that the learners know that they have to find a single outcome, e.g., make a final decision. An open task, on the other hand, allows for several possible outcomes (e.g., expressing a personal opinion in a group will lead to many diverse opinions overall).

An important aspect concerns the requirement that all the members (of the dyad or group) actually participate linguistically in the task. Some task have this requirement built directly into the structure (cfr. jigsaw and information gap) through the way the information is distributed (cfr. two-way tasks especially). Others, however, have no such requirement meaning that in the dyad or group one leaner can linguistically dominate the task at the expense of others.

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Tasks (derived from Ellis, 2003:215)

	One way	Two way	Interacti on requirem ent	Conver	Diver gent	Clos ed	Op en
Jigsaw		X	X	X		X	
Information gap	X	X	x	X		X	
Problem solving	X	X		X		X	
Decision making	X	x		X			x
Opinion exchange	X	X			X		X

All of the above task types are known to foreign language teachers and can be used as a form of checklist in CLIL to help not only to afford variety in task formats but also to guide the learners in their endeavour to understand and learn the subject matter. The tasks can be informed wherever possible by the variables of the psycholinguistic classification above e.g., a task for deducing meaning might be structured in such a manner that it resembles an information gap or an opinion-gap activity; making a list might take on the structure of a jigsaw or decision making activity; a reasoning-gap task might resemble the structure of a jigsaw or a problem solving activity; a procedural task might be structured like a two-way problem solving task (e.g., both pairs have an mathematical expression with parts missing but both have the right answer, etc. Interaction takes place with negotiation of meaning and of content in order to create the correct expression).

3. Tasks in CLIL

An important feature of CLIL lessons is that they are the result of synergetic and continuous consultation between the content teacher and the foreign language teacher. Such lessons may even be conducted together in the form of team teaching. Thus, there is a teaching team that shares knowledge, decisions, and competences before, during and after the lessons. Given the professional education and training that the foreign language teacher normally has, s/he is particularly suited to integrating the normal subject methodology with other methodological and didactic strategies

more suited to the particular problems of the CLIL classroom. The foreign language teacher's professional competence is built around the whole issue of language, the characteristics of language, the problems of learning and functioning in a foreign language, and the effective teaching strategies for facing them. S/he is alert therefore to a whole series of issues and potential solutions that the (non-foreign language) subject matter teacher is normally not aware of. It is to be expected therefore that CLIL material will exhibit perhaps more tasks and a greater variety of task formats than is normally the case in L1 subject matter teaching.

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A cursory glance at text books for non-language subjects for Italian schools (in L1) reveals that tasks (in the form of work plans⁸) are far from common, although a distinction could be made intuitively between subjects like mathematics, physics, tecnica and biology (where there may be more) and subjects like history, history of art or even geography. To get an idea of tasks available in L1 contexts, text books for a variety of school subjects for a seconda media, a terza media and a quarta ginnasio were consulted⁹. The general picture would seem to be: limited number of tasks in the modules/teaching units for actually learning the content (some modules have no tasks at all! 10) such that the student may have to read up to 23 or even 35 pages before he is actually involved in a task. Where tasks do appear the variety is limited to open Wh- questions and the closed True/False. By contrast, the final verifica of the teaching unit/module normally exhibits a good number of tasks in a rich variety of formats (cloze; multiple choice; true/false; Wh-questions; complete; matching; doing activities; solving problems activities). The bulk of the tasks therefore is to be found in the part dedicated to the testing - its role being to ascertain learning rather than to stimulate and guide it. What might be deduced from such a picture is that the L1 situations prefer to exploit methodological procedures (e.g., pedagogic dialogue), decided upon 'on the spot', rather than devise work plans of tasks where decisions concerning aims, conditions, outcomes, input, activity, and cognitive processes are made beforehand.

