

Teaching history through English: the Norman Conquest

Marcela Fernández Rivero and Carmen García de la Morena

IES Profesor Máximo Trueba, Boadilla del Monte, Madrid

Elena del Pozo

IES Manuel de Falla, Coslada, Madrid

1 Introduction

1.1 The bilingual project

In 1996, the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia* (MEC) and the British Council signed an agreement to begin the MEC/British Council Bilingual Project in forty-four state primary schools starting at infant level: that is, students from three years old. The students have an integrated curriculum in science, drama, geography, history and art, and receive two extra literacy lessons per week.

After finishing primary education, the students attend secondary schools, called an *Instituto de Enseñanza Secundaria* (IES) where they are able to continue with the Bilingual Project. They are now enrolled in the four-year project from year one to year four of compulsory secondary education *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria* (ESO). They study various subjects through English (geography and history, science, arts, music, physical education and technology). In the case of geography and history, science and English, they follow an integrated curriculum: topics are taken both from the Spanish and British curricula. On average, there are twenty-five students involved at each level.

Students receive additional input in the foreign language and benefit from the international dimension of the MEC/British Council Bilingual Project through:

- On-going exchange programmes with state schools in Great Britain
- Participation as delegates in the Model UN Global Classrooms Madrid and New York Conferences
- Co-operation on research programmes carried out by the *Universidad Autónoma de Madrid* (UAM)
- Comenius Programmes on CLIL projects in Europe
- The International General Certificate in Secondary Education (IGCSE) exams in English, geography and history, taken by year four students

Initially parents voiced concerns regarding their children's participation in the project in relation to their academic results in compulsory secondary education. However, given the good results both in CLIL and regular subjects, and positive attitudes resulting from the project so far, more families are now interested in having their children enrolled in the project. By law, schools must admit in the first instance, students who have been in the MEC/British Council Bilingual Project in primary schools. However, should there be any vacancies, newcomers might join provided that they show a reasonable competence. Whilst it is true that the more students who are able to benefit from such a programme the better, it is also clear that the admission rules should avoid a policy which could lead to lower standards overall.

1.2 The schools

The two participating schools in this case study are IES Profesor Máximo Trueba and IES Manuel de Falla. Both are state secondary schools located in towns close to the capital city of Madrid, Spain. The total number of students, aged twelve to eighteen, is six hundred and ninety-eight in IES Profesor Máximo Trueba and eight hundred and twenty in IES Manuel de Falla.

2 The case study

2.1 The topic: the Norman conquest

Geography and history are allocated the same teaching hours in the integrated curriculum as they are in the Spanish curriculum: three hours a week in year two of compulsory secondary education. The history course starts with the 'Break-up of Mediterranean Unity' and ends with the beginning of the 'Renaissance'. It covers the 'Middle Ages in Europe', paying special attention to Spain and Britain. The Norman invasion is studied in The 'British Isles in the Middle Ages' chapter which also looks at the relationship between church and state with Henry II, the *Magna Carta* and the situation of the Jews during the thirteenth century.

This topic is a brand new one for the Spanish history curriculum; therefore it appealed to the teachers. For a more in-depth discussion of the topic, see Pendry *et al* (1989). Furthermore, the topic was thought to be attractive for the students as they enjoy action stories, and a number of valuable resources are available: the Bayeux Tapestry and the Domesday Book, for example. The aim was for students to realise that the Norman invasion was a turning point in British history.

2.2 The lesson plan

The lesson plan shown in Table 1 was developed to teach the module on the project. The PowerPoint presentation is intended to be viewed twice: the first viewing for observation and enjoyment and the second viewing to help students fill in the worksheet (see Appendix 1). The ICT session not only allows students to do the activities, but also enriches their creativity and enhances their technical skills (see Appendix 2).

2.3 The methodological approach

Coping with the curriculum proved challenging for some teachers. They found it necessary to add more practical activities to their academic teaching style (see Appendix 3). They also found it useful to drill students, especially in the technical aspects of geography and in the continuous use of synonyms in history. A teacher-centred approach was found to be largely ineffective except for specific parts in the lessons, such as the plenary or the introduction of the topics. In general, group and pair work were favoured in the classes as more appropriate to the nature of the programme (see Appendices 4 and 5).

Table 1. Lesson plan for the Norman conquest

Students' age	14
Students' language level	B1
Subject	History
Module topic	The British Isles in the Middle Ages (7 hours)
Unit title	The Norman Conquest (3 hours)
Unit description	The unit explores the origins of Feudalism in the British Isles. It explains the origins of the Norman Conquest and the rise of a new medieval society.
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the reasons for historical events in England in 1066 • Acquire knowledge about life in Britain in the Middle Ages • Recognise the main features of Feudalism in the British Isles
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn about the historical issues relating to the Norman Conquest • Acquire an understanding of a new social and economic system • Have opportunities to develop and practise research skills
Language objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressing chronology using appropriate vocabulary and verb tenses • Describing situations and changes • Selecting and recording relevant information for activities • Developing communicative skills and understanding in a variety of ways
Contents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • England before 1066 • The Battle of Hastings • The Norman Conquest • The Domesday Book
Students' workload	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read texts, fill in worksheets, use maps and graphs to obtain information, and draw • Select and use secondary sources, including the Internet • Produce both oral and written material based on the sources consulted
Resources and materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History books and atlases, Internet, ICT room
Teacher resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computer with Internet connection, projector, screen, maps
Teacher-produced or distributed materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Handouts, photocopies, PowerPoint presentations and a final quiz on the whole unit
Student resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coursebook: Reynoldson, F. (2000). <i>KS3 History</i>. London: Letts Educational • Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries
Student-processed or produced materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Charts, posters, reports on different historical events (e.g. The Battle of Hastings) and written activities • A wall timeline on the history of the medieval British Isles • A written and illustrated chapter based on the Bayeux Tapestry ICT session • An essay based on the Domesday Book as an extensive writing activity • Dialogues in a role play session on the events of the Conquest
Learning environments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two sessions in the ICT Room, one session in the school library and one session in the classroom
Work plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Session 1: Introduction to the topic: PowerPoint presentation* ; students' worksheet (see Appendix 1) • Session 2: ICT session (see Appendix 2); homework: extensive writing activity (see Appendix 3) • Session 3: Role play (see Appendix 4); homework revision

