EXPERIENCING LIFE TOGETHER:
A cooperative CLIL course on social psychology

Master's thesis
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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Tämä pro gradu-tutkielmana laadittu materiaalipaketti yhdistää kielen ja sisällön oppimisen content and language integrated learning- eli CLIL-menetelmän avulla. CLIL:n keskeinen ajatus on, että opiskelija oppii kieltä toisen oppiaineen kautta. Autenttisten materiaalien käyttö sekä opiskelijoiden keskinäinen yhteistyö takaavat kielen implisiittisen oppimisen.

Tukemaan CLIL-menetelmää valittiin yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen. Se on tarkoin strukturoitu opetusmenetelmä, jossa opiskelijat työskentelevät yhdessä yhteisen tavoitteen saavuttamiseksi. Yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen integroituu CLIL-menetelmään hyvin, sillä molemmissa painotetaan yhteistyötä ja suullista viestintää.

Materiaalipaketin aiheeksi valikoitui sosiaalipsykologia. Se on suosittu psykologian alue, joka koskettaa jokaista ja joka on myös helppo linkittää opiskelijoiden omaan elämään. Siitä huolimatta sosiaalipsykologian osuus lukion psykologian oppimäärästä on todella vähäinen ja siten syventävä kurssi aiheeseen varmasti tervetullut.

Sosiaalipsykologian ja siten myös tämän kurssin keskeisiä teemoja ovat sosiaalinen vuorovaikutus, ryhmän ja sosiaalisen ympäristön vaikutus yksilöön, ryhmäilmiöt sekä yksilön maailman- ja minäkuvan rakentuminen.

Materiaalipaketin tehtävät linkittyvät Bloomin taksonomiaan. Taksonomian ajatus on, että tehtävät vaikeutuvat aste asteelta ensimmäisten ollessa aiheeseen tutustumista ja viimeisten kriittistä ajattelua ja soveltamista vaativia. Täten tämänkin paketin jokaisen kappaleen tehtävät vaikeutuvat tehtävä tehtävältä ja laajempaa tietämystä ja ymmärrystä vaaditaan jokaisen kappaleen teemoista.

Materiaalipaketti on suunniteltu digitaaliseksi kahdesta syystä. Teknologian käyttö on nuorille jokapäiväistä ja sekä hauskaa että hyödyllistä. Koska nuoret viettävät paljon aikaa internetissä sen hyödyntäminen opetuksessa on motivoivaa ja nykyaikaista. Lisäksi, nuorten on tärkeä oppia mediakriittisiksi ja arvioimaan etsimiensä lähteiden luotettavuutta. Toiseksi, myös koulut pyrkivät nykyisin ekologisuuteen, joten kurssimateriaalin toteuttaminen digitaalisena auttaa kouluja vähentämään paperijätettä.

Asiasanat – Keywords CLIL, cooperative learning, social psychology, material package	
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Muita tietoja – Additional information	

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1 INTRODUCTION

In a time before urbanization and industrialization what was important was one's physical condition and stamina. One had to be physically strong enough to last through the long days and do manual labour in which one's mental abilities were of less importance. However, along with both urbanization and industrialization and even more essentially globalization and new technology comes the need for better language and communication skills. Even a small far-away country like Finland is as big a part of the modern world as any other developed country. Speaking a language only five million others know makes it necessary for us to learn more global languages such as English in order to keep in contact with other nations – or, taking it to a more mundane level, even to understand shop names and read instruction manuals.

Obviously, that is not a new observation. English has been taught in Finnish schools for decades and the more the proficiency levels rise the more is expected from learners. As a matter of fact, in the EF English Proficiency Index (2012), Finland was ranked as number four – in other words, the Finns are in the top 5 when it comes to the English skills of non-native speakers. However, it is generally known that many Finns are not comfortable with speaking English. It can be claimed that that is due to our language teaching in which grammar and correctness of language are emphasized. However, there are alternative ways of teaching a language with the help of which teachers can fight the traditional language teaching approaches and try to change the emphasis in language teaching to a more communicative direction.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is one of those alternative approaches. In short, in CLIL the teaching of language is combined with the teaching of another subject, such as history, science or maths. The idea is to teach the other subject in a FL and in that way make language learning more natural and less grammar-focused (see, for example, Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010, Mehisto et al. 2008 and Marsh 2002). More detailed information on CLIL

and the reasons for choosing it for this material package can be found in chapter four.

Since in CLIL communication skills and co-operation are in central position, it is logical to combine it with a technique that is based on the same principles: cooperative learning. In cooperative learning the teacher uses different structures in all of which the learners work together with their peers. The activities and their structure are well-organized and require all learners to participate in order for everyone to learn (see, for example, Saloviita 2006 and Jolliffe 2007). As cooperative learning requires communication and sharing information it and CLIL complement each other and can thus be easily combined. More on cooperative learning can be found in chapter five.

Material packages have been designed as Master's Thesis for years mostly by teacher trainees and both approaches, CLIL and cooperative learning, have been a popular choice for the packages. However, a material package on psychology was not found even though psychology is a popular subject relevant to everyone as it deals with topics that help to understand human behaviour. Especially the topics of social psychology are something everyone should give a thought since it explains themes such as self-perception, stereotypes, schemas and group phenomena. As the national psychology courses for upper secondary school only scratch the surface when it comes to social psychology, it was felt that a more in depth course is in order and thus the material package is on social psychology.

For a rookie in teaching material designing, creating a whole new course combining two specific approaches was everything but easy. Special attention was paid to the outlook and nature of the material. Since the use of modern technology is getting more and more common in schools and many schools try to be eco-friendly and save paper, it was decided that the material is only in electronic form. It is up to the teacher to decide whether he or she wants the material traditionally in print or only take advantage of, for example, iPads and other modern electronic devices.

2 THE RELEVANCE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE MATERIAL PACKAGE

The aim of this chapter is to show that the material package is, in fact, needed. Reasons for combining content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and cooperative learning are shortly explained and the decision of choosing social psychology as the topic of the material package is justified. More on CLIL, cooperative learning and psychology teaching can be found from later chapters.

There is an on-going change in language teaching in Finland at the moment. For example, in teacher education and courses offered by language departments in language teaching an emphasis on communicative methods is apparent. Traditional language teaching is often presented as outdated and traditional textbooks filled with drills and fill-in exercises as dusty pieces of literature from the old ages. However, in schools all over the country, teachers still stick to those outdated methods, sometimes due to plain ignorance and lack of interest but arguably more often due to the lack of resources. It is from that premise where the idea for creating a more modern, communicative material package first sprung.

The material package in question combines the use of CLIL and cooperative learning in psychology education. To put it simply, the package offers upper secondary schools the possibility of organizing a psychology course in English in which cooperation and group work are emphasized. One might wonder why learners should study additional subjects in English when they already have to complete a minimum of six courses in English. It has to be clarified that the English psychology course differs a great deal from the traditional FL (FL) courses, which especially in upper secondary schools focus mostly on learning complex structures and vocabulary. It often seems that the aim of FL teaching is to prepare students for the matriculation examination instead of real life.

To begin with, offering teaching in a FL is important. The Finnish school system is widely recognized and appreciated world-wide and our national curriculum has been of great interest abroad – in fact, it is one of our exports. One goal of our teaching is to produce individuals who are familiar with different languages and cultures (Mustaparta 2011). Moreover, since the 90's, the aim has been to strengthen the FL learning of those interested in languages by offering teaching in FLs also in certain subjects, in which, in contrast to traditional language teaching, the focus is more on natural language usage. This has been supported by the decision of not requiring permission for teaching contents in a FL as long as the teaching follows the national core curriculum. It is also possible to study in a FL in special international schools, such as International Baccaulaureate (IB) schools. However, it is very difficult to adjust the Finnish curriculum into international schools in which the teaching is similar in every country. Therefore, the National Board of Education of Finland recommends adding FL teaching into regular schools (Mustaparta 2011).

As indicated above, there are many Finnish students who are interested in languages. It can be argued that many of them would prefer studying in English, for example in the aforementioned IB-schools, but are forced to enter Finnish upper secondary schools due to, for example, their location. As in Finland there are IB-schools only in bigger cities, many teenagers are left without the opportunity to study in English. Moving to another location is, without a doubt, often too big a step for both 15-year-olds and their parents. Thus, offering at least some courses in English benefits those students. In addition, the material package serves also the needs of exchange students in Finnish upper secondary schools. As the psychology courses are now offered as a rule in Finnish, exchange students cannot attend them unless they have adequate Finnish skills, which is unlikely. It is possible that psychology teachers in some schools are kind enough to let exchange students complete the courses in different ways, for example, by writing essays in English, but this will inevitably cause more work for the teacher. The material package offers schools the possibility to include exchange students on courses on psychology

without causing extra work for teachers. In conclusion, it is assumed that the package comes as a desired addition to upper secondary schools' course selections.

Furthermore, the national core curriculum for upper secondary schools (2003) offer the basis for the package in many ways. For example, it clearly states that cooperation and encouraging interaction should be emphasized in education (National core curriculum for upper secondary schools 2003: 12) and that learning occurs when a student is an active participator who interacts with other students, teachers and the environment (2003: 12). The school should also enable learners to work in different groups and networks. In addition, upper secondary school education should prepare students for facing the upcoming challenges of the changing world. Thus it can be argued that emphasizing cooperative skills and enhancing language competence does exactly that: prepares students for the future. For example, globalization, international markets and free mobility from one EU country to another make language skills more and more important and therefore schools should concentrate on ensuring that learners actually learn to use the language communicatively.

Cooperation, interaction and oral skills are emphasized in all guidelines for FL teaching (see for example the National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools 2003 and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) 2003 (Council of Europe 2011)). However, as mentioned earlier, the FL teaching is still often very traditional and teacher-led. Even though the FL teaching with younger children learning languages is about play, storytelling and having fun, later the teaching becomes very grammar and vocabulary oriented (Lasagabaster and Manuel Sierra 2009). In fact, it has been found that the older students get, the less they enjoy school and FL teaching, which has been explained with the differences in methodologies used in the first years of school and in upper secondary schools, for example (Lasagabaster et al. 2009: 5). This indicates a further need for the material package. A course

which emphasizes cooperation and communication and in which learners get to work together

Furthermore, the National Core Curriculum indicates that students are expected to reach the proficiency level B2.1 in their A1 language (usually English) after completing all courses. Learners on the B2-level are intermediate and independent language users who can, for example, "understand extended speech and lectures", "read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints", "interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with natives quite possible", "present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to –- field of interest" and "write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to –- interests" (The Common Framework of Reference for Languages 2003). The present course develops language skills and helps students to reach the expected proficiency level. After looking at different alternative methods two approaches were selected for the material package because combining them enables communicativeness and cooperation in class.

