

British Council Regional Policy Dialogues 2013-14

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Introduction to the Volume

Simon Borg

As part of its commitment to promoting debate and dialogue around key issues in language education, the British Council organised four Regional Policy Dialogues in Europe between May 2013 and March 2014. The first of these took part in Bucharest on the theme of English for the 21st-century professional, and this was followed by two events in Spain - in Segovia, on the role of English in higher education, and in Barcelona, on learning and teaching English in the digital age. The fourth event in this series took place in Como, with a focus on CLIL policy and practice. Each event provided a mixture of plenary talks, panel discussions and working groups, with an emphasis on discussion, interaction and an analysis of the implications for practice and policy of the various themes under discussion. Despite their diverse themes, the events were united by a focus on developments within Europe and shared a common concern for the implications that current EU education strategies, especially ET 2020, have for the learning and teaching of languages.

This volume brings together a selection of 25 contributions from these four events. Collectively, they provide valuable insight into contemporary thinking in Europe around a range of critical issues in language teaching and learning. The Bucharest event, with its focus on language and vocational education, relates very closely to current European concerns with employability, and clear examples are provided of projects in Romania that are revitalising language education in vocational contexts. The Segovia event relates to the themes of internationalisation and mobility, and the papers that focus on the role of English in Higher Education provide critical perspectives which encourage further examination of the assumptions that often inform debates about the value of English as a medium of instruction. The Barcelona

event addressed another key European concern, digital competence, by examining contemporary perspectives on how various forms of digital resources can support language learning. Once again though, the perspective that emerges is a critical one which emphasises the need to use such resources in ways that enhance learning rather than for their own sake. CLIL is another theme that has become a central feature of educational practices in Europe in recent years and the Como event provides various perspectives on the benefits of CLIL, and its challenges and issues where our understandings need to be developed further through research.

In addition to the specific insights which emerge here in relation to the themes that are addressed by each Regional Policy Dialogue, it is also possible to discern a number of cross-cutting generic issues that have broader relevance. One is the need for criticality in the manner in which educational innovation is embraced. Policy and practice often extend beyond what the available supporting evidence warrants. Second, is the need for contextually sensitive implementations of educational innovations. Despite being unified in many ways, Europe does constitute many different educational contexts. And third is the need to make learners and learning a central concern in the development of educational policies and practices. Understanding how learners benefit from educational innovation should be a key element in how such innovations are evaluated.

We are grateful to everyone who contributed to these four events and in particular to the speakers whose work we present here.

**Bucharest, Romania,
30-31 May 2013**

British Council Regional
Policy Dialogue 1:

English for the 21st Century Professionals

This Regional Policy Dialogue examined the contribution of languages to vocational education and training (VET). Phil Ball's opening paper considers the relationship between content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and VET and concludes that the two are compatible in their shared concern for promoting an ability to use language in real life situations. This is followed by Rod Bolitho's analysis of the past and current status of languages in vocational education in Europe. This paper notes the progress that has been made in improving the status of language learning for vocational purposes but also highlights areas where further developments are required. The remaining papers analyse recent work on VET in Romania. Two contributions focus on specific projects – "English for Agritourism and Rural Tourism" and "English for the World of Work". The latter, in particular, highlights an innovative approach to VET needs analysis and materials development in which teachers and especially students played a very central role. Further reference to these projects, particularly that on English for Agritourism and Rural Tourism, is made in Anca-Mariana Pegulescu's account of the Romanian Ministry of National Education's contribution to recent developments in VET in the country. This collection of papers concludes with Claudia Calinescu's summary of basic elements of the curriculum in technical and vocational education.



The Role of CLIL in Vocational Education

Phil Ball

The talk was based on four basic areas, all exploring the relationship between vocational education and CLIL:

1. CLIL
2. The CLIL-VET relationship
3. The special characteristics of CLIL
4. How to make you enthusiastic towards CLIL!

The talk basically suggested that CLIL is the natural ally of vocationally-oriented education, with regard to both its hands-on approach and to its facilitation of multilingualism. It also compared and contrasted CLIL with Vocational English, and suggested that CLIL's focus on procedural knowledge makes it the ideal vehicle to fulfil the aims of the EU's strategic *Europe 2020* initiative.

The first point dealt with the paradigm of CLIL itself, and explored the idea that it is a methodology as opposed to an 'approach', where the latter often comes with ideological labels attached, making it thus less 'exportable' across frontiers. Seen as a methodology with identifiable parameters, there seems little doubt that there is a clear interface between CLIL practice and VET. In order to illustrate this relationship, the talk began by emphasising the practical, hands-on nature of CLIL, largely because it is more difficult to use transmission methods when dealing with 'language-defective' learners – with no stigma attached to the phrase. Rather it illustrates well what the CLIL teacher has to bear in mind, and not make too many assumptions about the learners' ability to simply understand and assimilate by way of explanation, as in some traditional L1 teacher-centred setting. Good practice in vocational education (whether in L1 or otherwise) is characterised by this, a 'doing' approach, more practical and pragmatic in its outlook.

The talk tried to frame these notions by recounting the story of "the grandmother of Montevideo" – an anecdote in which the presenter described a comment by a retired woman at a conference in Uruguay, where

she had said to the presenter (just before his plenary) that although she was a retired English teacher, she was nevertheless interested in CLIL. Her interest stemmed from her 8 year-old grandson, who had run up to her the previous week and announced to her in Spanish that he liked English. The grandmother was pleased and replied that she was happy to hear that, but wondered why he liked English so much. The boy simply replied in Spanish '*Porque hacemos cosas*' (because we do things). Charmed by the truth of this simple assertion, the presenter changed the opening part of his plenary to include this tale. The idea of 'doing things' is not a common thread amongst people who have been taught English. Neither is it something that normally figures in their expectations of a course. Nevertheless, it encapsulates CLIL well, and the widened repertoire of actions that teachers take on added to the more student-centred classes which tend to result from these realities. It also sums up VET, and much of the practice that is expected of teacher and learner.

The talk then went on to consider CLIL as a candidate to fulfil various EU lifelong learning initiatives such as 'innovative pedagogies' and 'learning conducive environments' (Copenhagen Process, 2002). VET is essentially an instrumental learning framework, because its principal aim is to prepare people for work. CLIL is an innovative methodology also applied to more instrumental situations in which students look to kill two birds with one stone, acquiring concepts and skills at the same time as honing language competences. They are rarely doing this for 'liberal' reasons, but rather to improve their chances of employability in an increasingly

multilingual market. As Graddol (2006) remarked, English is now a 'core skill'. Without it, learners are 'disabled' and at a distinct disadvantage. However, English is not the only foreign language that can benefit us in the workplace, and the whole notion of multilingualism suggested that CLIL cannot simply be associated with English only. Perhaps it will become true, in the very near future, that 'languages' themselves will be the core skills – the vehicles through which competences in the workplace are both measured and conditioned. Indeed, Europe 'is already beginning to feel like this' (Bolitho, Bucharest 2013).