* The entire presentation is available at <<http://www.richmondelt.com>>

Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-produced worksheets on the PowerPoint presentation on contents and vocabulary (individual) • Extensive writing (letter) based on the Domesday Book (individual)* • Short written narration based on the Bayeux Tapestry (group) • Oral production about the Battle of Hastings (group)[†] • Written test at the end of the whole topic (individual) (see Appendix 5)
Assessment criteria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuous assessment of everyday work: classwork, homework, report, project 20 % • Practical assessment: planning, observations, graphs, maps, timelines, computer activities, conclusions 20 % • Topic test 50 % • Attitude: notebook presentation, neat work, enthusiasm, group work, doing work on time 10 %
Sitography	<p><http://www.adgame-wonderland.de/type/bayeux.php> <http://www.bayeuxtapestry.org.uk></p>
Bibliography	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Byrom, J., Counsell, C. and Riley, M. (2003). <i>Medieval Minds, Britain 1066-1500</i>. Harlow: Pearson Longman • Counsell, C. (2004). <i>History and Literacy in Year 7: Building the Lesson around the Text (History in Practice)</i>. London: Hodder Murray • MEC/British Council. (2004). <i>Guidelines for the Developments of the Integrated Curriculum in Secondary Education: Geography and History</i>. • Reynoldson, F. (2000). <i>KS3 History</i>. London: Letts Educational

† Pendry *et al.* (1989) inspired the communicative role play.

* These sources were helpful in developing practical activities and presenting technical aspects of geography: Butt (2003), Martin (2004) and Owen and Ryan (2006). Haydn *et al.* (2001) was a valuable resource for the writing activity.

3 Conclusions

Practice has shown that it is necessary to obtain a balance between the objectives of the Spanish syllabus and those from the British curricula. Arguably, this becomes more and more relevant as students get closer to year four, bearing in mind that most students will continue their education – Baccalaureate – within the Spanish education system.

In addition to their already busy schedules, teachers are now faced with the added responsibilities of preparing and adapting CLIL materials, plus increased training needs. Teacher training has been absolutely essential. Teachers have attended specific courses promoted by the *Departamento del profesorado* (Department of Teacher Training) of the *Ministerio de Educacion, Ciencia y Deportes* (Ministry of Education, Science and Sport) and the British Council; TESOL, and *Centros de Apoyo al Profesorado* (CAP), (Teacher Support Centres), in Majadahonda and Coslada, Madrid.

After four years of participation in the programme, school quality standards have risen. Most of the students in the MEC/British Council Bilingual Project are achieving their academic goals in all subjects.¹

¹ The authors would like to thank all the year two students in the case study who showed so much interest in the topic and in the activities.

References

- Butt, G. (2003). *The Continuum Guide to Geography Education*. London: Continuum.
- Byrom, J., Counsell, C. and Riley, M. (2003). *Medieval Minds, Britain 1066-1500*. Harlow: Pearson Longman.
- Counsell, C. (2004). *History and Literacy in Year 7: Building the Lesson around the Text (History in Practice)*. London: Hodder Murray.
- Haydn, T., Arthur, J. and Hunt, M. (eds.) (2001) *Learning to Teach History in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience* London: Routledge.
- Karnebogen, B. and Jungbluth, G. (2003). *Historic Tale Construction Kit*. Available from <<http://adgame-wonderland.de/type/bayeux.php>> [Accessed 17/01/09].
- Martin, F. (2004). 'Creativity through Geography,' in Fisher, R. and Williams, M. (eds.) *Unlocking Creativity*. London: David Fulton Publishers, Ltd, pp. 117-132.
- Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia/British Council (2004). *Guidelines for the Development of the Integrated Curricula in Secondary Education: Geography and History*. Madrid: Internal Document.
- Owen, D. and Ryan, A. (2006). *Teaching Geography. The Essential Guide*. London: Continuum.
- Pendry, A., Husbands, C., Arthur, J. and Davison, J. (1989). *History Teachers in the Making*. London: Open University Press.
- Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. (1999). *The National Curriculum at Key Stages 1 & 2*. Available from <<http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/key-stages-1-and-2/index.aspx>> [Accessed 20/01/09].
- (2007). *The National Curriculum at Key Stages 3 & 4*. Available from <<http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/index.aspx>> [Accessed 20/01/09]
- Reading Borough Council. (1999-2005). *Britain's Bayeux Tapestry at the Museum of Reading*. Available from <<http://www.bayeuxtapestry.org.uk>> [Accessed 17/01/09].
- Reynoldson, F. (2000). *KS3 History*. London: Letts Educational.

Appendix 1

Extracts from the PowerPoint presentation and the student worksheet

Map of France: Norman Origins



William the Conqueror...

- William, Duke of Normandy
- Edward the Confessor's nephew
- Was promised the throne of Britain
- Strong leader
- Supported by the Pope
- Claimed the English throne



CLIL Lesson Fernández, M., García, C., and del Pozo, E.

The Battle of Hastings:

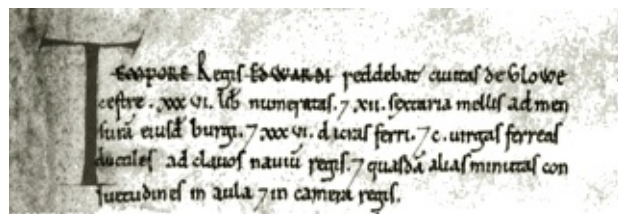
King Harold's death



CLIL Lesson Fernández, M., García, C., and del Pozo, E.

How to control a large country:

The Domesday Book



A great land survey in 1086 to raise taxes.

Student worksheet

Introduction: What do you know about the British Isles in the Middle Ages? What was it like?