CLIL has spread across Europe during the past couple of decades and continues to become more popular. In CLIL, the teaching of a subject is done in a FL and thus learners are taught both languages and contents simultaneously. However, the lack of available materials has often been listed as one of the disadvantages of the approach (see e.g. Virta 2010 and Coyle at al. 2010). The material package is designed to meet the needs of teachers and students and make applying the CLIL approach in more subjects possible. Casal (2008) mentioned that CLIL is most often used in the teaching of history, geography and social studies, which includes psychology. A number of CLIL material packages have already been designed by university students. For example, in the University of Jyväskylä, material packages as Master's Theses have been designed on history (Järveläinen 2009), home economics (Kuutti 2011), business vocabulary (Pitkänen 2008) and health education (Uotila 2009) (University of Jyväskylä

2012). Yet again, CLIL materials for psychology could not be found and therefore the present material package on psychology fills an apparent gap in the existing CLIL materials.

Cooperative learning, again, is an approach to teaching that puts emphasis on structured cooperation and in which students work in small groups on a given task. It has been shown that cooperative learning has positive effects on various factors, such as learning outcomes, motivation and social relations as well as social competence (Jolliffe 2007). However, cooperative learning is more systematic and needs more work from both teacher and students than one might first expect. There are requirements that have to be met before learning in groups can be called cooperative learning and these requirements are explained later. Also, several different cooperative learning structures have been developed by experts, and teachers can choose the structures and activities that best fit their teaching. In fact, even though both CLIL and cooperative learning have to be well organized and thought through in order to fill the standards of those terms, both methods can easily be adapted to different purposes.

There are two obvious reasons for choosing psychology as the subject in question. One of the reasons is its popularity and the other is the fact that in further psychology studies English is needed. The popularity of psychology becomes evident from the University of Jyväskylä's website (2012), which indicates that the department of psychology had the second most applicants in 2012 with the number of 1283. It can be argued that most of the applicants have studied in upper secondary schools, because previous knowledge of psychology is needed when applying to university. In the present course, students get a deeper understanding of the topics included, which helps them in their matriculation examination in psychology. Furthermore, it also helps them in their matriculation examination in English as they inevitably learn more English vocabulary, structures and phrases. As the results of the matriculation examinations are taken into account in the entrance requirements

for universities, it can be argued that the present course facilitates students to receive a place in higher education.

Furthermore, in the study guide for the Social Sciences in the University of Jyväskylä (Yhteiskuntatieteellisen tiedekunnan opinto-opas 2011-2014), for example, it can be seen that the book lists for basically every psychology course include at least one book in English. However, in Finnish upper secondary schools psychology is taught as a rule in Finnish. Getting into university is not an indication for adequate English skills for studying in English, which brings out another need for the package. The terminology is wide and complex even in a student's native language and it most definitely is that in a FL, too, regardless of his or her level of competence in English. One can imagine, then, how difficult it can be for some students first of all to understand the English course books and secondly to learn the terminology in a different language. The package gives students an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the concept of studying in English and with the foreign terminology already before entering universities.

Upper secondary schools are obligated to offer all compulsory courses of each subject. However, each school can decide to offer applied courses as well. These applied courses are holistic courses that can, for example, combine elements of different subjects or be based on a specific method (The National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools 2003: 15). As the current material package does both - combines English and psychology and is based on the methods of CLIL and cooperative learning - it suits well as an applied course. In addition, as one of the purposes of the package is to give an overall view on the human brain and information-processing, it also fits the description of a holistic course. To sum up, a cooperative CLIL course on psychology is a great addition to the upper secondary school courses on offer. Next, a closer look is given at psychology education in Finland.

3 PSYCHOLOGY EDUCATION IN FINLAND

In this chapter the psychology education in Finland is discussed. The nature of psychology education in upper secondary schools is explained and reasons for teaching teenagers psychology are discussed. In other words, a general idea of why and how psychology is taught in upper secondary schools in Finland is given.

In Finland, students can start studying psychology in upper secondary school at the earliest. In recent years, psychology has become a popular subject of study among students, which is indicated, for example, by the number of students enrolled for the matriculation examination in psychology. In the spring of 2012 the number was 5 880 and in the spring of 2013 5 751 (Ylioppilastutkinto Suomessa 2013: Tilastoja). The only subject that had more participants in the matriculation examination, was health studies. In comparison to, for example, those participating to the examination in geography, the numbers are twice as big both years. When it is taken into consideration that it is only mandatory to complete the introductory course on psychology, the numbers are impressive.

Even though only the first course is mandatory, schools are obligated to offer at least five psychology courses for their students. The topics vary on each course and cover all the central areas of psychology (the National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools 2003: 191-193). For example, course one focuses on mental functioning, learning and interaction, course two on the human development and course three on human information-processing. To continue, course four concentrates on motivation, feelings and intellectual functioning whereas the topics of course five include personality and mental health. Together the five courses give a holistic picture of the human being to students.

In fact, according to the National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools (2003: 19), the purpose of psychology education is to help students understand and observe the human being and the factors affecting his actions in

a diverse manner. By understanding psychology, students are helped to understand the connection between psychology and social, cultural and contemporary issues. Also, they are helped to understand how mental, biological and social factors interact and depend on each other. In addition, through psychology education, students can personally recognize, acknowledge and deal with psychological phenomena through their own experiences. Moreover, studying psychology supports students' self-knowledge, self-development and maintaining mental well-being. Finally, the curriculum states that psychology education offers an opportunity for students to develop their critical thinking.

To continue, psychology education has various aims (the National Core Curriculum for Upper Secondary Schools 2003: 190). First of all, students should be able to perceive the human functioning as an entity that is based on the interaction of mental, biological and social factors. Secondly, they should understand the central concepts and terms of psychology and be aware of the most central research results. Thirdly, students should understand psychological information so that they can apply that knowledge into recognizing their life circumstances and possibilities, developing their own psychological growth and welfare, studying and enhancing their thinking, relationships and interaction skills. Fourthly, they should be able to acquire psychological information from different sources and evaluate the reliability of those sources. Finally, psychology education should help them to develop their readiness to social and communal functioning and to understand social and cultural changes, as well as to understand the functioning of people from different cultures and societies.

In conclusion, young people in Finland are interested in the way the human mind functions and it is the duty of psychology education to provide them with the information needed in order to understand it. In the next chapter, the discussion is shifted from psychology education to CLIL.

4 CLIL: CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING

The psychology course designed for the material package is designed as a CLIL course. CLIL is an approach that is gaining recognition and popularity across the globe. The idea of teaching subjects in a FL intrigues many, as it is like killing two birds with one stone. This chapter begins with defining the terminology. Then, a brief look is given at the history of the approach as well as at the situation of CLIL in Finland. The chapter ends with discussing the reasons for the use of the approach.

4.1 Defining CLIL

CLIL is an inventive way of viewing language education (van de Craen, Mondt, Allain and Gao 2007: 75). It is an approach to teaching in which different subjects are taught through a FL, most often to mainstream education students at different levels (Dalton-Puffer 2011) and which is "in line with European language policies on the promotion and implementation of multilingualism" (van de Craen et al. 2007: 70). CLIL is in use all over Europe from the North to the South (Smit: 2007) although only few countries have adapted CLIL into "mainstream general education" instead of merely organizing pilot projects (Moore and Lorenzo 2007: 28).

CLIL is "an umbrella term covering a dozen or more educational approaches" (Mehisto et al. 2008: 12). The related key terms include, for example, immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, language showers and enriched language programmes. For example, Cummins (1998) lists certain features gathered by Johnson and Swain that define language immersion programmes. To begin with, in immersion programmes the L1 is supported, teachers are bilingual and the FL is the medium of instruction. Dalton-Puffer (2008: 2) continues that in immersion programmes "the language of instruction is the other official language of the country" and the teachers of immersion programmes and the students' mother tongue teachers share the same

qualifications. On the contrary, CLIL teachers are typically nonnative subject teachers and, also, CLIL lessons are designed based on the contents of the subject (Dalton-Puffer 2011). Bilingual education, again, is defined in the website of the National Association for Bilingual Education (2009: what is bilingual education?) as "any use of two languages in school – by teachers or students or both – for a variety of social and pedagogical purposes". It is also said that in the best bilingual education programmes the following characteristics appear: "ESL instruction, sheltered subject matter teaching, and instruction in the first language". Marsh (2002: 55) explains that in bilingual education the assumption is that children are or will be bilingual and the goal is that they develop an equal competence in two languages. Dalton-Puffer (2011) points out that it is rather the "cultural and political frame of reference" than the features of the programme that differentiates CLIL from other types of immersion. Nevertheless, CLIL is a very flexible approach which provides an opportunity to apply knowledge "learnt from these various approaches" (Mehisto et al. 2008: 12).

Although there is some variation in what is meant by CLIL all definitions are unanimous that CLIL combines the teaching of content and language. CLIL is often defined as a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010: 1; Mehisto, Marsh and Jesús Frigals 2008: 9) that is close to the approaches of language immersion and bilingual education. Mehisto et al. (2008: 11) continue that CLIL "involves using a language that is not a student's native language as a medium of instruction and learning for primary, secondary and/or vocational-level subjects such as maths, science, art or business". Furthermore, Casal (2008: 1) says that CLIL is an approach in which "a FL is the vehicle to teach certain subjects, belonging mainly to the areas of history, geography and social studies and in a lesser degree, to science and the arts".

However, when we move into further detail, the definitions begin to vary. On the one hand, Coyle et al. (2010) state that although CLIL-programmes are content-driven, a combination of learning both the subject and the language is required. They continue to emphasize that in CLIL simply translating subject contents into English is not adequate but, again, combining the teaching of both the content and the language effectively is needed. In addition, the Eurydice report (2006) reminds that, in CLIL, teaching is not done in a FL but rather with or through one. On the other hand, Marsh (2002: 72) says that CLIL is "often delivered through a form of naturalistic situation that allows for largely implicit and incidental learning" and Dalton-Puffer (2011) continues the same thought by saying that CLIL lessons are usually content lessons and the language itself is taught in FL lessons as normal. She suggests that CLIL is a FL enrichment measure packaged into content teaching. Also Seikkula-Leino (2007: 92) states that "the aims and contents in different subjects are the same in CLIL as in teaching in the native language" and that the objectives of teaching should be the same for teaching in CLIL as for teaching in the native language. In other words, professionals seem to disagree whether the teaching of the language should be explicit or not. In the present study and in designing the material package, CLIL classes are seen as content-driven lessons in which there is explicit vocabulary teaching even though the emphasis is on learning the content.