The two types of CLIL were then delineated – 'soft' and 'hard' – where the former is more associated with the language syllabus and the latter the normal subject-based curriculum. CLIL, either soft or hard, looked like a much better way of preparing students for vocational education's special demands by changing the nature of school study in general. If students were more 'content-language integrated', they would find VE more attractive (particularly the language courses) and would see the point in "CLIL-ing" certain topics or subjects. CLIL seemed a natural ally to Bullock's idea (1975) in LAC (Language Across the Curriculum), in which teachers became 'language teachers' in the sense that they would be trained to recognise the impact of language on cognition. The corollary suggested by the talk, was that language teachers could equally become 'content' teachers, and immerse themselves more deeply in the range of content that is readily available for use – instead of comparing the Present Perfect with the Past Simple, to exaggerate a typical example. This would make sense in this new instrumental, vocational-led landscape.

The talk also attacked the notion of PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production) described as the 'sine qua non' of pre-millennium communicative language teaching but now a more questionable practice given the more demanding and ever-changing educational scene nowadays. Rather the learning of languages was seen as more coherent in a 'doing' framework, to quote Artigal, "Languages are not learned first, to be used later; they are learned by first being used" (Artigal, 2002).

Indeed, the interface between CLIL and VET seems obvious, in that the EU's desire for multilingual citizens

(part of its new 2020 initiative) allied to greater vocational mobility in Europe (also central to the original Copenhagen Process) can only be brought about by a change in approach to language teaching. CLIL brings this about in the most minimal sense by increasing the contact hours with the target language, and in the fuller sense by increasing contact with authentic content and encouraging performance-based and competence-led education. CLIL thus tends to increase the communicative production-based challenges of learning, which the presentation likened to the way in which we teach children to swim. We tend to take them to the shallow end of the pool, put on armbands, and vaguely simulate the real thing, hoping that one day they will progress to the deep end and throw off the armbands – but of course, in many cases, students often never reach the deep end (of language proficiency). In CLIL, we tend to throw the students in at the deep end – not callously but remaining close by, suggesting, facilitating.....the metaphor is infinitely extendible – but is valid nevertheless. CLIL turns PP on its head and works a 'Production, Practice, Present' mode of learning. It seems to make much more sense for the future, and it seems to make much more sense as an ally of VET.

CLIL is a more process-led paradigm, and as such it converts more easily into a competence-based approach. It also helps to promote multilingualism, without which the European Commission's aims for 'Youth on the Move' will be rendered meaningless. As already mentioned, CLIL adopts a more hands-on approach to education, because the linguistic challenge of studying complex content in a foreign language requires greater cognitive and interactive effort from the learner. Teachers tend to recognise the greater need to break down the content into comprehensible chunks, converting their lessons into more procedurally-rich environments.

Another acronym considered in this context was LEST – "Language Enhanced Subject Teaching", (Ball and Lindsay, 2010) where subject teachers are encouraged to make language issues more salient, showing how a specific discipline depends on a certain type of discourse, and that it is the codes of this discourse (CALP – "Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency", Cummins, 1979) that must be both understood and then

later reproduced in oral and written production. VET also focused on discourse and the crucial language fields of each technical subject. Teacher education also comes about through the awareness of these demands, and student attitudes to the target language often improve when they can see some point, some objective to language learning.

There are some differences, nevertheless. VE tends to assume medium-high competence in the subject area, and ESP is language-led in its aims. However, CLIL assumes no competences. Area skills and language skills are developed simultaneously. Biggs (2003) was quoted, using his idea of the journey from 'declarative' knowledge to 'functioning' knowledge as the true quest for education, where the former was mere factual knowledge (to declare) and the latter was the applied use of the knowledge – from product to process. Again, this seemed directly relevant to the concerns of VET.

However, to quote Maastricht, which was an attempt to identify and anticipate future skills needs in Europe:

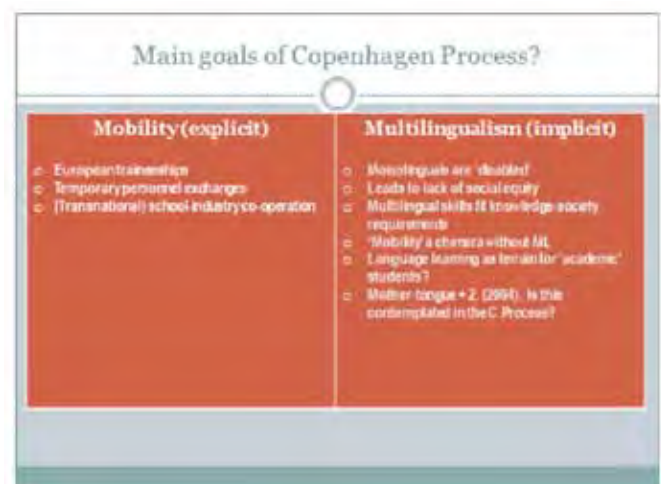
“As firms and sectors compete on innovation and as globalisation creates turbulence in traditional markets, new skill and competence requirements emerge. They have to be identified and considered in reforms of initial and continuing training curricula.” (Cedefop/Maastricht, 2010)

Which likely future skills are we talking about? It would seem that the knowledge-based society needs

- Problem-solving skills
- To cope effectively with change
- To communicate with peers and clients

There are others, but the three above are seen as fundamental in competence-based circles and perfectly feasible as meta-disciplinary competences within VET. Besides, the explicit goals of the Copenhagen Process (see Figure 1) were entirely human-based and pragmatic, centering on the twin goals of 'mobility' and 'multilingualism'. In a sense, the focus on mobility was explicit in the document, and the focus on

multilingualism implicit, but it seems obvious that one cannot take place without the other. Mobility was described as a 'chimera' without multilingualism, and perhaps more crucially, with the skills that multilingualism confers. This is perhaps at the heart of the matter, not necessarily the learning of multiple languages.



As Baetens-Beardsmore (2008) remarked:

“Bilingual children have a greater faculty for creative thinking at their disposal. They perform significantly better in tasks which require not the finding of the single correct answer to a question, but where they are asked to imagine a number of possible correct answers”.

To conclude, if the future is 'competence-led', it needs to be learner-centred. It is impossible to measure competences without situations and actions, which require a re-think of school curricula in order to bring them more into line with VET approaches, and narrow the breach between the two. VET also requires learners to be 'hands-on', to perform. CLIL's role here is that it obtains its strength through its procedural focus, but is 'language aware'.