Ten *tesina*¹¹ containing CLIL modules, related to a variety of school subjects, were extracted casually from one hundred (a sample therefore of 10%) and examined to ascertain the presence of tasks specifically designed to aid learning (as opposed to testing) and to gauge the degree of variety. The results show:

- a. a high incidence of tasks in each module to aid learning (reference to testing excluded);
- b. considerable variety of tasks (e.g., all the formats in L1 text books¹² are present along with other types as well);
- c. many tasks focus specifically on the language of the text, especially on the lexis;
- d. tasks appear in a methodological framework, e.g., pre reading, while reading, post reading;
 - e. only occasionally are tasks clearly indicated as being oral tasks;
 - f. most tasks use the written word as the source of initial structured input;
- g. no task actually specifies (on paper) objectives, outcomes, and conditions (e.g., to be done in groups, etc);
 - h. no task indicates the cognitive operations to be carried out in the task;

- i. few tasks have indications regarding their 'interactive' nature (on paper at least);
 - j. few tasks are articulated as cooperative learning;
 - k. tasks with a language focus unrelated to subject of the module are present.

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3.1. Comment

There are several interesting comments to be made from the brief analysis above (based on a limited sample).

First, the high incidence of tasks made available to aid learning (at least compared with the situation found in the L1 text books) highlights a recognition of the importance of the actual learning process in CLIL, the need to cater for the impact the new content has on the learner - the new concepts he has to learn (and not merely recognise), the cognitive operations to carry out on these concepts - most of it passing through the foreign language. It is to this, therefore, that the CLIL team focuses most of its attention. Second, a considerable number of all the tasks in all the tesine focus on language. It is as if it is realised that to access the content attention must also be drawn to language (words and text). This is a normal preoccupation of the foreign language teacher (part of the team) and his/her 'presence' is also evident through the proposed methodological procedures of pre-, while, and post tasks (present in all tesine). We find thus, in all ten tesine, traces of a preoccupation with language (absent in the L1 textbooks consulted): e.g., explain meaning of words in text; find/underline/circle key words and phrases in text; give/match a title to paragraphs of the text; deduce the meaning of key expressions; single out principle ideas in the text; group words into lexical fields; create lexical maps; group words into logical sets; associate definitions to words in the text; put a text in order; complete crosswords. Apart from focusing on the language proper, occasionally tasks draw the attention of the learners to the rhetorical structure of the text (e.g., read and fill out a flowchart indicating 'statement of thesis'-'supporting evidence'-'conclusion') as a means of getting into the reasoning that is weaved into the text. Apart from being focused upon as a means to getting into the content of the text, language is also focussed upon as means to 'reconstructing the meaning of the text', e.g., use key words to write a summary or complete concept a map; predispose terms in the right order so that they reflect a particular process; complete a cloze, flowchart, diagram, table, or sentence.

In addition to these tasks on language for the content's sake, there are also other tasks where the learners practise language features merely for the sake of the language (e.g., identify relative adjectives and verbs for key words; derive nouns from verbs: 'reconstruct' \(\rightarrow\) 'reconstruction'; practice cause and effect connectors (met in the text dealing with historical events); etymological analysis of words with Greek or Latin roots to get to meaning; collocation (e.g., find expressions that can go with the word 'energy' = 'use up'). This last category of task - probably more correctly termed 'exercise' - represent a 'focus on formS' orientation (Doughty, Williams1988), typical of a language lesson and not of a CLIL lesson where attention to formal aspects of language is contingent upon a problem with meaning and would not become the object of isolated practice. Within a CLIL team, such exercises would naturally be dealt with by the foreign language teacher in his/her normal curricular hours.

Out of the ten *tesine* analysed, oral (production) tasks are indicated in eight of them. In a couple of *tesine* oral tasks are more present than in the others where only one or two, at the most, are proposed compared to the twenty or so that are writing-

based. The oral tasks are indicated directly or indirectly, in different ways: e.g., debate causes and effects; simulate a round table; repeat the new terms orally; explain orally; in groups, put the text back in the right order; ask each other questions on the text; discuss (a topic); discuss (answers given to a cloze, a true/false). We are presuming that the language to be used is the foreign language even though this is never specified.

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Unless elaborated in the cooperative learning tradition (only two out of the ten *tesine* analysed propose such work), no work plans provide indications as to the distribution of information within the group, the organisation of the class, nor what the outcomes will be.