Whether the focus of CLIL classes is on content or on language, the knowledge of both should naturally increase during the classes. Dalton-Puffer (2008: 4-5) divides the outcomes of CLIL education into content outcomes and language outcomes. Parents and subject teachers sometimes fear that students will not develop as good a competence in the subject as they would being taught in their native language. However, research shows that there is no reason for fear as CLIL students seem to learn at least as much content as the students in ordinary classes, if not more (Dalton-Puffer 2008). It is the more persistent work done on tasks and the ability to tolerate frustration more that might enable CLIL students to acquire more knowledge on the subject. Furthermore, the language

learning outcomes of CLIL students are positive and research shows that CLIL students are able to acquire a higher language competence than their peers who only attend traditional language classes. However, attending CLIL does not necessarily lead to a higher competence in all language areas. In fact, Dalton-Puffer lists the skills that are favourably affected by CLIL (receptive skills, vocabulary, morphology, creativity, risk-taking, fluency and quantity as well as the emotive and affective outcomes) and the skills unaffected or indefinite (syntax, writing, informal/non-technical language, pronunciation and pragmatics).

Due to its flexibility, the CLIL approach offers teachers and schools many opportunities as it can be used for different purposes. For example, on the one hand there are CLIL-based schools in which each subject is taught in an additional language through CLIL but, on the other hand, a school can decide to design just a single project on a specific theme (e.g. the EU) as a CLIL project. Therefore, the term "content" can be very different in different contexts. It can refer to, for example, a specific module, a course, a theme or a project. Actually, "the many faces of CLIL" include language showers, CLIL camps, student exchanges, local and international projects, family stays, modules, work-study abroad and partial, total, two-way and double immersion (Mehisto et al 2008: 13). Thus, CLIL "offers opportunities both within and beyond the regular curriculum to initiate and enrich learning, skill acquisition and development" (Coyle et al. 2010: 28). Nevertheless, they point out that even though CLIL can be used for various different purposes, its theoretical basis must be visible in all cases in order for CLIL to be successful. Therefore, Marsh (2002) and the CLIL compendium (2013) have listed the different dimensions of CLIL, which explain the multifaceted theoretical background of the approach.

4.1.1 Dimensions of CLIL

Marsh (2002: 66-69) divides the core features of CLIL into five dimensions. They take into account the different perspectives of how CLIL is beneficial to learners. CLIL is thus viewed from the perspectives of culture, environment, language, content and learning. In this section, these dimensions are presented.

1. *The Culture Dimension*

The culture dimension has different aspects: building intercultural knowledge and understanding, developing intercultural communication skills, learning about neighbouring countries/regions and/or minority groups and introducing the wider cultural context. CLIL is viewed to be the right tool for achieving these aspects because in CLIL language and communication are emphasized and the learners learn by being active participators.

2. *The Environment Dimension*

The aspects in this dimension include preparing for internationalization, specifically EU integration, accessing international certification and enhancing school profile. As globalization is a current matter and affects basically every aspect of life, CLIL can be seen as a means to cope with it. CLIL provides learners with the linguistic competence to for example access an international certificate, which often opens doors to the out world.

3. *The Language Dimension*

This dimension has five aspects: improving overall target language competence, developing oral communication skills, deepening awareness of both mother tongue and target language, developing plurilingual interests and attitudes and introducing a target language.

4. *The Content Dimension*

Aspects in this dimension include providing opportunities to study content through different perspectives, accessing subject-specific target language terminology, preparing for future and/or working life.

5. *The Learning Dimension*

Finally, the aspects of the learning dimension include complementing individual learning strategies, diversifying methods and forms of classroom practice and increasing learner motivation.

As seen above, the five dimensions of CLIL provide a holistic framework for CLIL education. They take into account the individual learner and aim at offering him or her the tools to succeed in the ever internationalizing world. Next, we will move on to discussing the core features of the CLIL approach.

4.1.2 Core features and aims of CLIL

In this section, the focus is on the core features of CLIL. First, the core features are divided into categories and, next, a couple of important characteristics that teachers ought to bear in mind when starting to use the approach are discussed. The section ends with listing the aims of CLIL.

The core features of the CLIL approach can be divided into six categories: multiple focus, safe and enriching learning environment, authenticity, active learning, scaffolding and co-operation (Mehisto et al. 2008: 29). Multiple focus means, for example, "supporting language learning content/language classes", "integrating several subjects and "organizing learning through cross-curricular themes and projects" (p. 29). In addition, a safe and enriching learning environment needs "routine activities and discourse", "building student confidence to experiment with language and content", "guiding access to authentic learning materials and environments" and "increasing student language awareness". Furthermore, authenticity requires "letting the students ask for the language help they need", "making a regular connection between

learning and the students' lives" and "using current materials from the media and other sources". To continue, active learning means that the principal communicators in the classroom are the students and that they also "evaluate progress in achieving learning outcomes" and negotiate with others. Co-operation should also be favoured. (p. 29). Finally, scaffolding includes "building on a student's existing knowledge, skills, attitudes, interests and experience", "responding to different learning styles" and "fostering creative and critical thinking" whereas co-operation means co-operation between different teachers, teachers and parents and possibly even local community (pp. 29-30).

For teachers, the thought of using CLIL may seem as shifting to a totally new and different type of teaching. There is, of course, some truth to that but CLIL still shares various goals and practices with more standard teaching approaches. Even though one needs to realize the required changes that have to be made to the daily classroom practice, it is not necessary or even desirable for teachers to give up their favourite strategies and practices even though they start using CLIL (Mehisto et al. 2008: 27). This can, though, be difficult as one has to bear in mind that the focus should be on all content, language and learning skills. In addition, the matter of specialization is also brought up. Content teachers need to step out of their comfort zone and change the language into English, which brings out the question whether they can indeed provide skilled language teaching. On the opposite, language teachers may not be specialized in the subject they teach and therefore may face difficulties teaching it. Therefore, it is important for both language and content teachers to co-operate and exchange knowledge.

To continue from that, in CLIL teaching the teacher is no longer just passing information on to passive listeners but he or she rather becomes a facilitator of learning. As Coyle et al. (2010) explain, in CLIL the learner has an active role. In order for content learning through CLIL to be effective and successful, learners need to be cognitively engaged and challenged. Indeed, greater thinking leads

to greater learning (Mehisto et al. 2008: 30). It is explained that thinking or, in other words, cognition, includes perceiving, recognizing, judging, reasoning, conceiving and imagining. They continue that as CLIL aims to long-term learning, it is important that the focus is on the big picture, which is to say content instead of form. Therefore students are not obliged to memorize details such as facts and vocabulary or parrot language patterns but the goal is to connect new information to existing knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Communication and cooperation are also emphasized in CLIL. In Coyle et al. (2010: 32), Sauvignon's principles for communicative language are presented:

- Language is a tool for communication
- Diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development
- Learner competence is relative in terms of genre, style and correctness
- Multiple varieties of language are recognized
- Culture is instrumental
- There is no single methodology for language learning and teaching or a set of prescribed techniques
- The goal is to use the language as well as learning it

These principles are viewed as relevant to CLIL because, for learning languages successfully, learners have to cooperate, and therefore communication between learners is emphasized in CLIL settings. It is essential that students are provided with opportunities to interact with each other because that is how we learn to speak a language (Mehisto et al. 2008: 105).

Furthermore, many of the various aims of CLIL are listed in the Eurydice report (2006: 23-24): aims for learning, socio-economic aims, socio-cultural aims and linguistic and educational aims. To begin with, aims for learning include that learners increase their proficiency both in the subjects and in the FL. In addition, examples of socio-economic aims are that pupils are prepared for life in a "more internationalized society" and that they have "better job prospects

on the labour market". Moreover, socio-cultural aims include "conveying to pupils values of tolerance and respect vis-á-vis other cultures". Furthermore, linguistic aims include developing "language skills that emphasise effective communication" and "motivating pupils to learn languages by using them for real life practices" and educational aims developing "subject-related knowledge and learning ability" and "assimilation of subject matter by means of a different and innovative approach".

In short, in the CLIL approach the main role is played by learners who actively engage in cognitively challenging tasks while communicating with each other in an additional language. Next, a brief glance is taken at the history of the approach.

4.2 History of CLIL

People have always studied in FLs (Coyle et al 2010). The Eurydice report (2006) states that in the 20th century some schools, especially those situated close to regional borders, have offered teaching of subjects in a FL for decades. In these cases, the aim has often been to make children bilingual so that they can cope in both languages. Furthermore, in the 70s and 80s Canadians started to test language immersion programmes in schools due to the bilingualism (French/English) of the country. As language immersion in Canada has worked so well, it has served as an example for the rest of the world and inspired researchers. As seen here, sometimes studying in a FL is a necessity and driven by, for example, governments that forbid studying in minority languages but as Coyle et al. (2010: 2-3) further explain, globalization and constantly developing technology also present the need for knowing FLs, especially English, well. Today best results are wanted in the shortest time possible and for that reason the interest in CLIL is increasing.

The development of CLIL has been a long journey influenced by many factors. Coyle et al. (2010) explain that the roots of CLIL actually date back as far as to

the cognitive revolution in the 1950s. The revolution was as a counterstrike to behaviourism, which emphasized the importance and effect of the environment on an individual. Now, in the cognitive revolution, attention was paid to cognitive processing and to how learning occurs instead of external factors. Coyle et al. (2010: 5) also say that the importance of cognition grew when knowledge was needed for the creation of artificial intelligence and today, due to globalization and developing technology, we have moved to an era that they call the Knowledge Age, which is characterized by integration, convergence and participative learning. They continue that, naturally, the three characteristics influence the way teaching is conducted and especially the fast integration within Europe in 1990-2007 meant that education had to change in order to produce better language and communication outcomes (Coyle et al. 2010: 4-5). As a response, CLIL developed in the 1990s. Since then, the EU has given plenty of support for CLIL programmes (The Eurydice Report 2006) and the application of CLIL has spread and increased in many countries, including Finland (Seikkula-Leino 2007), which brings us to the next topic.

As mentioned earlier, on its way to conquer the world, CLIL has also spread to Finland. In the 1980s and 1990s new school laws in Finland made it possible for teaching to be conducted in a language other than the native language of the learner (Seikkula-Leino 2007). This enabled the introduction of CLIL in Finnish schools in the 1990s and in 2004 CLIL was included "in the latest national framework curriculum for basic education" (Pihko 2007: 117) and at the moment CLIL is taught in 25 cities across the country from Helsinki to Rovaniemi (the CLIL-network 2012). In Finland the languages used in CLIL are either FLs, regional/minority languages or other state languages (The Eurydice report 2006). Moreover, in Finland there are no admission criteria for entering CLIL programmes, which is not always the case. For example, in France the pupils or students entering a CLIL programme are tested for language-related knowledge. In addition, in Finland CLIL-programmes are offered not only on primary, secondary and upper secondary levels but even on pre-primary levels. Finally, there are many possibilities how to organize CLIL teaching in Finnish

schools, ranging from occasional language showers to long-lasting CLIL teaching (Pihko 2007).