The talk concluded, therefore, that CLIL and VET constituted a 'happy marriage'.

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Languages in Vocational Education

Rod Bolitho

Background Part 1: The Big Picture

For many years, language learning and teaching in the vocational sector in countries across Europe and beyond received little attention and almost no dedicated funding. There were several reasons for this neglect. Notable among them was the perception that foreign languages were an “add-on” – “a bit of a luxury” - rather than a carefully integrated part of the vocational curriculum. A further reason was the emphasis towards the end of the 20th century on languages for mainstream secondary education and, in the wake of the 1999 Bologna declaration, the realisation that proficiency in a foreign language is an essential prerequisite to student mobility in higher education.

However, the early years of the new century saw an increasing awareness at European level of the contribution vocational education and training (VET) could make to national economies through supplying a steady stream of young people with the qualifications and skills needed to support growth in the services and manufacturing sectors. For them too, mobility in search of employment has become a real possibility, thanks to the parallel development of job advertising on the internet, the increased public awareness of skill shortages and skill surpluses in some countries and vocational areas, and the arrival of low-cost travel on budget airlines. The Copenhagen Declaration (2002) formalised Europe-wide objectives in vocational education, and it included a clear mention of the importance of languages and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). All this led in turn to a shift in European funding priorities towards VET, including for the teaching of foreign languages in specialised schools and colleges. This paper examines some of the opportunities and issues that this sea-change has thrown up.

Background Part 2: The Position of Languages

Language teachers in vocational schools and colleges often felt marginalised because their classes were given low priority in the curriculum. They were (and still are) often confronted with poor standards among students entering VET, and mixed ability groups. As philology graduates, many of these teachers lacked the skills needed to design materials and a programme of study suitable for their students’ vocational contexts. There was a dearth of published material to help them and no specialist procedures for assessment. In many contexts across Europe, this simply resulted in a stodgy diet often simply rehashing what had been learned at school. Students in their turn were often poorly motivated and low in self-esteem, seeing achievement in a foreign language as of secondary importance compared with studies in their main area of specialism. Language policy shifts alone, whether at national or European level, were never likely to do much to change this situation. Calls for plurilingualism, for alignment of language syllabi to the CEFR and the growing interest in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) all seemed more relevant to academic streams at school level than to vocational students.

Triggers for Change

The Copenhagen Declaration certainly helped to concentrate the minds of funding agencies, and this resulted in opportunities in the hitherto ‘Cinderella’ area of vocational language teaching. Projects and initiatives were started across Europe to take advantage of the funds on offer in the areas of in-service training, institutional partnerships, syllabus and materials design and the development of testing and assessment related to standards. The work of the Centre for Vocational Languages (CEBS) in Austria, stands out in this respect,

and they continue to offer a model of good practice in all the areas mentioned above. At long last, there was a focus on analysing the real language needs of vocational students, in projects such as “English for the World of Work” (EWoW) and “English for Agri- and Rural Tourism” (EART) in Romania (both British Council-managed). Needs analysis inevitably led to the narrowing down of objectives and an understanding that students would be motivated and supported by materials of direct relevance to their future jobs. Materials development in narrow vocational areas is not attractive to publishers because of the size of the prospective market, but I am aware of excellent work in this area - both in projects (Turkey, Romania) and by individuals (Slovenia, Austria).

Employers have also been increasingly influential in articulating the requirement for good foreign language communication skills in graduates from the vocational sector. But they also want young people who are able to take responsibility and show initiative, who are team players, who can adapt to new situations and who are socially, digitally and interculturally competent. It is not surprising then, that curriculum documents began to include a focus on transferable and ‘life’ skills associated with these demands, nor that language classes began to be seen as an appropriate forum for developing these skills.

Implications for Teachers

These developments had inevitable consequences for language teachers in the sector. To play a part in this new employability-driven agenda, they had to be prepared to abandon their ‘comfort zones’ in which they taught languages at a highly general level, based on a continuation of earlier school-level practices, and to see the ‘big picture’, which is painted largely by market forces.

It is now possible to describe the qualities needed in language teachers in the VET sector. They need to be culturally sensitive and aware, to be ready to cooperate and even team-teach with their subject-specialist colleagues, to design appropriate programmes and materials, and to incorporate elements of those

all-important transferable skills into their thinking and classroom practice. All this and more has been ‘designed into’ professional development courses, such as those offered in my own institution, for vocational language teachers.

Bridging the Gap between Education and Employment

Despite these signs of progress, there is still a gap between the worlds of education and employment. While in the academic streams of secondary education there is a strong argument for a broad-based curriculum without a focus on any job-related specialisms, this by definition cannot be the case in the vocational sector. There seems to be a range of steps that could be taken to help to bridge this gap. First of all there is still insufficient evidence of participation by language teachers in the dialogue between VET institutions and employers. In a great majority of cases the contacts are between the subject specialists - teachers of engineering, business studies, hospitality etc. - and their counterparts in the world of work. Involving language teachers in this dialogue would certainly lead to a clearer orientation of language teaching to vocational contexts and competences. The processes of syllabus and materials design for vocational language learning would also be greatly enhanced if detailed analyses of the needs of learners in each main vocational area could be carried out. Needs analysis is a standard practice in “Languages for Academic or Occupational Purposes”, and vocational language education, which sits somewhere between the two, could certainly benefit from this as a starting point. This kind of initiative would best be underpinned by focused in-service training courses for language teachers but also by the provision of opportunities within institutions for language teachers to work more closely together with subject teachers, through team-teaching and materials development. Investment in the promotion of teacher and student mobility and networking within Europe would almost certainly pay dividends, as would a move towards setting differentiated exit standards in languages for the different vocational discipline areas.

Conclusion

Language education in the VET sector has been undervalued and underfunded for far too long. This paper has set out some of the problems that underlie this neglect and some of the ways in which they might usefully be addressed.

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English for Agritourism and Rural Tourism

Ruxandra Popovici, Rod Bolitho, and Elena Dobo

Educational Reform Programme Set to Boost Romania's Rural Tourism Industry¹

In recent years the British Council Skills for Employability (SfE) team in Romania has established strong partnership links with national government agencies, the educational sector and employers which have led to their involvement in the current reform of the national countryside tourism curriculum. With Romania becoming a popular destination for international tourists and the growing business opportunities in this sector of the tourism industry, the purpose of our work has been to provide students with the right learning resources, knowledge and skills, and thus to enhance their chances for employability in the fields of agritourism and rural tourism.