Instructions:

First read your worksheet. Then watch the presentation: we hope you enjoy it! Finally, while viewing the presentation again, complete the tasks with suitable answers.

1. Origin: The British Isles before the Normans

Britain was ruled by _____ who lived on _____

The _____ came from _____

They had come after the _____

2. The conquerors!

When the Normans arrived, Britain was organised in _____

It was the year _____.

3. But, who were they? Where did they come from?

The Normans were _____

4. The king of England died (1) _____.**5. The crown of Britain was claimed by _____ kings:**

_____ of _____

_____ chosen by _____ as _____ And

6. The Outcome (2)

The struggle was finally solved in the battle of _____ in _____

Being the three (3) _____ the claimant of the throne of Britain (named above).

7. We find evidence about this in the (4) _____

The _____ is important because _____

The Battle of Hastings	Who won?
Reasons for the victory	Consequences

8. Organising a new kingdom: The Domesday book is _____

It is important because _____

9. Homework

A. Vocabulary: Write down the terms marked (1), (2), (3), (4) and their meanings using your own words.

1. childless _____

2. outcome _____

3. contender _____

4. Bayeux Tapestry _____

B. Word families: Organise the following words into two categories:

beat chase cheat landholder traders

survey flee defeat tenant meadow

War: _____

Land: _____

C. What other name did people use to refer to the Normans?

Appendix 2

The ICT session

Activity: Computer session about sources: the Bayeux Tapestry.

Organisation and communication: Key stages 1 and 2 (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 1999) of the British History syllabus

Goal: Students provide their own understanding of the Battle of Hastings as reflected in the Bayeux Tapestry, create their own story and draw conclusions. They can make choices and critique the development of the events.

Resources:

- The school ICT room
- *Britain's Bayeux Tapestry at the Museum of Reading* (Reading Borough Council 1999-2005)

The entire tapestry is available for viewing in sections with a description above each one. Students can choose their favourite parts and have a closer look at the events.

- *Historic Tale Construction Kit* (Karnebogen and Jungbluth 2003):

Students can interact with different characters in the Bayeux Tapestry and create their own medieval comic or tapestry.

Time: 50'

Procedure: The students visit the Bayeux Tapestry web page and after surfing for 15', select a scene and the characters they like.

Example:

Scene	William decides to attack England.
Characters	Duke William and his half brother Odo, the bishop of Bayeux, some sailors and advisors.
What is going on in the scene	William is furious at the news: Harold is the new king. He is talking to Odo and planning the invasion.

The rest of the time, after studying the scene, students can visit the Historic Tale website (see above) to create their own scene or interpret the scene in their own way using pictures and written text in medieval handwriting.

They can even e-mail their work to other students and compare versions.

Both sites contain extra activities and useful resources for extension and projects.

Assessment: Show an understanding of the sources and select relevant information.

Appendix 3

Extensive writing activity for homework

Goal: Develop writing skills and understand relevant information at Key stages 3 and 4 (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority 2007)

Instructions: Imagine you are Brother Selfric, an Anglo-Saxon monk.

You have witnessed Norman knights invading the village where your monastery is located.

Task: Write a letter addressed to Bishop Odo describing the happenings:

- How the Normans made an inventory of the properties
- How they started to build a castle and where
- How they got rid of the Anglo-Saxon noblemen and authorities

Assessment:

- Show the order of sequence of events
- Use historical past tenses
- Show coherence and cohesion throughout the paper

Appendix 4

The communicative activity: role play

Goals: Organisation and communication

Instructions:

On 15 October 1066, the morning started grey, cold and foggy in Hastings. Despite the after-battle journey, Derek Hulk, a brave soldier from Strongmen County, tells John Littlehead the young water carrier, how magnificent the battle was and how brilliant Duke William was.

Assessment:

- Show order of sequence of events
- Use historical past tenses
- Show coherence and cohesion

Time: 10' preparation and 5' performance

Appendix 5

Year 2 History Test: the Norman Conquest

Name _____ Group _____ Mark _____
Date _____

Instructions:

- Give brief / bullet point answers to questions 1-6.
 - Write a short essay for question 8.
1. Explain the main events which caused the Norman invasion.
 2. Who led the Norman invasion? What was he called?
 3. Where did the Normans come from?
 4. What is the Domesday Book? What was the purpose?
 5. Name the main reasons which made the Normans win the Battle of Hastings.
 6. What is the Bayeux Tapestry?
 7. Why is the Battle of Hastings important in the history of Britain?
 8. Write a short essay (50-70 words) to explain your answer to this question: What are the main Norman contributions to Britain? (3 points)

PART IV



Experiences from
tertiary education

CLIL in higher education: devising a new learning landscape

Emma Dafouz and Begoña Núñez
Universidad Complutense de Madrid

1 Higher education and the CLIL approach across Europe

The previous chapters in this volume have examined the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in primary and secondary education under the regulations of national and regional educational institutions, such as the *Ministerio de Educación, Ciencia y Deportes* (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports) or the governments of the Autonomous Communities in Spain. By contrast, in the case of higher education, the state of affairs is much more heterogeneous, since generally speaking CLIL “has not yet been widely adopted” (Coleman 2006, p. 5). In addition, there is no single, comprehensive, centralised or institutional survey of CLIL at this level (as there is for primary and secondary education, see *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*, (Eurydice 2006), that summarises where, how and who is implementing this approach across Europe.

According to Coleman (2006, pp. 6-9), two lengthy studies throw light on the real situation of English medium teaching in European higher education. One is a quantitative study conducted by the Academic Cooperation Association Survey in 2001/02 (Mainworn and Wächter 2002), which includes data from over one thousand five hundred higher education institutions involved in Socrates-Erasmus programmes in nineteen countries where English is not a native language. By and large, this study reveals that English-medium teaching in Europe is a recent phenomenon, which dates back to around 1998. Most of the universities consulted for this study launched the first English-mediated courses in engineering and business studies, especially at the postgraduate level, and were located in northern and central Europe. The second pan-European study, discussed in Coleman (2006), was conducted in 1999/2000 by Ammon and McConnell and published in 2002. This survey analysed twenty-two European countries and offered data, such as types and numbers of programmes and student enrolment, start dates, rationales as well as problems and aims. The Netherlands and Finland followed by Germany ranked the highest in number of higher education institutions with English-taught programmes. In the case of Spain, this study disclosed that, of the twenty-three higher education institutions consulted, none offered ‘complete’ degree programmes in English. There were some instances of courses taught in the foreign language, but no degree was offered entirely in English.