As seen above, there is a wide interest in CLIL in Finland. Actually, the CLIL-network itself is a proof of the usage and interest in CLIL in Finland. The network was created in 2005-2007 and financed by the Finnish National Board of Education for the purposes of teachers teaching in FLs or in language immersion programmes. The contents of the network are created by teachers themselves and in the autumn of 2012 it will be possible to exchange materials found or created by teachers. Additionally, in 2005 the Suvikyky RY (the Finnish Association of CLIL and Immersion Education) was founded as a network for different institutions and professionals in the field of bilingual and immersion education. Furthermore, Pihko (2007) states that there is also a lot of research on CLIL in Finland. For example, the University of Vaasa has a Centre for Immersion and Multilingualism in which research has been done on bi- and multilingualism as well as on language immersion (University of Vaasa 2012). In addition, studies have also been conducted and research been done in the University of Jyväskylä. According to the University's website (2012), the Centre for Applied Language Studies is "a national expert unit specialized in studying the goals, practices and policies of language education" that has, for example, an on-going project on CLIL, called "Language and Content Integration: Towards a Conceptual Framework". The aforementioned examples show that the benefits and the importance of CLIL have not gone unnoticed in Finland either.

4.3 CLIL – why choose it?

Having defined the terminology, presented the central ideas and aims and taken a glance at the history of the approach in the earlier sections, reasons for choosing the CLIL method as well as the effects that CLIL has on learning and learners are now introduced. To begin with, Coyle et al (2010: 17) list the most "common reasons for introducing CLIL". First, there are contextual reasons.

Such can be, for example, preparing for globalization, accessing international certification and enhancing school profiles. In addition, reasons related to the content, such as preparing students for future studies, developing skills for working and accessing subject-specific knowledge in another language, exist. Furthermore, there are language reasons, such as improving overall target language, developing oral communication skills and developing self-confidence as a language learner and user. Also, there are reasons related to learning, such as increasing learner motivation, diversifying methods and approaches to classroom practices and developing individual learning strategies. Finally, there are cultural reasons, as for example, building intercultural knowledge, understanding and tolerance and introducing a wider cultural context.

Even though it takes time before accurate theoretical and research information can be gathered from the use and benefits of CLIL, the research this far has given rather positive results (Marsh 2002). He presents some arguments and counterarguments and summarizes the results as such: CLIL suits all students of any age and competence level and it is most often used with modular approaches designed around themes. In the following sections research results for different effects on motivation, self-confidence and anxiety are presented.

4.3.2 Motivation

The positive effects CLIL has on motivation have been found in several studies. For example, Lasagabaster et al. (2009) found that especially the attitudes of female learners towards FLs get more positive when studying through CLIL. Pihko (2007), again, found that CLIL students had a higher motivation to study English and were more willing to use English in communication outside school as well. She also defines CLIL students as "highly-motivated EFL students" (Pihko 2007: 123). For example she found that in a questionnaire 89% of the CLIL students had answered "I strongly agree" or "I agree" to the statement "I like studying English", whereas the percentage for non-CLIL students was 64.

In addition, Virta (2010) found in his experiment of using CLIL in a village school that the attitudes of both teachers and students towards using the CLIL approach were mainly positive. For example, in a questionnaire after CLIL lessons, 68% of the pupils stated that they had enjoyed learning a subject in a FL. Secondly, 52% thought that studying in English would suit them. Thirdly, 64% stated both that studying in English would strengthen their English skills and that studying in English would increase their interest in the language. Finally, a total of 84% had enjoyed the lessons held in English. However, even though Coyle et al. (2010) also recognize the positive effects CLIL has on motivation, they also remind us that in the beginning of a CLIL programme it is possible that learners' motivation, enjoyment and self-esteem may in fact decrease as they often need to get used to the approach before improvements can be seen.

4.3.3 Self-confidence and anxiety

In addition to motivation, it has been found that CLIL also has positive effects on learners' self-confidence as speakers of English and on decreasing their anxiety levels. Pihko (2007) conducted a study on CLIL in Finland on how learners experienced CLIL affectively, on the difficulties they faced and on the learners' self-perceived affective outcomes of CLIL. In her study she compared CLIL and ordinary EFL learners on the 7th and the 8th grades and focused on their L2 self-concept and L2 classroom anxiety. Furthermore, the CLIL students were more confident about their language skills and language use. However, the study showed that approximately 30-35% of both CLIL and EFL learners felt nervous when speaking in English and for CLIL learners the level of anxiety during the content classes was relevantly higher due to the level and scope of the language used in them. Nevertheless, Dalton-Puffer et al. found that students who had studied in CLIL rated their FL competence higher than those who had not studied in CLIL (Coyle et al. 2010).

Finally, in his study, Virta (2010) considered the advantages and disadvantages (more precisely challenges) of the CLIL approach in general. On the one hand, as advantages he listed, for example, the positive influence CLIL has on the FL proficiency and on the courage to use the language, the benefits CLIL has on cognitive skills, the growth of self-confidence and motivation and the positive consequences on social and cultural politics. On the other hand, as challenges he mentioned, for example, the lack of teaching materials and resources, the difficulties in the formation of teaching groups as well as in time management, the role and expectations of parents and the concern about the students reaching the goals set for their mother tongue and the subject taught. Coyle et al. (2010), too, acknowledge the concern some may have about the students ending up lacking knowledge in the subjects taught and therefore they suggest that teachers ask learners to build up a portfolio during courses so that their understanding about the subjects can be examined.

This chapter has hopefully given a coherent idea of the CLIL approach and given plenty of justifications for using it in Finnish schools. In summary, the appeal of the approach is in its philosophy which emphasizes cooperation and natural language use. The various positive effects that have been found in correlation between CLIL and, for example, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety also speak for the approach. In today's world where being able to speak in different languages is quite simply obligatory, the use of CLIL in schools is the necessary step forward. Next, the other method chosen for the course, cooperative learning, is put under the spotlight.

5 COOPERATIVE LEARNING

> Without the cooperation of its members society cannot survive, and the society of man has survived because the cooperativeness of its members made survival possible.... It was not an advantageous individual here and there who did so, but the group. In human societies the individuals who are most likely to survive are those who are best enabled to do so by their group. (Ashley Montagu, 1965)

Cooperative learning is a relatively new method which has gained popularity around the world. However, it is often simplified and many of the cornerstones of cooperative learning are sometimes left forgotten. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to present the general idea and some of the approaches to cooperative learning and also to remind of the complexity of it. The chapter begins with defining cooperative learning and related terms, then moves on to first giving a brief insight on the history of cooperative learning and then continues to give examples of the different approaches in cooperative learning. Towards the end of the chapter, the advantages and disadvantages of the approach are discussed and, and, finally, in the very end of the chapter, suggestions on how to use the approach are given.

5.1 Defining cooperative learning

Working and learning together is not by far a new idea in teaching (Saloviita 2006). For example, in the 17th century Johann Amos Comenius claimed that learners benefit from teaching each other and in the late 18th century students in Bell-Lancaster schools were taught by older students. Later, in the late 19th century Charles Parker brought the ideas of Pestalozzi and Fröbel on experimental learning, creative play and learning as social action to the U.S.A.

Two central figures in the development of different cooperative methods have been Jodn Dewey and Lev Vygotsky. John Dewey emphasized that children are both psychological and social beings and that the school should be seen as a

part of life and as a society in a smaller scale and Vygotsky believed that language use has two purposes: on the one hand to serve as "a cultural tool for sharing and developing our knowledge to support our social life" and on the other as a "psychological tool to help organize our individual thoughts" (Jolliffe 2007: 31). Still, by the mid-20th century, a method emphasizing individuals and competition had been widely accepted in schools in the USA and the same development could also be seen in Europe (Saloviita 2006). In Finland, group work was brought to schools by Matti Koskenniemi in the 1940s.

Cooperative learning has been introduced as a method in which the traditional "teacher asks, learner answers"-method is challenged with different cooperative structures (Saloviita 2006). The learners work either in pairs or groups "to achieve academic goals" (Putnam 2009: 82). There are big ideas and beautiful values behind the method (Saloviita 2006: 165-167). These values include, for example, equality of learners, equal participation and respect towards others, helping others and seeing peers as partners instead of rivals. The idea is that cooperative learning sets to produce citizens that can work cooperatively and are committed to the principals of a democratic society is contained in the method's philosophy. It is seen that while working cooperatively at school, learners live a life in which participation, cooperation, mutual respect and helping others are reality.

Cooperative learning is an interactive learning method, which is closely related to the methods of collaborative learning and experiential learning. In general, collaborative learning is a method in which a group works together to ponder on a question or complete a task. It is defined by Panitz, a pioneer in collaborative and cooperative learning, as "a philosophy of interaction and personal lifestyle where individuals are responsible for their actions, including learning and respect the abilities and contributions of their peers" (Panitz 2001: Definition). The group of students works together simultaneously and basically takes all the responsibility for the task, including finding materials and dividing roles, whereas the teacher is more of a consultant than a teacher.

The other related term is experiential learning. David Kolb has created the theory of experiential learning, which, in contrast to many other learning theories that highlight the role of cognition or behaviour, gives emphasis to experience (Kolb and Passarelli 2011: 3). To be more specific, according to ELT, learning is a cycle of experiencing, reflecting, thinking and acting, through which experience is transformed into knowledge (Kolb and Yeganeh 2011: 3). Furthermore, the theory views learning as a process that is driven by "conflict, differences and disagreement" and that requires learners to fully engage, which is to say, to think, feel, perceive and behave (Kolb and Passarelli 2011: 2-3). As said, in ELT learning is seen as a cycle in which four different modes are distinguished – concrete experience (CE), abstract conceptualization (AC), reflective observation (CO) and active experimentation (AE) (Kolb and Passarelli 2011: 3). The idea is that during the learning process, learners go through all modes but in which order, depends on their personal learning style. To simplify, Kolb explains that the concrete experiences are the foundation for observations and reflections and the reflections, again, are assimilated into abstract concepts "from which new implications for action can be drawn". (Kolb and Yeganeh 2011: 3). Then, to conclude the cycle, after actively testing the implications, they can guide to the creation of further experiences.