UK Expertise - Local Application and Delivery

When the British Council team was invited to join in the efforts to update some of the existing units of competency in agritourism, their approach was to develop the existing system, rather than introduce a new one. We looked to the UK for experience and expertise, as it has an established curriculum which reflects industry requirements. Two UK consultants, Rod Bolitho and Stephan John were invited to join the Romanian team. However, we believed it was important that any change should come from within if it was to be embraced by practitioners and embedded into the curriculum.

The workshops with teachers and employers in Bucharest and several rural regions across Romania were very intense and inclusive, and participants visited guesthouses, farms and other establishments,

observed lessons, and talked to students and teachers. This hands-on experience and the discussions within the team and with the consultants led to the decision to separate out the subjects of agri- and rural tourism, which had previously been covered together. We gradually developed an informed understanding of both concepts. Agritourism is the act of visiting a working farm or any agricultural operation for the purpose of enjoyment, education or active involvement in the activities of the farm or operation. The choice of rural tourism on the other hand, comes from the urbanised people's attraction for rural lifestyle and local communities that preserve natural values and culture. Rural tourism makes a significant contribution to the development of employment in the non-agricultural sector for local inhabitants. This distinction is an important decision at the educational policy level and triggered, accordingly, a revision of competence units and the development of new materials reflecting the requirements of the sector and the learners. The units of competences have been accredited and are being promoted by the Ministry of Education. The new teaching materials aim to develop skills in countryside management, entrepreneurship, operations, marketing and research. These are available for download from the National Vocational Centre website at <http://www.tvet.ro/index.php/ro/proiecte-de-dezvoltare-a-invamantului-profesional-si-tehnic/502.html>

Enhancing the Project to Add Value

While working on the project, the team and the partner institutions identified the need for specialised English language units in the agri- and rural tourism curriculum to increase student employability in the global market and meet the needs of international tourists.

1. This section and that after it are adapted from the description of the Skills for Employability project in Romania on the British Council internal website.

Communication in a widely used foreign language is a recognised key competence in vocational education. As a result, a spin-off project started and a team of vocational sector English teachers working with the UK consultant started working on a set of specialised units and support materials to complement the revised tourism curricula.

English for Agritourism and Rural Tourism (EART)

EART is an innovative and timely initiative to support teachers and students of English in the field of countryside tourism. This is a good example of how large-scale projects, such as the British Council's "Skills for Employability" project can be adapted to local needs for stronger impact. The team began by working on identifying competences in English necessary for operating in the fields of Rural Tourism and Agritourism. This led to designing instructional materials based on the findings of the needs analysis. The workshops turned out to be powerful training sessions in the methodology of English for Specific Purposes and in materials writing. Commonly agreed decisions about the content and organisation of the units were taken during these sessions.

The team visited schools in the countryside, observed classes and engaged in discussion and exchange with teachers and students in agri- and rural tourism classes. They also visited rural guesthouses and interviewed owners. All this added authentic perspectives to the sample teaching units. The materials were also extensively piloted in the authors' own schools by colleagues as well as the authors themselves and feedback from them, and in some cases also from subject teachers, was taken into account in the revisions.

EART Teaching Materials

The units are designed as stand-alone student lessons accompanied by notes for the teacher. They can be selected by the teacher according to the topic they are planning to cover and are not intended to be taught in a particular sequence. They are also seen as prototypes or models which teachers can use as a basis for designing their own materials.

Principles underpinning EART materials

- The units are assigned generally to the areas of either rural tourism or agritourism, but there are some units that are considered to cover both domains;
- There is a clear link between the topic and sub-topics of each lesson and specific vocational competences as stated in the document created under the Skills for Employability - vocational education strand;
- Development of English language skills - speaking, reading, writing and listening and language aspects - grammar, vocabulary, language functions alongside the development of specific vocational competences;
- There is specific reference to the language level descriptors as stated in the CEFR;
- The skills of speaking, reading and writing are given prominence as it was felt they cater to a greater extent for the needs of those who will work in this field;
- Development of transferable skills;
- There is guidance for the teacher on classroom management and conducting the activities;
- Answers are provided for the activities in the lessons when needed;
- The authors identified the outcomes the students are expected to have achieved at the end of each lesson. This is important guidance for the teachers in planning the evaluation of the students' performance.

The EART set of materials can be accessed at:
<http://www.edu.ro/index.php/articles/c1096/>

Innovation and Inspiration – A Case-Study

The outcomes of the "Skills for Employability" project in Romania are highlighted as a case-study of innovation on the British Council global website. Project achievements include the strengthened links between education policy makers, practitioners and industry; the reformed curriculum that meets the needs of a changing economy and the improved quality and effectiveness of the teaching and learning of English in vocational classes. Winding up a project and knowing that the participants and the stakeholders now own the results and the processes is perhaps the best proof of success.



English for the World of Work: Features of an Innovative Project

Ruxandra Popovici and Rod Bolitho

Introduction

“English for the World of Work” (EWoW) is a project targeting upper secondary students in Romanian Vocational Schools. In the nineties, most of the British Council-funded projects and much of the attention at ministry level in Romania was focused on ELT in the ‘mainstream’ at secondary and tertiary level, and the vocational sector was something of a ‘poor relation’. Since the turn of the century, however, Vocational Education and Training (VET) in general has slowly but surely been given more attention in educational reforms across Europe.

The Vocational Education context in which EWoW was launched in 2004 was characterised, insofar as it is possible to generalise, by poor resources for English teaching, low motivation among learners and low priority given to English in the curriculum and on the timetable. Most teachers worked from ‘general English’ textbooks with little or no attempt to tailor the language input to future workplace needs. Students gave far less attention to English than to their main vocational subject classes, perceiving English as, at best, marginal and in the worst case as irrelevant to their future employment prospects. Professional development opportunities for teachers of English in vocational schools were limited. The inevitable consequence of this was that morale among learners and teachers of English was often fairly low.

The Project: Year One

There was no evidence anywhere in Vocational ELT that students’ workplace language needs had been analysed or even seriously investigated. Accordingly, phase one of the project, initiated in 17 schools across Romania, focused on identifying these needs. But the project

methodology was, from the outset, unconventional even though it is identifiably based on a ‘cascade’ model. A group of seven key trainers was identified, all with previous experience in British Council ELT work. These trainers were given a refresher course in basic research methods with special emphasis on needs analysis so that they could pass this training on to teachers in their allocated schools. (Each trainer was responsible for a small cluster of schools in a given region). This training was underpinned by a bank of training materials suitable for use in schools. The teachers were thus equipped to pass on their newly-acquired know-how to their students (mainly from the 11th and 12th grades) who were to be responsible for carrying out the research. This involved the drafting, administering and interpreting of questionnaires, interviews with employers and employees in the workplace, job ‘shadowing’ and reference to guidelines and written sources. In this way, students gradually put together a picture of their own job-related language needs. In many cases, subject teachers became interested in what was going on and were keen to make a contribution to the needs analysis process, more often than not by making their existing links to local employers available to the EWoW students. Principals, too, got behind the project, recognising it as innovative and with potential for raising the school’s profile locally and beyond. The range of the domains explored in the process of identifying English language needs is impressive - tourism, mechanical engineering, hotel and catering, computer studies, economics, building/construction, finance/accounting, sports, electronics, environmental studies, telecommunications, postal services and navigation and maritime studies.