1.1 CLIL implementation in the Spanish university context

Over the last decade, there has been an enormous change in the presence of English as the language of instruction both in Europe and, particularly, in Spain. The reasons, as experts have noted (see Graddol 1997 and 2006; Marsh and Laitinen 2005) are varied but, on the whole, they reflect the globalisation process

that higher education institutions are experiencing. Coleman (2006, p. 4) identifies seven forces that explain the ongoing growth of English as the language of instruction in higher education: internationalisation, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility, graduate employability, the market in international students (e.g. international students enrolling in university degrees on the same terms as national students) and CLIL. In addition to the pedagogic, linguistic and commercial benefits, CLIL is firmly grounded in the ideals of a multilingual Europe and the need to achieve Mother Tongue + two foreign languages formula that is, MT+ 2 language competence (Pérez-Vidal and Campanale Grillone 2005; Wolff 2002).

In a country like Spain, with a high number of universities (seventy-one in total, forty-eight state-run and twenty-three private¹), ‘differentiation’ is definitely a driving force behind the implementation of CLIL. In other words, universities need to put forward specific programmes and present distinctive features to attract a diminishing student population. In recent years, the number of students attending universities has decreased between 10 % and 20 % according to the National Institute for Statistics,² which indicates that at present, university supply exceeds student demand.

1.2 ‘Bilingual degrees’ at postgraduate and undergraduate level

To attract these potential students, now seen as ‘customers’ who pay fees and demand accountability from their institutions (Wilkinson 2004), higher education centres in Spain have converted ‘English’ into added value. Hence, over thirty institutions are offering their ‘bilingual degrees’ at undergraduate level in fields ranging from Business Administration to Tourism, International Law, Telecommunications or Pharmacy. Initially, many of the bilingual initiatives at the tertiary level came from the private sector. This may be due to the fact that the private sector is usually more flexible and agile than the public one when it comes to the design and implementation of new programmes. It is also freer to employ new staff when specific needs arise. The *Universidad Pontificia de Comillas* in Madrid, for example, was a pioneer in its launching of an international degree in Business Administration over twenty years ago. Likewise, since 1994 the *Universidad de Navarra* has been offering programmes in English, such as Global Economics and Law, Medicine, Engineering and, more recently, the Humanities.

In contrast, it has only been in the last few years that bilingual programmes have been launched in public institutions. At present, twenty public universities across Spain are regarded as ‘bilingual centres’, which means that they offer some degrees through English. Although the most common areas are usually Business Administration and Economics, as mentioned above, the increase in bilingual degrees seems to suggest that decisions to offer courses through English are based mainly on a supply and demand criterion.

All in all, heads of study from various institutions have reported (personal communication) that the combination of a bilingual format and a specific degree (e.g. Languages Applied to Marketing) results in growing rates of national student enrolment, and, ultimately, in higher prestige for the institution. As Francesc Pujol, Assistant Dean of the School of Economics at the *Universidad de Navarra* reports: “The extra training that [these courses] give

1 Information provided by the *Dirección General de Universidades* (General Directorate of Universities).

2 *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* at <<http://www.ine.es>> (Accessed 21/01/08).

3 Interview published at <<http://www.unav.es/english.news/04.html>> (Accessed 23/01/08).

is essential in professional areas which require highly qualified personnel, capable of working in an international multicultural environment”.³ Other remaining issues such as teachers’ and students’ linguistic competence, methodological changes required, or subject-specific adjustments to instruction through a foreign language apparently rank second. However, these issues along with a favourable attitude towards a new teaching methodology are crucial for effective CLIL practice probably because teaching through a foreign language involves much more than a mere change in the language of instruction.

2 Tertiary teachers’ and students’ perspectives on CLIL

Although the practical reasons for a CLIL approach seem obvious, what is not so clear is the stakeholders’ personal perspective. Again, as in the case of the pan-European surveys described in Section 1, there are no all-inclusive studies. Thus, the scenario that emerges is necessarily diverse, and comparisons across nations regarding attitudes should be carried out with caution. In view of this situation, the authors initiated a pilot study in 2006 which focused on the different attitudes that teachers and students in the *Universidad Complutense de Madrid* and the *Universidad Politécnica* (Spain) have towards the potential implementation of a CLIL approach in their respective settings.⁴

2.1 Survey: teachers’ attitudes and methodological changes

The data presented here summarise the responses obtained from two questionnaires distributed among teachers and students from the disciplines of Chemistry, Aeronautical Engineering and Health Sciences (Pharmacy and Medicine). As regards teachers’ responses ($n = 70$) to methodological adjustments in a CLIL context, three main changes were considered essential: adaptation of material, slowing down of classroom rhythm and a slight reduction of content. Material adaptation at this level, as in lower levels of study, seems to be the most important concern since teachers need to prepare and use resources in a different language. However, in contrast to primary or secondary level, most teachers remarked that the use of a single textbook was usually not the norm. Apparently, the fact that most of the sources consulted are in English saves teachers from having to create new materials, and, in turn, facilitates the process of material adaptation.

Secondly, most teachers believed that teaching though English would necessarily entail a slowing down of rhythm and, consequently, a slight reduction of content, more repetition of main ideas and a slower speech rate to facilitate comprehension. Nevertheless, these modifications were expressed *a priori*, since the teachers consulted were not yet involved in a CLIL experience. Thirdly⁴, the questionnaire also disclosed that most teachers did not feel that there should be significant modifications in evaluation style under a CLIL approach. Since the examination format is mostly written and based on problem-solving tests with very little foreign language used, teachers generally manifested their belief that exams would basically imply “translation of technical vocabulary into English”. This belief undoubtedly suggests the need for further investigation into the assessment methods used.