Having briefly defined two of the related terms, cooperative learning can now be taken into spotlight by presenting some of its most important characteristics (Zhang 2010: 81). In cooperative learning learners are seen as autonomous and active participants and autonomous learners. On the contrary, the teacher's role is to facilitate and organize learning instead of being the centre of attention. Logically, then, activities are based on group work and during them learners should communicate, negotiate and share information. The main focus is on problem solving that can "lead to deep learning, critical thinking, and genuine paradigm shifts in students' thinking" (Millis 2010: 5). In group work it is essential that the group has a common goal and each member of the group

contributes to the task. Otherwise it is not cooperative group work but rather "individualistic learning with talking" (Johnson and Johnson 2001).

All three methods differ from the traditional methods of teaching in that learners are given active roles whereas teachers step back. In addition, for example, communication and negotiation are emphasized in all. Even though there are similarities, experiential learning can be separated from the two other methods quite clearly due to its well-organized structure. However, the differences between collaborative and cooperative learning can be more unclear. To emphasize, cooperative learning is a more structured method in which learning occurs through processes that are strictly controlled by the teacher (Panitz 2001: Collaborative versus cooperative learning). As that already implies, in cooperative learning the teacher has more control over the task and the learners than in collaborative learning. Although it can be said that making such distinctions between the terms collaborative and cooperative learning is splitting hairs, it is a fact that cooperative learning is more structured than other collaborative methods. Next, cooperative learning is taken into a closer examination.

As mentioned, cooperative learning is a structured method and therefore it takes plenty of planning beforehand from the teacher. For example, for successful cooperative learning, the grouping has to be given plenty of thought when planning the lessons (Saloviita 2006). The heterogeneity of groups is said to be one of the most important factors in cooperative learning because they, for example, contribute to learning social skills. Each group should include learners of both sexes and of different proficiency levels. The class cliques should not be strengthened by the group division and everyone should be included. Therefore, when it comes to group composition, the teacher should be responsible for forming the groups instead of learners themselves. Another issue to which attention should be paid is the group size (Saloviita 2006). The smaller the group, the more active the learners. Working in small groups also decreases the possibility of free loading. Therefore, the most recommended

group size is two to four people. However, the level and age of learners should be taken into consideration while forming the groups. Bigger groups can be used with older and more experienced learners and with adults groups of even seven members can work well but big groups may offer too many distractions for younger learners. Young learners may therefore not be able to concentrate in big group but, in contrast, older learners can benefit from the various views, opinions and resources on offer.

Furthermore, using different types of groups can be beneficial for learners. According to one categorization, there are three types of groups which should all be used intertwined (Saloviita 2006). Informal groups are formed for a specific task and learners work in these groups a maximum of one lesson. Then again formal groups are groups in which learners should work for at least over a month so that they learn to work effectively together. Finally, base groups work together at least for the whole academic year. The idea is that base groups offer stability, support and help for its members. In conclusion, in cooperative learning it is simply not enough that learners are thrown into randomly mixed groups. On the contrary, the grouping is something that should be carefully considered before the actual lessons.

Different models of cooperative learning have been designed over the years. Hence, in addition to grouping, the teacher needs to decide which models he or she wants to apply in teaching. All of the models offer an own kind of approach to teaching and therefore the activity types in those models vary, too. Some examples of the different models are given later in the chapter but now the central elements of cooperative learning, known as PIGS F, are introduced.

The five key elements of cooperative learning are known as PIGS F. These elements are positive interdependence, individual accountability, group processing, small-group and interpersonal skills and face-to-face interaction (Jolliffe 2007; Putnam 2009; Kern et al. 2007). According to Putnam (2009: 82) positive interdependence is the "essence of cooperative learning". It means that

group members are dependent on each other, which makes cooperation necessary and therefore each group member has to contribute to the task in order for the group to be able to finish it (Kern et al. 2007). That changes the "me" mentality into the "we" mentality in learning (Putnam 2009: 82). There are many ways in which positive interdependence can be enhanced in classrooms. For example, strategies for attaining positive interdependence have been listed in Saloviita (2006) as well as in Putnam (2009). Having a mutual goal for the group creates goal interdependence, dividing the task into pieces again creates task interdependence and giving students different roles, such as recorder or reader, creates role interdependence. Furthermore, having the group work for a reward creates reward interdependence and sharing or dividing materials creates resource interdependence. Finally, having the group come up with for example a name, motto or symbol for their group creates identity interdependence.

Individual accountability, on the other hand, means that each member's contribution is essential for the task (Putnam 2009). When every learner is responsible, freeloading is impossible and supposedly the motivation level within groups will increase because not doing one's work affects negatively the task outcome (Saloviita 2006). To enhance individual accountability and to ensure that every member of the group contributes, it is essential to evaluate and assess each member individually for example in weekly quizzes or tests (Putnam 2009). It has also been suggested that the teacher should use three types of assessment: assess learners, assess the whole group's work and having peers assess each other (Gillies 2007). Furthermore, "randomly selecting students to report the group's answer or accomplishments or explain the material encourages accountability" and both self-monitoring and reflection force learners into individual accountability (Putnam 2009: 83).

In addition, group processing "is used to clarify and improve the effectiveness of the members in contributing to the collaborative efforts of the group" (Kern et al. 2007: 3). In other words, group members should reflect together on the

functioning of their group. Six steps of group processing are identified (Putnam 2009: 84):

1) students assess their social and academic skills
2) students focus on the goals of the lesson
3) other groups' sharing provides another source of self-assessment and ideas
4) students work on presentation and listening skills
5) students reflect on their progress
6) the teacher evaluates how well the lesson accomplished the goals.

What is important in group processing is that groups make plans for improving group functioning and "to guide future learning" (Putnam 2009: 84).

Furthermore, social and interpersonal skills (also known as cooperative skills) include, for example, asking for clarification, paraphrasing, acknowledging contributions and phrasing others (Kern et al. 2007: 3). On the one hand, one of the aims of cooperative learning is to develop these skills. On the other hand, it has been claimed that learners already need to have social and interpersonal skills in order to cooperative learning to be successful (Putnam 2009). It is the teacher's duty to introduce and define the skills to learners, demonstrate them and explain their importance and, additionally, create opportunities where learners can practice the skills. Furthermore, the teacher should give learners feedback on their social skills (Putnam 2009).

The last element is face-to-face interaction, which "promotes positive academic and social outcomes in cooperative learning situations" (Putnam 2009: 83). However, Johnson and Johnson point out that in the modern world interaction does not have to be face-to-face anymore as technology, e.g. computers, can also be used (Kern et al. 2007). In fact, the most important thing is that each participant's opinions and views are heard and valued and that each participant contributes to the task and whether the interaction is face-to-face or not, is secondary (Kern et al. 2007). In classrooms, interaction can be promoted by

promoting discussion. For example, giving leaners time to discuss easy topics, such as their own interests, breaks the ice between group members (Gillies 2007). It is further suggested that after the tasks, groups could be broken up so that each member would share the group's findings and conclusions with members from other groups.

In conclusion, it is most of all due to these five elements that cooperative learning is a more structured and systematic method than other approaches emphasizing cooperation and group work. They should be carefully considered when planning cooperative learning classes and, also, in the development of the present material they have been born in mind. Now that the idea behind the method has been presented, some of the different models of cooperative learning are introduced.

5.2 Different models of cooperative learning

Cooperative learning has inspired many professionals to develop their own versions of the method. There is the STAD-method by Slavin, in which students are in teams of usually four members and work together to ensure that every team member has understood what the teacher has taught after which each member is tested individually and the team score is the average of all scores (Jolliffe 2007). Also, the idea of group investigation, which is a problem solving approach consisting of four elements: investigation, interaction, interpretation and intrinsic motivation, has been invented by Yael and Sharan (Jolliffe 2007). Group investigation "encourages higher-order thinking skills by comparing, contrasting and integrating a range of ideas, concepts and findings (Jolliffe 2007: 48).

The structural approach by Kagan, the jigsaw techniques by Aronson and the complex teaching by Cohen are reviewed in Saloviita (2006). Kagan became a developer of the cooperative method through his research of children's social motives and interaction. Kagan noticed that cooperation between children was mostly affected by the way the terms for cooperation had been set. He believes

that people can be either extremely competitive or cooperative depending on the situation they are in and so he designed different structures which do not have any content in themselves and can therefore easily be used in whichever lesson. Each lesson consists of one or more activities and each activity has two parts: the content (e.g. biology homework) and the form (the structure used). Kagan further categorises the structures based on their purposes. He suggests that the teacher uses certain structures so long that learners have truly learned them before moving on. For example, there are structures of group formation, structures to help absorb knowledge, structures that develop thinking and structures of interpersonal skills. Structures of group formation help to build team spirit and include structures such as learning names with adjectives (e.g. I'm helpful Hannah, he's tired Tom). Moreover, structures to help absorb knowledge include e.g. question cards and structures that develop thinking e.g. discussions and categorization structures. Finally, the structures of interpersonal skills help learners to develop, for example, decision making skills (Saloviita 2006).

Saloviita (2006) introduces Aronson's jigsaw techniques from 1971 that are based on the idea of giving learners different pieces of information so that each group member has to contribute to and participate in the task. Examples of how this can be done are also given. For example, the material can be divided into two so that half of the class gets part A and the other half part B. Another way to do it is so that learners are in groups of 5-6 people and each member gets one part of the learning material. Then informal groups in which each member has the same piece of information are formed and in these groups learners study the material. After that learners return to their formal groups and teach the material to others, after which there is a test.

Finally, Saloviita (2006) says that Cohen, again, was interested in the development of higher-order thinking and language skills. In her approach of complex learning, learners are in groups of 4-5 people. The teacher gives each group a task and cards in which they get further clues what to do, e.g.

questions, tips on resources and directions. For example three lessons can be used to complete one task, so that the first lesson is spent on getting familiar with the topic, the second on group work and the third on looking at outcomes. The goals of this approach include teaching new concepts, efficient problem-solving, practicing demanding thinking skills and language learning. In the next section, the reasons for choosing cooperative learning are presented.

5.3 Cooperative learning – why choose it?

Cooperative learning started to develop in the 1960s (Saloviita 2006). Morton Deutsch developed the theory of groups' goal-dependence (positive, negative or non-dependent) and David and Roger Johnson developed the theory of group interdependence into the method of cooperative learning (Johnson and Johnson 1994). Later David Johnson started to teach the principles of cooperative learning to future teachers in Minnesota and the following decades brought several different cooperative approaches. In Finland, Viljo Kohonen was the first to translate a book on cooperative learning into Finnish and soon cooperative learning spread to teacher education. However, many teachers still have a very narrow idea of cooperative learning and the term is often used too easily. According to Jolliffe (2007), pedagogy has not yet altered despite the positive research findings because, for example, there is still a culture of competition and individualism in schools.