At the end of the school year the students prepared and gave presentations of their findings to an invited audience of parents, employers, school staff and fellow students. Imagine the pride and enthusiasm that went

into these presentations, most of which were on Power Point and included graphs and other visuals, not to mention the boost they gave to the self-esteem of students. Students and teachers alike evaluated this first phase of the project very positively.

The Project: Year Two

Having established their basic job-related language needs and having grown in confidence and motivation, the students (and their teachers) were anxious to maintain the momentum going into the second year. To this end, the core group of trainers had already met together with the project manager and the UK consultant to devise a training pack on the basics of materials writing, focusing particularly on working with authentic texts of the type students are likely to encounter in the workplace. This seminar triggered the second cascade process, with trainers working regionally with teachers from the participating schools and the teachers then working collaboratively on materials development with their own students. Students were asked to take a hand in producing material that they would like to learn with and the results were outstanding. The act of finding and analysing texts, pictures and graphic data relevant to their diagnosed needs was a huge learning experience in itself. Once again, subject teachers took an interest, often checking the material for content accuracy, while the English teachers helped with the language. In some cases, 11th and 12th graders were even allowed and encouraged to teach their material to 9th and 10th graders – once again a huge confidence booster. As in year one, the second phase of the project culminated in public presentations in each of the regions, again witnessed and supported by interested members of the school staff and the local community. Formal and informal evaluations among students and teachers once again indicated very high levels of involvement and satisfaction with their experience of the project.

Resource packs and reports of the job-related English language needs as well as samples of the student-produced materials from the second phase of the

project are available at <http://www.britishcouncil.ro/en/programmes/education/schools/vocational-education-resources>

Innovations and Achievements within EWoW

EWoW has broken new ground in the context of Romanian education in a number of ways:

- It is truly learner-centred in spirit and in realisation;
- It develops learner autonomy, motivation and self-esteem in a very concrete way;
- There is a productive integration of language and content;
- It has shifted the balance in the relationship between teachers and students;
- It has helped to break down curriculum boundaries and strengthened the role and status of English teachers in the vocational school community;
- It has strengthened and lent additional purpose to the relationship between schools and local employers.

EWoW has involved students in processes such as planning and designing, working in interdisciplinary teams, self- and group management skills (e.g. taking a leadership role, decision-making, reaching agreement), applying knowledge to practice, data analysis and interpretation, self-analysis (accepting and giving critical feedback), plus using a range of important communication channels. These demands have helped vocational students develop their confidence together with a number of vital transferable skills:

- work and life skills
- language skills
- teamwork skills
- research skills
- task and materials design skills
- ICT skills
- presentation skills

Evidence of these achievements is seen in these extracts from student evaluation data (reproduced here with permission):

- “I’ve learnt research and improved team work skills.” (A.I.I.Cuza, Constanta)
- “I’ve now seen how people work in companies.” (S. Mehedinti, Codlea)
- “This experience will help me in my future life and profession.” (M. Cristea, Brasov)
- “I’ve learnt teamwork and that you must listen to others as well, I mean, be receptive to their ideas and last but not least I’ve learnt also about competition.” (A.D.Xenopol, Bucuresti)
- “I’ve learnt that it is natural to make mistakes during your presentation, but what matters is not to lose your cool.” (R. Radulet, Brasov)
- “I’ve seen how people are treated at their work place and what you need to get a job.” (M. Cristea, Brasov)

But there were benefits for teachers too, not all of them predictable as some of these extracts from teacher evaluation data show:

- “The students’ chances of getting a job increased significantly.” (Teacher, Brasov)
- “My students got so involved in the presentations that, for a while, it became the focus of their school activity. For me, too.” (Teacher, Constanta)
- “I learned how to encourage my students’ creativity.” (Teacher, Victoria)
- “I myself learned a lot in carrying out research.” (Teacher, Arad)
- “From the final presentations I learned to listen to what others say.” (Teacher, Brasov)
- “Working together strengthened the relationship with my students. We became friends and partners. It is a productive way of working.” (Teacher, Timisoara)

- “My own English language level improved.” (Teacher, Braila)
- “Initially the teachers-students relationship was awkward but later we ‘owned’ the work. The teachers and students had interchangeable roles.” (Teacher, Arad)

Conclusion

There is no doubt that EWoW has brought a breath of fresh air to English language teaching in the Romanian vocational sector. Through the project and through the website we wanted to draw attention to the extent of untapped potential in vocational school teachers and students, and to show the transferability of practice in this sector of education.



The Romanian Ministry of National Education's Perspective on Language Skills Acquisition and Evaluation in Vocational Education

Anca-Mariana Pegulescu

Part 1

Change in any educational system should bring together stakeholders, key issues, questions and answers as decisions and actions. The decision-making factors have to identify contextual drivers for change, to recognise, acknowledge and involve end-users.

In Romania, the whole system approach to educational change was envisaged through the teaching environment, language student teachers' pre-service training and language teachers' in-service education. At EU level the language learning and linguistic diversity have been considered very important objectives. Foreign language learning in general, and English in particular, have promoted mobility of students and people, special training in vocational education and employability. Cooperation and partnerships between organisations, having innovations as the main goal, became part of the educational reform. English as an international language allowed exchanges of good practices and peer learning activities.

The Romanian educational system encourages foreign language learning at an early age. A first foreign language (FFL) is studied between 6 and 9 and a second foreign language (SFL) between 10 and 15. The educational policy of the Romanian Ministry of National Education envisages for the years to come the possibility of starting to learn a second foreign language in the 3rd grade.

English language teachers as professionals of the Romanian pre-university educational system have had a leading role in building trust and engagement. They had

to meet the educational system actors' expectations. These actors were not only their peer colleagues but also students and parents, trainers and evaluators.

The new Law of Education no 1/ 2011 and recent projects have promoted learning not as a means to an end but as an end in itself.

Part 2

Partnerships have continued to support teachers' professional development as well as students' motivation to enlarge their linguistic competence. The Ministry of National Education has along the years played a leading role in these partnerships and at the same time it has monitored, together with its counterparts, all the important moments of these projects. "Global English" or "Skills of the 21st Century" are some examples of successful cooperation between the Ministry of Education and British Council Romania.