⁴ The authors would like to thank the teachers and students involved in this study for their valuable help. The research is part of an on-going project on CLIL in Higher Education co-funded by the *Comunidad de Madrid* and the *Universidad Complutense de Madrid* (REF. CCG06-UCM/ENE-1061).

In addition to the general questionnaires, a more specific survey, which included interviews, was conducted among teachers involved in piloting courses with international students. When asked about the possible differences between instruction in their native language and in English, one teacher responded: “In English, the class has to be better prepared since you cannot improvise. You need the support of visual material to guide your lesson so that you don’t get lost and forget what you wanted to say.” Another teacher remarked that the main difference was a limitation of interpersonal skills: “I cannot be funny, I cannot tell jokes, and that is very important to attract students’ attention.” As for the main needs in the foreign language, most teachers replied that their weakest skill was speaking, while the strongest was reading, followed by listening and writing in the target language. Paradoxically, in the university context studied, lecturing is still the predominant teaching style with over 75% of classes taught this way. These findings inevitably call for an analysis of lecturing as a specific academic genre and for strategies which could help these instructors deliver the subject content in a successful manner, as will be discussed in Section 3.

2.2 Survey: students’ attitudes and foreign language competence

As regards students’ responses ($n = 85$), the situation was more heterogeneous than with teachers, since there were instances of ‘semi-CLIL’ experiences or English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses with a considerable amount of subject content presented through English. The students enrolled in these courses believed that they had made substantial improvement in the areas of subject-specific vocabulary, pronunciation and listening. By contrast, grammatical development was perceived as the least improved area, probably because, generally speaking, there were no explicit form-focused explanations of the language used or because the grammatical content was not entirely new to students. These last perceptions seem to be in accordance with the principles underlying the CLIL language dimension whereby emphasis is placed on fluency and language skills rather than on grammatical accuracy. Informally, students responded that a content class taught through English was “more useful in the long run,” but at the same time “more demanding and stressful, since the level of concentration required is higher than if the course was conducted in Spanish” (for a more detailed account of this study, see Dafouz *et al.* 2007).

Finally, as regards attitudes to a more extensive implementation of CLIL in a university context, the research suggests that both teachers and students would view it positively but, differ in their level of willingness to participate. Thus, while teachers demand more administrative recognition as well as financial and methodological support as indispensable conditions, students consider subject content complexity and foreign language competence (i.e. teachers’ and students’) as key factors for successful CLIL.

3 Integrating content and language: insights from a genre-based approach

One of the main problems that both university teachers and learners face in this context is summarised by Räsänen and Klaassen (2004, p. 556) in the following way:

The dilemma that was recognised for integrated content and language learning in Higher Education was that academic knowledge and skills cannot be developed if learners do not

have access to the ‘kind of language in which that knowledge is constructed, evaluated and discussed’⁵ and if they do not have ample opportunities to use the language for communication about the content. In other words, becoming an academic expert also means becoming competent in expressing and communicating about that expertise so that the person can be identified as an expert.

The new challenges facing universities which want to meet the diverse needs of students coming from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds should lead to further reflection on the type of CLIL pedagogies suitable for tertiary level. As Coyle (2007, p. 548) observes, there is no cohesion as far as CLIL ‘pedagogies’ are concerned. In fact, methodologies, materials and curriculum organisation vary across countries. At the tertiary level, CLIL pedagogy needs to be different from CLIL models for primary and secondary education. Specifically, teachers’ practices and competences should be redefined to cater to the linguistic, academic and professional demands that university students bring with them. Given that students who enrol in bilingual degree courses are expected to have an upper-intermediate or advanced level in the foreign language to understand course content, it becomes obvious that the language focus needs to move beyond the acquisition of linguistic competence (that is, beyond the knowledge of the language as a system—lexical, grammatical, phonological, etc.). In other words, emphasis should be placed on the acquisition of competences concerned with the knowledge of language use in the specific academic and professional settings in which university students are expected to engage.

3.1 Communicative competence in academic contexts

Throughout the history of language teaching it has become clear that the notion of communicative competence comprises more than Chomsky’s (1965) view of competence as the knowledge of the grammar of rules. As Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) and the authors of the *Common European Framework of Reference* (Council of Europe 2001) have put forward, the communicative competence that learners are expected to develop should also take into account the sociolinguistic, strategic, discourse and pragmatic components. In CLIL research, an influential notion of language competence is Cummins’ (1984) distinction between Basic Interactive Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), also known as conversational versus academic language proficiency (Cummins 1991). Whereas BICS is the type of language used to communicate in everyday situations and informal settings (e.g. following directions, face-to-face conversations or other context-embedded interactions), CALP is used in context-reduced academic settings and requires more cognitively demanding tasks and complex language (e.g. follow a lecture with little visual support or write a research paper). In Cummins’ view, the ultimate objective is to take students from BICS to CALP. For instance, in order to understand a written text and write a summary or a research paper in a foreign language, students need not only be linguistically competent, but also activate their thinking skills (e.g. evaluating, drawing conclusions). In this regard, CLIL offers students the opportunity to cope with cognitively demanding tasks in more specialised content areas, such as science, history, social studies, etc.

In a university academic context, language use is determined by the contextual requirements of the practices in which teachers and learners engage (e.g. lectures, seminars or problem-solving tasks), as well as by the professional

⁵ Emphasis added.

practices which learners are expected to get involved in or to use (e.g. journalism, legal expertise, etc.). For this reason, the integration of language and content at the tertiary level should combine the teaching/learning of specialist knowledge of the discipline and a wide range of language competences that prepare students to become academic experts in their specialist fields of research or work.