From the literature on task research in the psycholinguistic tradition (very briefly outlined above in par.2), certain conditions appear important for the consequences they have on the quantity and quality of language acquisition and (oral) production (an important concern for CLIL promoters). To ask a learner to 'debate'. 'discuss', 'simulate' or 'ask questions' (without having a valid reason to do so) will result in little language production (as foreign language teachers well know from their own practice) or might, at best, result in just a few learners (the best) taking over the show (with little interaction and negotiation involving the other members of the class). In addition, it must not be forgotten that the learners have to deal with knew and difficult knowledge and this makes the job of using the foreign language (especially if in real time) all the more difficult (see below par.4). The 'discussions' (a term that could cover many of the tasks referred to above) therefore need to be structured in such a fashion that the learners are obliged to talk, to exchange ideas, to understand each other and make themselves understood. CLIL therefore cannot ignore features like 'closed/open', 'convergent/divergent', or 'one-way /two-way'. Workplans need to be thought out in greater detail with reference to purposes, input resources, activities, outcomes, cognitive operations, possible language required, group organization.

Example:

Purpose: understand how the theory of *abiogenesis* (that life derives from dead matter) is false

Resources: i) incomplete diagrams (shared/unshared*) of the experiment conducted by Redi and Pasteur; ii) instructions: complete the diagram, write out a definition of the phenomenon; present a short report of the process behind the phenomenon.

Activities: completion of the diagrams; reason about the meaning of the diagrams; transform the information into written form

Outcomes: completed diagrams; a written definition; a written/oral report

Cognitive operations: identify, describe, classify, foresee effects, deduce, provide reasons and suppositions, generalise

Language: prediction and probability (e.g., should, perhaps, as a result, therefore, maybe...); hypothesis making (e.g., if ... then, suppose ...); generalization (all, every, each, always, for example..)

Grouping: pairs

^{*} if 'unshared' the task would resemble a one-way task

4. Difficulties with tasks

From the tasks proposed in the tesine however, it seems clear that the preparation of tasks that allow for oral communication is a problem – as it also still is in the normal foreign language classroom. 'Speaking' just does not get sufficient space even though of fundamental importance in the development of linguistic competence. Reading¹³ followed by writing seem to occupy the lions share of the classroom time (only four of the analysed tesine actually ask the learners to write 'texts' in the form of summaries and each of these only once. All other writing activities are carried out at the word or sentence level: fill in a flowsheet; complete a summary/statements with missing words; answer a Wh-question¹⁴; etc.). Willis (1996) proposes a methodological procedure for task management capable of overcoming the drawback concerning oral activity in the classroom. She proposes a three-tier procedure: i) 'pre-task' where planning time¹⁵ is given over to preparation for the task, e.g., necessary language forms, activation of prior knowledge, etc.; ii) 'task': this part of the procedure is divided into three stages: a. task is carried out; b. learners prepare to deliver the results of the task to the rest of the class; c. the learners deliver the results. Throughout these three stages there is ample space for a communicative and meaning-focussed use of the foreign language. In Prabhu's view, there is also a qualitative difference in the use of language in these stages. With reference to the issue of borrowed language (e.g., taken from the text as a help to get the task done), he states that it is during the process of reasoning in the task itself that there is greater identification with the language (because it is being used to formulate personal meaning) than in the presentation stage where there is a more distinct shift of attention to linguistic formulation: "... operation is a more powerful context than presentation for producing the effect of borrowed language becoming one's own" (1987:50); iii) 'post-task': this phase is a follow-up phase where, in the CLIL situation, attention is given to content.¹⁷

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From this it is clear that designing work plans alone is not sufficient. It is the use that the tasks are put to and the way they are managed methodologically with the learners which is relevant. This is the part that does not appear in the student's textbook but is part of the teacher's professional competence. Putting a task in front of a student - however well it is designed - does not automatically mean the student will learn through it.

There are a series of variables which, in combination with the chosen methodological procedures, can serve to promote learning through the tasks. The variables are related to the complexity of the task matched with the learner's preparation for it. The greater the difficulty the student has, the higher the risk that one or both of the dual objectives will not be reached. This is because the learner is not able to pay attention to the competing demands of language *and* content together. Jostling with the variables can help to adjust this difficulty.