Jolliffe (2007) says that teaching has been compared to practicing medicine. If a doctor was asleep for a hundred years and came back to practice medicine after that, everything would be different. However, if a teacher was asleep for the same period of time and came back, practically nothing would have changed. The comparison is very clever and unfortunately also very true. Even though technology develops, new books are published and new approaches created, most often the teaching itself is very similar if not exactly the same as what it was decades or even centuries ago. However, as we have plenty of research

evidence (introduced in the following paragraphs), we should now start replacing the traditional way of teaching with more efficient methods.

First, cooperative learning influences learning outcomes. It has been found that cooperative learning is often more efficient than traditional methods (Slavin 1995, Johnson and Johson 2000, as cited in Saloviita 2006). In addition, it has also been indicated that cooperative learning has positive effects on learning (Terwel 2003, as quoted in Gillies 2007). Jolliffe (2007: 46) also explains that during the past 100 years, nearly 400 studies have indicated that "working together to achieve a common goal produces higher achievement and greater productivity than working alone". Furthermore, she states that improvements that cooperative learning has had on learning include "greater productivity, higher process gain, greater transfer of learning from one situation to another, more time on task and greater problem-solving" (Jolliffe 2007: 6).

Next, cooperative learning also affects social relations and various psychological factors. For example, cooperative learning has major influences on learners' relationships with each other, increases learners' self-esteem and also has a positive effect on the general school satisfaction and learner motivation (Saloviita 2006). In addition, it has been indicated that cooperative learning has positive effects on motivation (Terwel 2003, as cited in Gillies 2007) and that cooperative learning positively affects cognitive involvement, motivation and engagement (Peterson and Miller 2004, as cited in Gillies 2007). Also, since the 1940s, nearly 200 studies have indicated that cooperative learning develops interpersonal skills (Jolliffe 2007). To continue, improvements in interpersonal relationships have included "promoting the development of caring and committed relationships, establishing and maintaining friendships between peers, a greater sense of belonging and mutual support and improved morale" and improvements in psychological health and social competence have included "higher self-esteem, improved self-worth, increased self-confidence, greater independence, supporting sharing of problems and increased resilience and ability to cope with adversity and stress" (Jolliffe 2007: 6).

Finally, according to Saloviita (2006), the reason for using the traditional teaching procedure of teacher asking and learners answering and doing individual work is that the method corresponds to the needs of the working life in which the workers have to work with a boring task under the supervision of the employer. However, as Saloviita explains, during the past decades the working life has changed and by 2006, approximately 70% of the jobs in Finland were service occupations which naturally have different requirements than working in factories, for example. People with service occupations need social and interpersonal skills and that is yet another reason for using cooperative learning approach. As seen earlier in this chapter, cooperative learning is a systematic method which needs plenty of planning. Therefore, the next section focuses on giving advice on how to use the method.

5.4 How to use cooperative learning

Deciding to use cooperative learning means plenty of work for the teacher. As we have seen in the previous sections, it is not as easy as one might think – simply putting learners in groups and working together is not enough. Using cooperative learning requires careful planning and is, at least at first, very time consuming. In this section tips and some pieces of advice from professionals are compiled together.

As we have noticed, forming the groups is the first big question when planning cooperative classes (Saloviita 2006). The age and level of learners affect the group size, which is why the teacher should carefully consider whether learners are already able to work in bigger groups or should the groups perhaps consist of fewer members. In addition, the groups should also be heterogeneous and consist of both boys and girls and both weaker and better learners and, therefore, the teacher should put together learners from both sexes and from both ends of the grade scale. Final issue brought out is the seating. The groups should be situated so that each member can see the teacher - pairs can sit

opposite to each other and groups of four can sit, for example, so that two sit opposite to each other and two on the sides.

Even though cooperative lessons cannot be quiet and, in fact, learners are encouraged to talk and move around, one can imagine how loud and chaotic a cooperative lesson could get without rules. Therefore, the teacher and the class should agree on simple rules that bring order to the lesson (Saloviita 2006). For example, agreeing to talk quietly and listening to others are useful rules. Furthermore, the group could come up with a silence code together with the teacher which would act as a cue for learners that they need to quiet down. However, it is important that learners take part in creating the rules because then they are more likely to follow them. Moreover, the class should get used to certain routines, especially when it comes to starting and ending a lesson. For example, learners should learn to go to their seats immediately and fully equipped.

A cooperative learning environment can be created in many ways (Gillies 2007). First of all, it is suggested that the class should be organized so that learners are able to move around without problems. Different "stations" should be placed so that it is easy for learners, for example, to get access to computers. Next, creating common rules not only helps to keep order put also affects the learning environment positively (Gillies 2007). Moreover, it is important for the teacher to show interest in learners and talk with them about matters concerning life outside school as it makes it easier for learners to build connections and trust the teacher (Gillies 2007). Furthermore, because it is important for successful cooperation that learners know each other, it is recommended that the teacher should come up with activities in which learners can introduce themselves and get to know each other. For example, they could discuss their personal interests together. Suggestions have also been made by Jolliffe (2007) on how the teacher can develop talk in the cooperative class. In her opinion the teacher should be receptive to learners' ideas, develop equality between the teacher and learners

in the class, be open and honest as well as friendly and warm, have respect for the learners' feelings and have a sense of humour and a caring attitude.

There are various things a teacher should know when planning cooperative lessons (Jolliffe 2007). First of all, the teacher should activate learners' prior knowledge on topics by having learners reflect on it: what do they already know about the topic? The teacher should also offer learners the big picture and explain the specific aspect of learning and the objective of the topic and the task. Secondly, learners should be able to work both in pairs or smaller groups and with the whole class. They should also be offered the time to reflect on the task and the topic. Thirdly, Jolliffe reminds us of additional aspects to be considered, such as time consumption and organization, arrangement of the classroom, organization of the materials and listing the cooperative skills needed for the task.

The final issue is the assessment of cooperative learning. There are many ways how assessment can be done. One view is that learning objectives and cooperative skills should be assessed separately (Jolliffe 2007). Different possibilities on how to assess cooperative learning exist. To begin with, peer evaluation can be used. Studies have shown that peer evaluation increases productivity and improves learning (Jolliffe 2007). It is important, however, to give learners clear criteria on which they should evaluate themselves and others. An additional possibility is the use of self-evaluation, for example, a learning log can be efficient (Jolliffe 2007). Moreover, giving group scores is one option. In this case, each group member is given the same score on the basis of the group's work, which can increase interdependence within the group. Also, grades or scores based on both the individual performance and the group performance can be given. In this case, each member is tested individually and additional bonus points can be added to the score based on the group's activity and performance (Jolliffe 2007).

This section has presented general issues concerning cooperative learning. The term has been defined, history of the method discussed, research results presented, different approaches listed and several tips and pieces of advice for the use of this specific method provided. Even though this has been just a short look on the approach and the purpose has been to offer a general picture instead of focusing on details, it hopefully became evident why the method was considered important and useful enough to be chosen as a cornerstone for the present material package. In the next chapter, points are made about combining CLIL and cooperative learning in teaching.

6 INTEGRATING CLIL AND COOPERATIVE LEARNING

In this chapter it is indicated and explained why CLIL and cooperative learning go well together. First of all, the reasons for combining the approaches are indicated and similarities in the approaches are listed. All in all, it is shown how the two approaches can be integrated successfully. In addition, the revised Bloom's Taxonomy is presented as its use is recommended by experts in both fields.

6.1 Benefits and similarities

There are many benefits in integrating CLIL and cooperative learning (Casal 2008). To illustrate, as mentioned previously, in CLIL the main idea is that content and language are taught intertwined. However, it is sometimes claimed that learners in CLIL classes do not get enough opportunities for oral communication (Casal 2008: 2). Therefore, combining cooperative learning with the CLIL approach is ideal because it ensures the communicativeness of lessons. In addition, when working in groups, learners get more opportunities to use the target language and the "quality of conversations" improve in group discussions (Casal 2008: 3). Moreover, cooperative learning helps to create a positive atmosphere and increases motivation.

Considering the similarities in principles and effects of the two approaches, it can be seen that there are many. To begin with, both approaches intend to meet real-life needs and in that way see school as a place to practice skills needed later in life in the society and not as an institution separate from the reality. Similarly, both acknowledge the direction of development and therefore put a great emphasis on group work and social skills and see communication and interaction as something very important. In addition, in both approaches emphasis is put on developing cognitive thinking. It is to say that learners are required to be active and think on their own as well as reflect on their learning

instead of passively absorbing information from the teacher's speech. What is more, they are both proven to have positive effects on several aspects, such as motivation, self-confidence and learning outcomes are expected to improve when using either approach. Equally, language has a major role in both approaches. To illustrate, cooperative learning is based on Vygotsky's belief that learning in general occurs in contact with other individuals whereas CLIL is based on the belief that learning through content and in communication with others is a natural way of learning a language. To conclude, based on the research presented above, both approaches demand plenty of work and require getting used to but in the end they are both enjoyed by learners and teachers.

6.2 The Revised Bloom's Taxonomy

In both approaches the emphasis is on enhancing higher-order thinking and cognitive thinking skills, and so the experts of both approaches recommend the use of Bloom's Taxonomy. The Bloom's Taxonomy is a "multi-tiered model of classifying thinking according to six cognitive levels of complexity" (Forehand 2010: 2). In the 1990s the taxonomy was revised to suit the purposes of today's teachers and learners and therefore, for example, some changes in terminology were made (Forehand 2010). The revised Bloom's taxonomy (RBT) includes the following levels (from the lowest to the highest): remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating. The levels are presented in Figure 1.

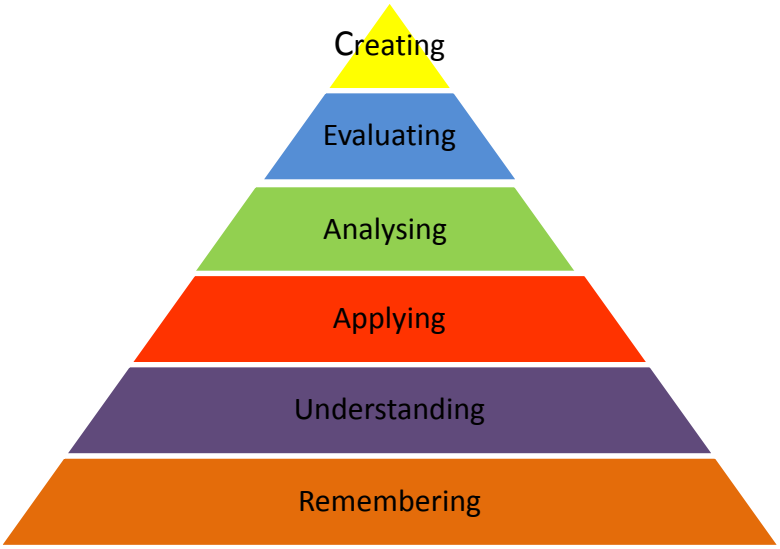

Figure 1. The levels of the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Forehand 2010).