3.1.1 Genre-based model of literacy

Bhatia suggests that this integration of content literacy and language literacy can be approached from the perspective of 'genre analysis', defined as "the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalised academic or professional settings" (2004, pp. 60-61). According to Bhatia, a genre-based model of literacy highlights the "ability to identify, construct, interpret, and successfully exploit a specific repertoire of professional, disciplinary or workplace genres to participate in the activities of a specific disciplinary culture" (2004, p. 57). Bhatia's model of genre-based literacy incorporates four types of competence: social, professional, generic and textual. These competences are consistent with the reasons for introducing the CLIL approach from pre-primary to primary and secondary educational contexts (Marsh *et al.* 2001; Marsh 2002) and could be usefully exploited for teacher training purposes at a university level.

3.2 CLIL dimensions

Marsh *et al.* (2001) describe these reasons as CLIL dimensions, namely the Culture Dimension, the Environment Dimension, the Language Dimension, the Content Dimension and the Learning Dimension. This paper will show that these dimensions can be compatible with the set of competences proposed by Bhatia (2004) for a CLIL pedagogy. First, the social competence or ability to deal critically with aspects of discourse in relation to their social and institutional contexts implies using analytic and reflective skills (Learning Dimension) as well as intercultural communication skills (Cultural Dimension). Second, the professional competence or knowledge of the appropriate set of genres together with the ability to participate as a competent member in a specific professional culture entails being linguistically prepared for an international labour market (The Environment Dimension). Third, knowledge of the conventional uses of macro generic and micro textual resources available in the language system (generic and textual competences) can benefit from developing overall language competence (i.e. the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening) in relation to the content specificity of each discipline (Language and Content Dimensions). In this sense, being a competent member of an academic community involves being acquainted with specific generic conventions in order to be able to read, understand, produce and write academic texts in one's own field of research. The following table clarifies the relationship between Bhatia's (2004) model of language based literacy and the CLIL dimensions:

Table 1. Relationship between Bhatia's (2004) language-based literacy model and the CLIL dimensions (Marsh *et al.*, 2001 and Marsh 2002)

Language-based literacy	CLIL Dimensions
Social competence	The Culture Dimension The Learning Dimension
Professional competence	The Environment Dimension
Generic competence	The Content Dimension The Language Dimension
Textual Competence	The Content Dimension The Language Dimension

The advantages of a genre-approach model to the teaching and learning of languages at different educational levels has been well documented, especially as applied to reading and writing activities, even with low proficiency EFL students (Firkins *et al.* 2007). For students with higher proficiency, this approach has found extensive application in EAP and ESP contexts (Bhatia 1997; Swales 1990; Weissberg and Buker 1990). Awareness of the macro structure of genres (i.e. the structure of a research paper, a lecture or an oral presentation), the way they are realised through registers, and the constraints that registers impose on language choice has also inspired current initiatives for the investigation of collaborative teaching talk (Davison 2006) and for the development of university CLIL programmes in technical education (Carrió Pastor and Gimeno Sanz 2007).

4 A proposal for CLIL teaching competences

As described in Marsh (2002), research on CLIL teaching strategies has defined teacher competences in terms of language proficiency (i.e. fluency and sufficient lexico-syntactic knowledge of the target language), ability to select materials suitable for a communicative methodology as well as other skills concerning the provision of a rich learning environment or the development of assessment tools. Recent studies on CLIL teaching performance have looked at how the pedagogic inventory of non-native CLIL teachers can effectively contribute to the development of their students' target language skills. Research conducted by De Graaff *et al.* (2007) at secondary level shows that teachers must have both the ability to select and adapt materials as well as a linguistic repertoire that enables them to facilitate form-focused processing and output production. Such a linguistic repertoire can be said to cover functional uses of language (e.g. clarifying, giving examples), knowledge of the basic conventions of typical genres (e.g. surveys or articles) and knowledge of interpersonal uses of language (e.g. checking comprehension or requesting clarification). An important question that needs to be addressed is to what extent these features, which represent effective teaching at a secondary level, are also applicable to the tertiary level.

4.1 Researching teachers' metadiscursive devices

Research into the organisational and linguistic features of the discourse of university teachers in Spain has revealed a need for an improved control of metadiscursive devices, that is, organisational and interpersonal resources which contribute to the structuring of discourse and to audience rapport (Dafouz, Núñez and Sancho 2007). Analysis of a small corpus of engineering lectures gathered in 2006 showed that in many cases, teachers indicated the structure of their lectures in an implicit way, and that certain explicit indicators were not always used with their corresponding signalling meaning. For instance, expressions such as “for example”, “perhaps” or “more or less” were found to function as discourse fillers rather than as exemplifying or evaluative resources. In addition, the teachers observed tended to avoid certain structures, specifically, recapitulation markers (e.g. ‘to summarise’, ‘to conclude’, ‘on the whole’...) to signal the end of the lecture or summarise the main information. Further, they often showed reduced stylistic variety, with excessive repetition of certain items in detriment of others (e.g. ‘important’, ‘difficult’ and ‘interesting’ were the most frequently used evaluative adjectives⁶).

⁶ For a more detailed analysis of the different stages of CLIL university lectures and their realisation through specific linguistic and pragmatic devices, see Núñez Perucha and Dafouz Milne (2007).

Nevertheless, it remains to be seen to what extent all these features would indeed affect the comprehension of the lecture. The findings suggest the need for providing CLIL teachers with an adequate linguistic repertoire to facilitate comprehension, which must include the conventions of lectures as a genre (see Aguilar Pérez and Arnó Macia 2002). In other words, university teachers that engage in the teaching of content through a foreign language should be aware not only of the need to teach students social, professional, generic and textual competences that are specific to the degree subject or area (e.g. analyse texts critically or involve students in activities specific to their professional contexts), they should also be aware of the conventional resources available in the foreign language to achieve the intended communicative goals. This implies that teachers need to reflect on how teaching through a foreign language may impinge upon their lecturing styles in the mother tongue, and what metadiscursive resources are available in the foreign language to conduct a CLIL lesson.