Progress in English language teaching and learning has been monitored by the Ministry of National Education on a regular basis, and has involved:

- sharing key findings in the language teaching process;
- making evaluation a learning process;
- strengthening the sense of team belonging and identity.

Students' curiosity and willingness to accept new ideas about learning and teaching implied:

- practical situations in relation to theory;
- identifying activities and interactions;
- understanding the relationship between a teacher's principles governing the classroom management and the chosen activities.

The national curriculum for English has three pillars - quality assurance, competence-based teaching and activities and student-centred teaching. Identifying and taking into account the connections among the three pillars led to:

- training for quality assurance;
- obtaining, maintaining and increasing the competence-based approach;
- building educational and professional students' competences.

The project and the partnership between the Ministry of National Education and British Council Romania having as a topic "Skills of the 21st Century", "Skills for Employability", had several objectives:

- training teachers for acquiring new language competencies specific to the domain of tourism and agro-tourism (EART);
- drawing a collaborative work plan, opened to individuality and personalization;
- encouraging professional goal statements, teaching philosophies and portfolio work.

The project involved both the National Centre for the Vocational and Technological Education (NCVET) and the General Department of Education and Life Long Learning, focusing on:

- professional development activities;
- teaching and learning materials for 30 lessons;
- sharing ESP training and materials.

Collaborative learning and co-operative development encouraged the 18 Romanian teachers of English from different counties who took part in this project to:

- construct specific knowledge, not only receive it;
- think and analyse, not only accumulate and memorize;
- understand and apply, not only report back;
- be active not passive.

The "English for Agri and Rural Tourism" (EART) project started in 2011 and finished in June 2013. It targeted B1-B2 as CEF linguistic competences levels. The course provided:

- a pragmatic analysis of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages;
- teaching materials for appraising and evaluating learning.

ICT within the project and used in teaching ESP was valuable for:

- organising workloads;
- creating and achieving lesson plans;
- communicating and exchanging ideas with colleagues.

The 18 teachers who have taken part in the EART project managed to maintain and improve their language activities, to develop an enquiring approach to language learning and teaching, to develop transferable learning skills.

Conclusions

The EART project proved that:

- targeted projects can bring a wealth of ideas and practices in ELT;
- ICT can be seen as a learning environment and can stimulate new thinking and experimentation;
- using ICT means enhancing teachers' professional development;
- the teacher is more a facilitator and a mentor than simply an information source;
- formative assessment can be considered as an incentive for a quality educational approach.



Key Competences: Basic Elements of the Curriculum in TVET

Claudia Calinescu

Development objectives, implementation and evaluation of curriculum in vocational education and training (VET) are: their development based on training standards; modular development; curriculum development in local development to adapt to relevant qualifications the local and regional labour market; development of key skills units that develop employability and interpersonal skills; developing teaching methodologies based on student-centred learning; developing teaching methodologies tailored to pupils with SEN; competency-based assessment and certification.

Key skills units are compulsory components of each full qualification offered by technical and vocational education. These have a clear relationship to the “Key Competences for Lifelong Learning: A European Reference Framework”, and support students to develop those transferable key skills to help them with social integration and the successful integration into the labour market. Key skills units are placed in the global supply of the TVET curriculum and provide a basis for lifelong learning.

Key skills units are the same for all TVET qualifications at the same level, regardless of the training. In the training process for acquiring key skills a combined approach was chosen:

- some key skills units are aggregated units of general technical skills or specialised units of technical skills;
- other key skills units are offered separately as distinct modules or integrated general education disciplines. (For example communication in a modern language).

The National Centre for TVET Development (a specialised body under the Ministry of National Education) implemented the project CRIPT - Curriculum Revised for TVET - financed by the European Social Fund - Human Resources Development 2007 – 2013. The overall objective of the project was to improve the curriculum offer within the national system of education and initial training based on evidence provided by comparative analysis of existing supply needs identified in national and European contexts.

Redesigning the existing TVET curriculum focuses on:

- learning outcomes;
- the development and diversification of the eight domains of key competences that determine the profile of the pupil.

Segovia, Spain,
18-20 November 2013

British Council Regional
Policy Dialogue 2:

The Role of English in Higher Education: Issues, Policy and Practice



The second section of this volume includes two plenary talks from the Regional Policy Dialogue event on the role of English in higher education and a summary of the outcomes of the working groups through which key issues relevant to this theme were discussed. In the first paper John Knagg provides a critical analysis of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) and discusses three fallacies which tend to influence debates about it. His conclusion is that caution is required regarding EMI and that further research is needed about current practices and perceptions as the basis of informed policy-making. Ernesto Macaro's paper examines the various meanings which the term EMI can assume and relates this term to others (e.g. CLIL, ESP) which describe the relationship between the subject being learned and the language used to learn it. He also contrasts fixed and evolutionary views of EMI, arguing for the latter and describing some recent

research which is beginning to highlight EMI practices and the perceptions of teachers in a range of HE contexts globally. Again, one clear conclusion here is that much further research of this kind is needed. Finally, the conclusions of the working groups from this event provide a summary of current questions and concerns about the role of EMI in European HE. The generally organic (rather than policy-driven) nature of current developments in EMI is one issue that is highlighted here, and although this is not seen as a negative phenomenon, the need for broader guidelines and frameworks which can support further developments is also noted. The importance of contextually-sensitive approaches to EMI is also stressed. Graham Wilkie from the European Commission also spoke at this event and the basis of his talk was the report on European higher education in the world available at <http://tinyurl.com/pwbmchj>.





EMI within a Global Context – Towards a British Council Perspective

John Knagg



Introduction: The British Council, English and EMI.

The charitable objectives and core mission of The British Council are laid down in its Royal Charter. One explicit objective is to develop a wider knowledge of the English language. Another is to promote the advancement of education. The global social context in which we develop a wider knowledge of English has changed dramatically in the 80 years since the British Council was founded. In the 1930s, English, while in widespread use around the world, was by no means the global lingua franca that it has become. Belonging to the traditional English-speaking countries, English was on a much more equal footing globally with other European languages like French and German. It was in part a symbol in a wider ideological battle in Europe which culminated in the Second World War. When the British Council started teaching English in those early years in countries such as Egypt and Portugal, the language was seen in quite different terms from today – certainly with strong socio-political connotations, but not as the basic skill necessary for functioning internationally, sometimes nationally, in a wide range of domains, which it has now become. While the ideological battles involving the English language have changed since the 1930s, they have by no means disappeared.

It can be argued that English no longer needs to be promoted. It has acquired a force of its own across the world, with over one billion people learning English and over two billion either learning or knowing the language to some extent. I cannot think of a national education system which does not teach English at secondary school level, and national education systems have

moved to teaching English at primary level in droves over the last two decades.