1. Level: Remembering

   The first level of the taxonomy deals with learners remembering things on a certain topic. It is logical as before one is able to understand something, one has to remember it, and therefore remembering is essential for learning (Churches 2013: Bloom's - remembering). The main skills demonstrated on this level are "retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory" (Forehand 2010: 3). The learners should also be able to define, list, and recite, as well as describe, identify, name, locate and find (Churches 2008, 2013). For example, learners could bullet point or highlight things, use the social network and search or google information (Churches 2013: Bloom's - remembering). Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction (2009) suggests that the tasks on this level would include, for example, simple questions such as *who? where? what?* or *why?* or questions like *"what does it mean?", "which is true or false?"* or *"can you name…?"*

2. Level: Understanding

   "Understanding builds relationships and links knowledge" (Churches 2013: Bloom's - understanding). The purpose is that on this level learners understand and can explain, summarize, paraphrase and rephrase things (Churches 2013: Bloom's - understanding) and that they are able to interpret,

exemplify, classifify, infer, compare and explain things and build meaning through those acts (Forehand 2010). Learners could for example write a blog or a diary, categorise or tag and comment or annotate things (Churches 2013: Bloom's – understanding)). Additionally, the example questions listed in the Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction (2009) include questions like *"what does this mean?"*, *"can you clarify…?"*, *"select the best definition"*, *"state in your own words"*, *"explain…"* or *"give an example"*.

3. Level: Applying

   This level is defined as "carrying out or using a procedure through executing, or implementing" (Forehand 2010: 3). Learners are required to apply their knowledge on the topic. Skills demonstrated on this level are carrying out, using, executing, implementing, showing and exhibiting (Churches 2013: Bloom's - applying). Again, Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction (2009) lists questions and exercises in which applying knowledge is needed. For example, *"judge the effects of…"*, *"what would happen…"*, *"identify the results of…"*, *"draw a story map"* or *"do you know of another instance where…?"*

4. Level: Analysing

   On this level the idea is that learners break "material or concepts into parts, determining how the parts relate or interrelate to another or to an overall structure or purpose" (Churches 2013: Bloom's – analyzing). It is added that learners should be able to differentiate, organize and attribute as well as distinguish between components. Terms used on this level include comparing, organizing, deconstructing, attributing, outlining, finding, structuring and integrating (Churches 2013: Bloom's - analyzing). Furthermore, Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction (2009) suggests questions and exercises such as *"what conclusions…"*, *"can you distinguish between..?"*, *"determine…"* and *"what's the relationship between..?"* to be used on this level.

5. Level: Evaluating

   Evaluating is "making judgements based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing" and the key terms related to evaluating are checking, hypothesizing, critiquing, experimenting, judging, testing, detecting and monitoring (Churches 2013: Bloom's - evaluating). It is further suggested that learners could, for example, take advantage of the use of blogs or videoblogs (vlogs) and post comments in order to develop constructive criticism and reflective practice. Learners can be asked questions such as *"what do you think about..?", "what are the pros and cons of..?", "do you believe..?"* or *"do you think…is a good or a bad thing?"* (Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction 2009).

6. Level: Creating

   On this level, learners need to combine all the skills from the previous levels: "in the creative process the student/s, remembers, understands & applies knowledge, analyses and evaluates outcomes, results, successes and failures as well as processes to produce a final product" (Churches 2013: Bloom's - creating). Additionally, key terms for this level include designing, constructing, planning, producing, inventing, devising and making (Churches 2013: Bloom's - creating). Furthermore, suggestions of how to digitally work on this level are given. For example, learners could use filming, animating, podcasting or videocasting on this level, they could direct and produce something or create blogs. Finally, Toolbox for Planning Rigorous Instruction (2009) suggests questions such as *"can you design…?", "how would you test...?", "can you see a solution to..?", "can you develop/create..?"* or *"propose an alternative"*.

These six levels can and should be taken advantage of when planning and preparing both CLIL and cooperative learning lessons. The Bloom's Taxonomy is of great help to the teacher. For example, it makes it possible for teachers to evaluate their learners' thinking and, in addition, it helps plan and structure lessons and courses by representing a clear purpose, goal and objective

(Forehand 2010). Using the taxonomy enables teachers to design projects, for example, in which learners need "to operate at more complex levels of thinking" (Forehand 2010: 5). It is further explained that, as certain verbs are linked with certain levels of the taxonomy, it is easier for teachers to design and plan lessons and activities because they can check the taxonomy for help when they desire to develop activities on a specific level. In addition, an example of how to use the taxonomy on the story of Goldilocks and the three bears is provided:

> **Remembering:** Describe where Goldilocks lived.
>
> **Understand:** Summarize what the Goldilocks story was about.
>
> **Apply:** Construct a theory as to why Goldilocks went into the house.
>
> **Analyze:** Differentiate between how Goldilocks reacted and how you would react in each story event.
>
> **Evaluate**: Assess whether or not you think this really happened to Goldilocks.
>
> **Create:** Compose a song, skit, poem, or rap to convey the Goldilocks story to a new form.

As indicated in this section, the revised Bloom's Taxonomy is a useful tool when creating activities that enhance critical and cognitive thinking. It has also been taken into account when designing materials for the present course. Now that the need for the material package has been indicated, all the methods included have been presented and it has been shown how those methods can be integrated into teaching, the emphasis will next be given to the material package itself.

7 FRAMEWORK FOR THE MATERIAL PACKAGE

In this chapter the decisions made concerning the material package are introduced and justified. In short, first the aims of the course are presented after which also the target group, the nature of the course and assessment are explained. Then the focus shifts on the pedagogical practices and how both language and content are taught in the course and how the activities have been designed. The chapter ends with an evaluation of the material package.

7.1 Aims

The main idea of the material package is to bring variety into courses on offer in upper secondary schools and hopefully it comes to serve many purposes and people. The aims of the material package, which have become evident from the previous chapters, are now listed. First of all, the package aims at providing upper secondary school students with the possibility of developing their knowledge of English outside traditional language classes and, likewise, at providing them with the possibility of learning psychology in an additional language. As teachers are often so busy they do not have enough time to create special courses even if they wanted to, so it is the purpose of this package to offer them a ready-made set of texts and activities and thus enable them to offer an interesting course combining two different subjects.

Secondly, the course designed aims at helping the students wishing to continue studying psychology at universities. The terminology in psychology is wide and complex even in one's native language and in universities many course books and other materials in psychology are in English. This can prove to be difficult especially in the beginning of studies, when the terminology in English is not familiar to the students. Therefore it can be claimed that studying a psychology course in English already in upper secondary school will probably help students in their further studies. Thirdly, the package is aimed at developing students' cognitive thinking and interpersonal skills, which is

supported by the chosen methods (CLIL and cooperative learning), both of which emphasize the importance of higher-order thinking and cooperation.

7.2 Target group

The chosen target group is upper secondary school students so approximately 15-19-year-olds. Psychology is not taught in secondary schools and then again English is used in almost all courses in universities and therefore aiming the package for upper secondary school students seemed logical.

As the course combines two popular subjects, English and psychology, it is probable that it will be chosen by students interested in English as well as by students interested in psychology. In other words, it is possible that the class is a mixture of students who are either proficient in English or in Psychology but not necessarily in both. This has been taken into account in designing the materials.

7.3 The course

It was decided that the course will be on social psychology for various reasons. First of all, social psychology is something that concerns everyone as it deals with interaction, social conducts, rules of behaviour and many more. Therefore, it can be claimed that it will both interest many students as well as benefit everyone. Secondly, even though social psychology is a wide field of study and interest among psychologists, in upper secondary school it is only briefly discussed. Thirdly, understanding the influence of, for example, social pressure, group norms and self-perception on behaviour is very important and essential in order to understand the human mind as a whole.

The course was designed to be as modern as possible. All the material is electrical and therefore the use of paper is basically non-existent, which makes the course both trendy and eco-friendly. Most schools take advantage of

modern technology, for example iPads, and the young of today are very much a part of the social media. The course makes it possible to utilize iPads as much as possible and the internet and information searching is constantly present in the activities. By searching information independently from the internet students learn to evaluate the reliability of their sources and to analyse the media critically, which is also a principal mentioned in the National Core Curriculum (National core curriculum for upper secondary schools 2003: 29).

7.4 Assessment

It is suggested that the course designed is not assessed by an exam but rather by a portfolio compiled of course assignments and other work done by students. This form of assessment is supported by both CLIL and cooperative learning experts (see e.g. Coyle et al. 2010, Mehisto et al. 2008 and Gillies 2007). This is due to the fact that compiling a portfolio gives more depth and freedom to learning and makes assessment easier. For example, portfolios enable the teachers to assess the learning of both content and language and, in addition, the "different learning styles and strategies" of learners can be considered (Mehisto et al. 2008: 124). Furthermore, compiling a portfolio encourages learners to discuss and reflect on their "learning process and results".

Teachers and learners can decide together what to include to each portfolio and every student can make a portfolio that reflects their personality and learning style. The portfolios are compiled of various pieces of work (Mehisto et al. 2008: 125). For example, different types of student work, such as pictures, essays and reports made specifically for the portfolio. In addition, work done during the course can be scanned and added to the portfolio. Furthermore, the pieces of work do not all have to be in paper but electronic files and DVDs or CDs can be included. The contents of a portfolio should also include a letter of introduction, a table of contents, reflections on each piece of work and possibly even peer evaluation sheets.

As in all teaching, also in the present course the teacher has the responsibility of ensuring fair and versatile assessment. It has to be born in mind that in cooperative learning learners should be assessed both for their individual efforts and outcomes and for group efforts and outcomes (e.g. Saloviita 2006). As the material package only offers materials and suggestions for holding the course, it is up to the teacher to decide on details such as how to assess learners and they may use which ever methods they feel are the most suited or fit their purposes or amount of resources the best. Nonetheless, the use of portfolios is strongly recommended.