4.2 Towards a CLIL teaching competence model for the university context

Drawing on Bhatia's (2004) classification of competences, the authors would like to propose a model of language competences for CLIL university teachers. This model combines two types of competences: general language competence or proficiency (i.e. global knowledge of the language system and competence in the different language skills) and other genre-based specific competences that are relevant in the university context, where the academic and professional domains overlap. As Sengupta *et al.* (1999, p. 8) rightly observe, "without further language support, English speaker-like competency does not guarantee that the individual has the skills to manipulate the production of academic genres." Thus, ideally, in order to teach content through a foreign language, university teachers would need to successfully exploit generic and textual competences at two different contextual levels: a situational or global one and a disciplinary or local one.

In terms of generic competence, CLIL university teachers are expected to know about the generic conventions that apply to the context of situation in which teaching practices occur (e.g. using metadiscursive devices, such as 'first', 'another aspect..', to signal the different steps of a CLIL lesson), as well as knowing about other generic conventions that are specific to their particular disciplines (e.g. knowledge of the sections of a scientific report and the way they are signalled in language). The first type of generic conventions can be called 'classroom discourse' and, as such, can be regarded as common to other disciplines.

As far as textual competence is concerned, university CLIL teachers would need knowledge of the different grammatical and lexical alternatives available in the foreign language that can be used in the various stages of an academic lecture (e.g. using appropriate modal verb patterns to give solutions to scientific problems or avoiding repetition of the same adjective in the evaluation stage of an academic lecture). At a more local level, teachers would also require more specific knowledge of the subject terminology characteristic of their disciplines.⁷ Table 2 summarises the type of language competences that CLIL university teachers would need.

⁷ Some researchers advocate correlations between specific lecturing styles and disciplines (e.g. Dudley-Evans 1994). It is the authors' intention to investigate whether this correlation exists or if there is actually a macro-model that encompasses both technical and non-technical fields (Young 1994).

Table 2. *General and specific language competences at global and local levels*

General language competence	High command of speaking, listening, reading and writing skills	
Specific language competences		
Level of applicability	Textual competence	Generic competence
Global level: situational context	Knowledge of the different grammatical and lexical alternatives available in the system that can be used in the specific genre stages (e.g. appropriate use of modal verb patterns in a solution stage)	Generic conventions applying to the context of situation (e.g. signalling each stage in a lecture by means of the appropriate metadiscursive devices)
Local level: discipline specific	Specific subject terminology	Generic conventions as applied to the specific field of research or discipline (e.g. knowledge of the structure of reports)

Classroom observation and interviews with university teachers in the field of engineering has revealed that CLIL teachers are linguistically capable of teaching content through a foreign language in the sense that they have the appropriate command of general language skills and the specific knowledge of the subject terminology. However, they seem to lack familiarity with the textual and generic conventions specific to the situational context. Team teaching between the content teacher and the English teacher (Language for Specific Purposes / Academic Purposes) could be a way of overcoming this difficulty. The benefits of collaborative work have been widely noted in primary and secondary education (Snow and Brinton 1997; Davison 2006; Fernández Rivero 2008; Lorenzo 2007) and, to a lesser extent, in tertiary education (Carrió Pastor and Gimeno Sanz 2007).

The point of view proposed in this chapter is that the English teacher has three main roles: 1) to maximise content teachers' access to the generic tools for more 'explicit' signalling of metadiscursive devices in the organisation of lessons; 2) to expand the range of stylistic choices available in the foreign language; 3) to prevent pragmatic inadequacies or simplified grammars. These are precisely the major needs that emerge both from teacher interviews as well as from the analysis of the CLIL academic corpus that the authors and other members of the project are compiling.

In view of the above observations, careful planning should be the first step towards effective team teaching at university level. As Wilkinson (2004, p. 10) rightly observes, setting performance goals in the use of the content-related language is essential in order to avoid putting the quality and the reputation of university programmes and institutions at risk.

5 Conclusions and implications

In this study, the authors have reflected on the implementation of CLIL at the tertiary level and have explored the type of teaching competences that educators would need. After examining some Spanish university contexts, it can be concluded that at this educational stage, CLIL is somewhat experimental or modular, and there is no centralised or institutional provision on a national scale. In addition, despite the relatively wide supply of courses taught through English, in practice, the number of students who are actually enrolled in these programmes in the Spanish context is still rather low. For example, in the case of undergraduate programmes, there are no more than fifteen students per programme, while in non-bilingual degrees the average number is closer to fifty or sixty students per group.⁸

5.1 A new generation of CLIL students and teachers

However, this tendency will undoubtedly change in the next few years. As the preceding chapters in this volume have shown, there is a new generation of students (and teachers), who will consider learning through a foreign language to be a common practice. This will inevitably result in increasing demands for a higher quality of teaching in the foreign language as well as continuity of the CLIL approach, especially at a time when English is becoming the most useful professional language.

It is the authors' belief that university CLIL teacher-training could benefit from a competence model based on a genre approach. Such a model, ideally implemented through team-teaching, could provide content teachers the specific linguistic and generic repertoire of academic language, and in addition, contribute to an effective implementation of CLIL. It would also give stakeholders an opportunity to reflect on predominating teaching styles at tertiary level and look for feasible alternatives that can adapt to the demands of the European Space for Higher Education.

⁸ These approximate figures were provided by teachers involved in the bilingual programme of the *Universidad Carlos III de Madrid*, where the degree of Telecommunications is now offered in English and in Spanish (academic year 2007-08).