It is in this context that we see a surge of interest and activity in the area of English-medium instruction (EMI) around the world. To be clear, I am referring to the use of the English language in education systems at all levels (early years, primary, secondary, tertiary, adult) to teach and learn other subjects such as mathematics, science and history in a context where the majority of learners (and teachers) are not first-language English speakers. I will not attempt a more sophisticated definition here. What I am clearly not talking about when I refer to EMI is the traditional teaching of English, especially English as a foreign language, as a subject on the school or university timetable. While there is some blurring of the boundaries between EMI and 'English as a subject', the distinction is clear in most contexts, yet the discourse and debate around EMI is littered with confusion between these two concepts. While seemingly easy to distinguish the two (EMI and 'English as a subject'), they surprisingly often confuse educational debates, especially when those debates take on a political element and are played out in the media, as we can see in various contexts recently.

This particular paper is written following a conference on one particular element of the EMI wave, namely the growth in EMI in European universities in non-English speaking countries. It might seem natural to think that the British Council, with its well-known objective of developing a wider knowledge of English, would be almost unconditionally in favour of EMI. I will argue that this is in fact far from being a sensible position, and is not the position that we should take or do take.

Three Fallacies in EMI

To move towards our position on EMI, I will first address three issues, which complicate or cloud the debate. I will present each issue in the form of a fallacy or perhaps a misunderstanding of what EMI is – with a nod to Phillipson’s use of fallacies in building his Linguistic Imperialism hypotheses (Phillipson, 1992).

The Monolithic Fallacy

The first fallacy is that EMI is monolithic - there is just one type. This fallacy is generated by the (imagined) individual who sees, researches, understands one particular EMI context, and then transfers that context to other contexts inappropriately. It is difficult to adopt a generic policy approach to EMI without considering the specific situation. Consider the widely differing characteristics of the following EMI contexts to appreciate a flavour of the diversity of EMI.

- A UK university campus in Malaysia - a course led by a British academic;
- A university course in Scandinavia. Local students have selected the EMI track;
- Another university in Scandinavia – the medium of instruction changes to English due to the presence of foreign exchange students;
- A university in “anglophone” Africa, or in India;
- A rural primary school in Africa - children share a common language;
- A secondary school in an African city - children have many language backgrounds;
- A course for refugees from a middle-eastern country in UK;
- A well-resourced public school in Spain – curriculum is part EMI, part Spanish.

The On-Off Fallacy

The second fallacy is that education is either EMI or not-EMI, that EMI is an on-off switch, a black and white concept. This fallacy is perpetuated in questions along the lines of “Has (that institution) gone EMI

yet?”. EMI is not even a single continuum but more likely a number of continua. At institutional level, some faculties, departments within faculties, courses within departments, and modules within courses may contain some elements of EMI. At course level, some (often not all) elements of a course might be wholly or partially EMI, and those elements might be on an optional or compulsory basis for the learner. By elements here I mean, for example, the spoken interaction in lectures, tutorials, and study groups, the reading list, acceptable language of written assignments, and the language of examination and assessment (oral and written). The interplay between different levels and elements of EMI, along with issues of optionality and obligation, lead us to see EMI as a much more nuanced concept.

The ‘Policy is Practice’ Fallacy

The third fallacy is that EMI policy in a given context is the same as EMI practice in that context. We notice a tendency to assume that if a national or institutional authority states that a certain context is EMI in policy statements and publicity material, then that is actually the case. This equation of policy and practice is far from reality. A senior educationalist’s personal story to me exemplifies this. Working in a prestigious university in a South Asian city, he walked the corridors, listening to teaching of many subjects going on. The language of the lecturers and students had one thing in common – they were all speaking the dominant local language, which is universally spoken and understood by the university community. He recommended to the university’s senior management that there should be a university language policy. The response of the university managers was that there indeed was a clear university language policy – this was an EMI situation and the teaching and learning in class should take place and indeed did take place in English. There are two elements to the mismatch here. Firstly the practice was not at all in line with the policy. Secondly the policy-makers had not recognised that the practice was not in line with the policy, though it was a simple issue to verify that it was not. Pride in the university’s EMI policy seems comparable to Andersen’s fairytale of “The Emperor’s New Clothes”. The books in the university library were indeed predominantly in English. Around the world, and across educational sectors, we

see examples of top-down imposed EMI policies leading to a variety of practices as teachers struggle to balance the requirement to implement EMI with their natural drive to give learners the best educational outcomes, and often with their own linguistic capabilities. The most obvious manifestation of this is the practice of teacher and learner code-switching (or translanguaging) in which more than one language is used in interactions in an effort to efficiently impart skills, knowledge and attitudes. It seems clear that such classroom code-switching, often viewed negatively, can be a powerful educational technique when properly used.

In developing a position on EMI then, we need to be looking at a world of EMI in which there are many different practices in different contexts, with a complex situation within each of those contexts, where what is actually happening may well be quite different from what we are told is happening.

The Case of HE in Europe, and Lessons from Elsewhere.

I now turn to the particular phenomenon of the dramatic increase in EMI in Higher Education in Europe and Asia over the last decade or so, with an apparent significant acceleration in the last two to three years. Coleman wrote in 2006 of the drivers for the growth in EMI already discerned – “a rainbow of motives ranges from the ethical and pedagogical through the pragmatic to the commercial. Foreign language learning in itself is NOT the reason why institutions adopt English medium teaching”. Noticeable in this quote is the correct assumption that it is institutions rather than higher level systems that are making the policy decisions in the direction of EMI. In general terms it would appear true and uncontroversial to say that the move to EMI in this sector is largely as a result of two factors. These are firstly the increasing dominance of English as a global and European lingua franca in an ever larger number of domains, and secondly the growth in mobility, especially student and staff mobility in Higher Education. In Europe this is commonly largely attributed to the standardisation of European HE systems through the Bologna process. EMI is then often seen by institutions as a benefit both to local students who might travel outwards and to

students from foreign-language backgrounds who might travel inwards.

Stakeholders in the EMI debate will presumably have a common aim of maximising learning outcomes in any given context. It would seem uncontroversial to state that learners will learn better if they have a good command of the language of instruction (whether referring to speaking, listening, reading or writing skills) and many of us with advanced level skills in foreign languages are still aware that we can learn more effectively and efficiently through the use of a first language. Here clearly lies the biggest risk in EMI. Inappropriate introduction can lead to diminished educational outcomes if either learners or teachers do not have a sufficiently advanced command of English.

A good deal of research has taken place in the area of the impact of learning in a second language, particularly in the African EMI context at primary level. As early as 1953, UNESCO made the statement, “On educational grounds we recommend that the use of the mother tongue be extended to as late a stage in education as possible” (UNESCO Vernacular Languages in Education 1953). A separate issue is the required level of English of teachers. Haryanto (2013) shows an example at school level in Indonesia, “teachers could not fully use English as medium of instruction because they may not be proficient in the language.”