7.5 Pedagogical practices

When integrating the learning of both content and language, the use of the 4Cs Framework is suggested (Coyle et al. 2010: 41). The framework integrates the four Cs - content, communication, cognition and culture. According to the framework, for effective CLIL "progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the content", "engagement in associated cognitive processing", "development of appropriate language knowledge and skills", "the acquisition of a deepening intercultural awareness" and interaction are required (Coyle et al. 2010: 41). When planning CLIL teaching, teachers should make sure that the CLIL classes, courses or projects are holistic entities in which all the four Cs are integrated effectively.

One issue that has to be born in mind is that in CLIL settings the use of authentic materials is important (see e.g. Coyle et al. 2010 and Mehisto et al. 2008). Therefore, the materials often consist of newspaper articles, books, brochures, web pages, blogs and so on (Mehisto et al. 2008: 33). However, it is further pointed out that the texts must be edited and adapted to fit the target group. Students' comprehension can be facilitated by removing parts of the text, providing synonyms, indicating key terms, words and ideas, taking advantage of the usage of colours when highlighting and using graphic organizers (Mehisto et al. 2008: 227). In addition, language support should be

given for example by using verb lists, mind maps or tables (Mehisto et al. 109-110).

7.5.1 Teaching of language

In the material package, the focus is clearly on the content instead of language teaching. The students are provided with a vocabulary list they should fill in themselves when they come across new or difficult vocabulary or structures. If the teacher decides, he or she can give more in depth language teaching but no exercises are included in the package. The reason for this is that since all the students do not use the same material but instead they read different texts and watch different videos, it would be too overwhelming to create language learning material for everybody. Instead, the teacher should encourage the students to ask when they meet, for example, structures or vocabulary that they have difficulties with. The teacher can then explain the usage to them. This also supports natural language learning since the teaching comes from the needs of the students.

In the current material, attention is paid to taking into account different learning styles by adding both visual and auditory support. In a course that highlights the importance of communication and developing oral skills, plenty of the language is learned naturally in communication with others. During the different activities learners learn, for example, to negotiate, discuss and share opinions. It is ensured that they come across the same language contents on several occasions and need them both in reading, writing and speaking.

In conclusion, the teaching of language in the course is not organized in the same manner as in traditional language teaching. No grammatical terms are used nor are learners forced to fill in gaps or form sentences of given vocabulary. On the contrary, the aim is that the teaching of language is as natural as possible and learners are given the opportunity to use language creatively and in communication. Also, through the use of authentic materials,

learners meet authentic language used by native speakers. All in all, the intention is that learners supportedly acquire language rather than study it. In the material package, there is a vocabulary list that should be given to each student. In the list they can collect new vocabulary or difficult structures they come across when reading the texts or watching the videos.

7.5.2 Teaching of content

In the current course, the emphasis is on teaching of content. The materials used are from authentic sources, such as books, journals, web pages and articles. The aim is to create diverse entities that give learners a holistic view on the topic. As the course is a cooperative course, learners work in pairs or groups most of the time they are in class. Individual work may be given as homework but the most is taken out of the opportunities for learners to deal with the material and contents in cooperation with others. In the designing of the material it has been taken into account that it is strongly supported that in CLIL settings learners develop their own knowledge and understanding of the contents instead of just acquiring knowledge (Coyle et al. 2010: 42).

7.5.3 Activities

The structure of the material package is simple. There are five chapters in the material package: Social Interaction, Social Groups, The Social Environment, Psychology of Advertising and Social Media. Each chapter consists of five to seven activities. Some chapters have a warm up activity that can be brainstorming, watching a movie or watching an interview on the topic. The rest of the activities are in five or six different levels, named after different stages of a romantic relationship.

The Bloom's Revised Taxonomy has vaguely been used in designing the activities (see section 4.2). The problem with following the taxonomy in a topic

such as social psychology is that it is so wide and not all aspects of, for example, social groups can be dealt with at the same time. Therefore, one cannot necessarily directly see a link between the activities in the material package and the taxonomy. However, each chapter should include activities from all stages of the taxonomy but not necessarily in the same order. Nevertheless, the main aim of the activities is to enhance higher-order thinking, which is central in the taxonomy as well. Next, the purpose of each level is explained.

Level 1: Introductions

As the name implies, the level 1 activities are introductory activities. The aim of the activities is to introduce the topic and get the students to think about it. Both the warm up tasks and level 1 activities could be said to be linked to level 1 of the Bloom's Revised taxonomy and therefore there is not a warm up task in each chapter. In chapters in which there is both a warm up and a level 1 activity, it is possible for the teacher to decide whether he or she thinks both activities are necessary.

Level 2: Getting to know each other

In the level 2 activities a closer look is taken into the topic. The students are required to read or search information on a more specific area and usually teach it to others. These activities should follow the instructions of level 2 in the taxonomy.

Level 3: Developing a relationship

The level 3 activities often include some analyzing and evaluating pieces of information, pictures or behaviour and therefore can be said to be linked to levels 4 and 5 in the taxonomy.

Level 4: Falling in love

Level 4 activities often also include some analyzing and evaluating but also applying what they have learned.

Level 5: Getting married

The level 5 activities either focus on critical evaluation or introduce another area of the topic.

Level 6: Honeymoon

In most cases the level 6 activities involve creating something, making a presentation of some sort or writing an analysis. Since there is probably not enough time to do all the level 6 activities during the course, the teacher can consider leaving some for the revision classes in the end of the course or making them projects to be completed out of class.

Some of the activities were created during teacher training for a Finnish psychology class in which the topic was social psychology. The students seemed to enjoy working in groups and sharing their thoughts and evaluating behaviour and appearance. It could be claimed that other psychology students in upper secondary schools would therefore enjoy the activities as well also in English.

7.6 Evaluation of the material package

Social psychology is a very wide subject. On the one hand, it was easy to come up with material and topics but on the other some important aspects were probably left out. As the aim was to fit as much material as possible into the course, there is probably not enough time in one course to go through all activities. However, it can be claimed that it is better to have too much than too little as at least now the teacher does not have to come up with extra activities to kill the time. On the contrary, he or she can decide not to have all the activities or to leave out chapters that he or she does not think are that important.

What it comes to the activities, there could have been more variety. It would have been nice to use more different types of cooperative structures but, due to the time restrictions, it was considered too time- and energy-consuming to use complex structures and, to be frank, too difficult to design activities that could be used in such structures. Still, it is probably better for the students that only simple cooperative structures that are similar to each other are used. Cooperative teaching is not reality in most schools and most students are not used to them so having too complex structures might take time and energy from learning the content.

All the material is, of course, in English as the course is a CLIL course. However, going through the actual content alone is very time-consuming and therefore not a lot of time is used for learning the language. The students read different texts, go through different websites and watch different movies, so again it would require too much to design language-related activities for everyone. Instead, it was decided that it is better to just add a vocabulary list that each student can fill according to their own needs.

A lot of thought was put into the outlook of the material and finding material that would also interest the students in addition to being informative. Since all the material is in electric form, it is easy for the teacher to either print out material for the students or have the students download material to their iPads or laptops. All in all there is a lot of room for improvement in the material package. However, taking into consideration that it was created by a non-graduated teacher without teaching experience and a minor psychology student, it is a good basis for a real course.

8 CONCLUSION

Teaching in general seems to be a topic of never ending debate. Old traditions and styles are said to be old-fashioned and ineffective. This is especially true of language teaching – quite naturally, since language changes as people do. During the past 20 years an approach called CLIL has got its foot in the door. In this approach there is not – or at least does not have to be - any actual grammar teaching, filling in the blanks or dictations. Instead, language is learned via another subject – geography, science or even psychology. The materials are authentic and language is used naturally. Central to this approach, in addition to the aforementioned, is co-operation: using the language with others instead of individually doing exercises from a boring book. However, the CLIL approach is not used to the extent that one might hope since it requires a lot from teachers and schools.

Another, though older, method to teaching is cooperative learning. It can be used with whatever subject and with whatever age group. As the name implies, co-operation is emphasized and viewed as an effective way of learning things. People gain a lot from working with others. They need to discuss, reflect and negotiate and that makes learning more effective. However, cooperative learning is not just about group discussions but it is a structured approach in which organized structures are used. Students share information and learn from others and they work together to reach a mutual goal.

Moving from approaches to teaching to a specific subject, psychology has become very popular. The courses in Finnish upper secondary schools vary from the basics of neuropsychology to the basics of personal psychology and students are eager to understand the human behaviour. However, in the compulsory courses social psychology is only briefly dealt with even though it would be important and beneficial for everyone to take time to think of our role

as parts of the society and social groups since it is something that truly concerns everyone.

Seeing a gap in both language teaching as well as psychology teaching in Finland, it was decided to combine the two and design a course that would not only teach language or psychology but both. As CLIL emphasizes co-operation it was a natural choice to also add cooperative learning into the mix so that they can complement each other. Authentic materials were searched for and cooperative structures used in order to teach the students as much about social psychology as possible in such a short period of time.

The material aims to give the student an active role and leave the teacher as a guide. All material is electric as the use of electric devices and the internet has become more and more popular in schools. The Bloom's Revised Taxonomy was used as guidance in developing the activities to ensure that higher-order thinking was emphasized in the course.

Some of the activities were tested in reality but in Finnish. The students in that class seemed to enjoy them (for example thinking of typical characteristics for certain characters or roles) and it can be claimed that others of that age would too. It would be important, however, to try the English activities with a real class as well. It is impossible to say how the package works as a whole and whether the timeframe is realistic but as the topic is so wide and popular it would be relatively easy to alter the course for real-life needs.

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THE MATERIAL PACKAGE

EXPERIENCING LIFE TOGETHER:

A social psychology course

Dear teacher,

you have in your hands a social psychology course for upper secondary schools. In this course your students are in an active role and you are the guide to help them get where they need to go.

The course has been designed as a cooperative CLIL course, which means that throughout the course the students need to work together and share information. The material in the package has been designed around the content but in addition language should be taught as well. A vocabulary list has been added to the package and it is recommended that it is printed and handed out to the students so that they can fill it in whenever they come across new vocabulary. However, the rest of the language teaching is up to you. The reason for that is that in CLIL courses the teaching of language should be natural and rise from your students' actual needs. Therefore the students are encouraged to ask when they meet difficult or unfamiliar structures in the text. No actual grammar teaching is needed and you do not need to create any material for this purpose.

One of the aims of the course is to enhance the students' higher-order thinking as well as their information retrieval skills. You should encourage them to take initiative and ask questions. To make the material interesting and to maximize the use of modern devices, the students' material is only in digital form. A CD containing the teacher's material with hyperlinks to the students' material can be found from the back.

I hope you have an interactive and fun course,
Reea Onjukka