References

- Aguilar Pérez, M. and Arnó Macià, E. (2002). 'Metadiscourse in lecture comprehension: does it really help foreign language learners?' *Atlantis*, 24, (2), pp. 3-21.
- Ammon, U. and McConnell, G. (2002). *English as an Academic Language in Europe: a Survey of its Use in Teaching*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Bhatia, V.K. (1997). 'Applied genre analysis and ESP,' in Miller, T., (ed.) *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*. US: English Language Programs, United States Information Agency. Available online at: <http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/pubs/BR/functionalsec4_10.htm> [Accessed 17/01/09]
- (2004). 'Academic literacy in higher education,' in Wilkinson, R. (ed.) *Integrating Content and Language: Meeting the Challenge of a Multilingual Higher Education*. The Netherlands: Universitaire Pers Maastricht, pp. 55-77.
- Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). 'Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing.' *Applied Linguistics*, 1, pp. 1-47.
- Carrió Pastor, M. and Gimeno Sanz, A. (2007). 'Content and Language Integrated Learning in a technical higher education environment,' in Marsh, D. and Wolff, D. (eds.) *Diverse Contexts Converging Goals. CLIL in Europe*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, pp. 103-111.
- Coleman, J. (2006). 'English-medium teaching in European higher education.' *Language Teaching*, 39, pp. 1-14.
- Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coyle, D. (2007). 'Content and Language Integrated Learning: Towards a connected research agenda for CLIL pedagogies.' *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10, (5), pp. 543-562.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Cummins, J. (1984). 'Wanted: A theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement among bilingual students,' in Rivera, C., (ed.) *Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp. 2-19.
- (1991). 'Conversational and academic language proficiency in bilingual contexts.' *AILA Review*, 8, pp. 75-89.
- Dafouz, E., Núñez, B. and Sancho, C. (2007). 'Analysing stance in a CLIL university context: non-native speaker use of personal pronouns and modal verbs.' *The International Journal of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education*, 10, (5), pp. 647-662.
- Dafouz, E., Nuñez, B., Sancho, C. and Foran, D. (2007). 'Integrating CLIL at the Tertiary Level: Teachers' and Students' Reactions,' in Wolff, D. and Marsh, D. (eds.) *Content and Language Integrated Learning in Europe - Converging and Diverging goals*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, pp. 91-102.
- Davison, C. (2006). 'Collaboration between ESL and content teachers: How do we know when we are doing it right?' *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9, (4), pp. 454-475.
- De Graaf, R., Koopman, G.J., Anikina, Y. and Westhoff, G. (2007). 'An observation tool for effective L2 pedagogy in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).' *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10, (5), pp. 603-624.
- Dudley-Evans, A. (1994). 'Variations in the discourse patterns favoured by different disciplines and their pedagogical implications,' in Flowerdew, J. (ed.) *Academic Listening: Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 146-158.
- Eurydice. The information network on education in Europe. (2006). *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*. Brussels: Eurydice European Unit. Also available from: <http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/ressources/eurydice/pdf/0_integral/071EN.pdf> [Accessed 01/01/09]
- Fernández Rivero, M. (2008). 'El trabajo conjunto con el auxiliar de conversación en la enseñanza bilingüe.' *Aula de Innovación Educativa*, 168, pp. 34-37.
- Firkins, A., Forey, G. and Sengupta, S. (2007). 'A genre-based literacy pedagogy: Teaching writing to low proficiency EFL students.' *English Language Teaching Journal*, 61,(4), pp. 341-352.
- Graddol, D. (1997). *The Future of English?* London: British Council.
- (2006). *English Next. Why global English may mean the end of English as a Foreign Language*. London: British Council.
- Hymes, H. (1972). 'On communicative competence,' in Pride, J.B. and Holmes, J. (eds.) *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 269-293.
- Lorenzo, F. (2007). 'An analytical Framework of Language Integration in L2 Content-based courses: the European Dimension.' *Language and Education*, 21, (6), pp. 502-513.
- Mainworm, F. and Wächter, B. (2002). *English-language-taught degree programmes in European Higher Education: Trends and success factors*. Bonn: Lemmens.

- Marsh, D. (ed.) (2002). *CLIL/EMILE. The European Dimension. Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential*. Jyväskylä, Finland: UniCom, University of Jyväskylä.
- Marsh, D. and Laitinen, J. (2005). *Medium of Instruction in European higher education: Summary of research outcomes of European Network for Language Learning Amongst Undergraduates (ENLU)*. Jyväskylä, Finland: UniCom, University of Jyväskylä.
- Marsh, D., Maljers, A. and Hatiala, A. (eds.) (2001). *Profiling European CLIL Classrooms. Languages Open Doors*. Jyväskylä, Finland: University of Jyväskylä.
- Núñez Perucha, B. and Dafouz Milne, E. (2007). 'Lecturing through the foreign language in a CLIL university context: linguistic and pragmatic implications.' *VIEWS (Vienna English Working Papers)*, 16, (3), pp. 36-42. Also available online at: <www.univie.ac.at/anglistik/ang_new/online_papers/views.html> [Accessed 17/01/09]
- Pérez-Vidal, C. and Campanale Grilloni, N. (eds.) (2005). *Content and Language Integrated Learning in Europe. Teaching materials for use in the secondary school classroom*. Barcelona: Gráficas Revenaque.
- Räsänen, A. and Klaassen, R. (2004). 'Academic competences in a multilingual learning environment,' in Wilkinson, R. (ed.) *Integrating Content and Language: Meeting the challenge of a Multilingual Higher Education*. Maastricht, The Netherlands: Universitaire Pers Maastricht, pp. 565-570.
- Sengupta, S., Forey, G., and Hamp-Lyons, L. (1999). 'Supporting effective English communication within the context of teaching and research in a tertiary institute: developing a genre model for consciousness raising,' in *English for Specific Purposes*, 18 (supplementary endowed issue), pp. S7-S22.
- Snow, M.A. and Brinton, D.M. (eds.) (1997). *The Content-Based Classroom. Perspectives on Integrating Language and Content*. New York: Longman.
- Swales, J.M. (1990). *Genre Analysis. English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Weissberg, R. and Buker, S. (1990). *Writing Up Research: Experimental Research Report Writing for Students of English*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Wilkinson, R. (ed.) (2004). *Integrating Content and Language: Meeting the challenge of a Multilingual Higher Education*. Maastricht, The Netherlands: Universitaire Pers Maastricht.
- Wolff, D. (2002). 'On the importance of CLIL in the context of the debate on plurilingual education in the European Union,' in Marsh, D. (ed.) *CLILE/EMILE The European Dimension. Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential*. Jyväskylä, Finland: UniCom, University of Jyväskylä, pp. 47-48.
- Young, L. (1994). 'University lectures – macro-structures and micro-features,' in Flowerdew, J. (ed.) *Academic Listening. Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 159-176.