Synthesizing work by Skehan (1998), Robinson (2001) and Ellis (2003), the overall complexity of a task can be identified with reference to language factors, cognitive factors, and individual factors.

Complexity in language is found at diverse levels e.g., a non-verbal code presents less difficulty than a verbal code; the written code is less difficult than the oral code; and short simple sentences are less problematical than long ones. Cognitive complexity is to be found in the learner's more or less familiarity with aspects like

topic, text-type, the task, in the organisation of the information (e.g., he will need to make a greater effort to understand and learn when information is presented in a non-linear fashion. 18) and in the conditions he is operating in (e.g., lack of time to plan, etc). These factors interact with individual factors like language competence, confidence, attitude, motivation, and interest such that a task that is easy for one student is difficult for another. Thus, by jostling with factors like time, code, length of text, task familiarity etc, the teacher can mitigate the effects of the other aspects of the tasks like, for example, the content matter to be learnt which is difficult for the learner.

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5. Conclusion

Designing tasks for CLIL lessons requires taking into account a series of questions related to the double objectives to be reached. Tasks are fundamental and we believe that they must occupy much more space in subject matter lessons especially when the latter are conducted through a foreign language. In particular, space needs to be given to holistic interactive tasks that promote oral language use – particularly important for the development of language competence. The design of such tasks is not easy (their lack in the *tesine* has been pointed out). An awareness of methodological strategies and knowledge in the management of different variables capable of mitigating cognitive overload during the task might contribute to the reaching of these dual objectives.

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¹ Unless otherwise stated we are using the terms 'learn' and 'acquire' synonymously.

² Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (1987,Krashen's hypothesis refers to second language acquisition. CLIL situations must take into account problems related to content learning as well.

³ As long as the other conditions are in place as well though.

⁴ Cfr. the Bangalore project in Prabhu, 1987.

Meaning- focussed activities are those: "in which learners are occupied with understanding, extending (e.g., through reasoning), or conveying meaning, and cope with language forms as demanded by that process. Attention to language forms is thus not intentional but incidental to perceiving, expressing, and organizing meaning" (Prabhu 1987:27).

⁶ The CLIL syllabus is not a task-based syllabus.

⁷ 'Syllabus' refers to the content of the programme. 'Curriculum' refers to the framework containing the syllabus: aims, objectives, needs, methodology, materials, evaluation, etc.

⁸ The concept of 'task as work plan' is made by Breen (reported in Ellis 2003:9) to indicate the actual design and intentions of the task. This is opposed to the concept of 'task as process' (again by Breen) which serves to indicate the actual performance of the task. The distinction captures the situation where learners do not always do what the task was designed for them to do.

⁹ The subjects are: Scienze, Educazione fisica (1° media); Storia dell'arte, (2° media); Geografia, Storia (3ª media); Geografia (4° ginnasio). All the books were published in 2001.

As the volumes normally follow a format, the absence of tasks in one module implies the absence of tasks in all the others of the volume.

Tesine elaborated by the students enrolled on the Corso di Perfezionamento in CLIL, Università Ca' Foscari, 2004-2005. The school subjects are: history (4), history of art (2), geography (economics) (1), scienze (2), biology (1).

¹² Including those found in the *verifiche*.

And also listening if the learners are expose to oral input, especially from the teacher Of course the answers to *WH-questions* need not necessarily limit themselves to a single sentence responses but they normally do.

¹⁵ This can either be guided by the teacher and be detailed or else the learners plan by themselves (cfr. Ellis 2003:127-134).

¹⁶ The concept of pre-task figures strongly in the Prabhu's work. In his work the pre-task is a teacher fronted whole class interactive activity conducted as a preparation for a similar task to be done independently by the learners themselves subsequently (1987:23-26).

¹⁷ It is during the presentation stage that feedback can be given to form.

¹⁸ Brown and Yule (1983) plot text types on a horizontal continuum from the most easy to the most difficult: description \rightarrow giving instructions \rightarrow narrating \rightarrow expressing

opinions. All of these types become more complex when many elements, events, characters, properties are involved.

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