The debate in EMI often revolves around the relative rights of stakeholders. These stakeholders with rights obviously include the learners (whose rights might conflict with each other, for example the case of a local and an exchange student), the teachers, the local language community more widely, the university's right to make policies in support of its underlying mission, and indeed the right of a national government to seek economically competitive education policies and to legislate to protect one or more national languages. We should consider those who wish to retain the right to interact within their domains in languages that are not English, as well as those who strive to master the English needed to operate in the many domains that require it. If access to education is in any sense a right, and that includes access to an education of quality, then access in a language that is understood by the learner must be

fundamental. This language rights issue is not limited to education, but applies to other domains such as access to health services and to public information.

The issue of conflicting rights in an EMI situation led to a court case in Italy in 2013, which the language rights lawyer Rosemary Salomone addresses:

“In zeroing in on the language question, the court opened the discussion to the nature of language learning, the role of language in the university classroom and the potential effect on instructional quality. Mere proficiency in a language, the court noted, does not necessarily imply competency to teach effectively in the language. Teaching in a university calls for the ability to formulate and explain complex concepts at a high level of abstraction. While many professors may publish in English, especially in the sciences, and may be familiar with the technical terms of their disciplines, they are not necessarily equipped to convey fluid thoughts in an academic lecture or in an unscripted class discussion. Of course, that does not mean that such skills cannot be acquired with time, practice and exposure.”

(The rise of English in academe – A cautionary tale. Rosemary Salomone, University World News, 20 July 2013)

Moving from social to the linguistic issues, we should also be aware that an increase in EMI is certain to have an effect on accepted forms of English usage as the population of judges of such acceptability is widened substantially beyond the traditional group of native-speaker knowers, to a much wider group of non-native speaking teachers of content subjects. Those teachers, unconstrained by native-speaker notions of correctness, will accept different ways of expressing in English. The new forms will become codified and widely accepted. This is a natural process of language evolution. English, like other languages, does have the capacity for substantial simplification without significant loss of meaning.

Towards a British Council Perspective

It is against this background that we seek to find a reasonable starting position on this still emerging phenomenon in all its complexity. My developing credo on EMI for the 2013 Segovia EMI conference contains the following points:

- EMI is neither a positive nor a negative move in itself;
- As an agency active in international education and English, British Council will support organisations and individuals to develop and implement appropriate policies in EMI;
- EMI should improve or maintain learning outcomes;
- Any EMI policy should take account of the rights and needs of all stakeholders;
- EMI policy should be explicit in terms of learner and teacher choices in each element;
- A move towards EMI will probably require extra support for teachers;
- EMI requires learners and students with high English proficiency;
- A move towards EMI requires careful preparation of learners;
- EMI will change standards of acceptability in English.

Perhaps time will tell whether EMI is an inevitable consequence of internationalisation whose benefits outweigh some undoubted costs. Meanwhile we should strive to make sensible decisions in individual contexts based on sound educational principles. While the current paper is a personal view, I would say that the British Council position on EMI in general is by no means as clear as it is on many high-level issues. I cannot think of any colleagues who would disagree with a positive answer to the following questions:

Do we believe in the right of everyone to access high-quality education? Yes.

Do we believe that language rights form an important subset of human rights? Yes.

Do we believe in the benefits of knowing more than one language and of multilingualism in general? Yes.

In the more specific case of EMI, things are not so clear-cut. We can see that EMI has the potential for damage as well as undoubtedly for benefit. We certainly believe that this is an under-researched issue that needs more descriptive work on what is actually happening and

the perceptions of learners and teachers, as well as more analytical work on the effect of EMI on learning outcomes and the distillation and dissemination of best EMI practice.

Do we believe in English-medium instruction? Sometimes.

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Defining and Researching English Medium of Instruction: The Need for Clear Thinking and a Clear Research Agenda

Ernesto Macaro



What is “English Medium Instruction” (EMI) and in what way is it different from other terms which are used to describe a relationship between a subject being learned and the language through which it is learned? These are crucial questions which I believe underpin any discussion about the value of EMI and need to be considered in any research into EMI.

We therefore can begin by asking, is the notion and practice of EMI fixed or is it fluid? If it is fixed, then who has fixed it? If it is fluid, who is involved in shaping the course of its trajectory?

If we take the view of EMI as fixed notion and practice then we can go about comparing it to other related notions and practices. For example we could place it somewhere on a continuum which would be based on the educational aims of the teacher and the learners. (See Figure 1) So at one end of that continuum we could place “General English” or “English Language Teaching” (ELT). This is where the subject being learned is the English language itself, the orientation of that subject is communication using the four skills, and its content is vocabulary, morphology, syntax and so on. Of course there is still a debate about whether ELT should be taught through the medium of English but that does not concern us here today.

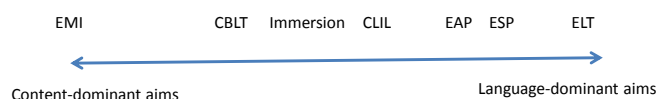
At the other end of the continuum we could put EMI. We could say that EMI’s overarching aim is to promote knowledge and understanding of an academic subject such as physics or economics, and that historical and

geopolitical factors have determined that such a subject (in non-Anglophone countries) should be taught through the medium of English rather than in the majority language of the country in which the programme is taking place.

“Content and Language Integrated Learning” (CLIL), “Content- based language teaching” (CBLT) and “Immersion”, we could argue, should go somewhere in the middle of the continuum because they aim to promote both knowledge and understanding of a subject and improved language skills. Indeed CLIL has this dual aim embedded in its title.

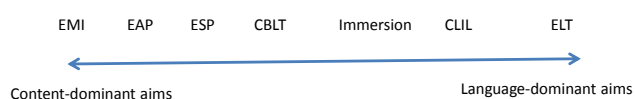
Then we have “English for Special Purposes” (ESP) and “English for Academic Purposes” (EAP). Where to place these on the continuum? Well, on the one hand, as in Figure 1a, we can posit that the main aim of any ESP or EAP course is to improve the students’ mastery of the English language but focusing on a very specific register and lexical set. Therefore we would place it on the language-dominant aim of the continuum. On the other hand we could argue, as in Figure 1b, that the aims of these courses are so geared to the acquisition of subject content or the ability to operate in such a specific ‘language use’ situation, that they should be placed nearer the content-dominant aim of the continuum. We need not take this further for now, but I mention it just to raise the question in our minds that fixing educational notions and practices can be problematic.

Figure 1a. The comparasion approach



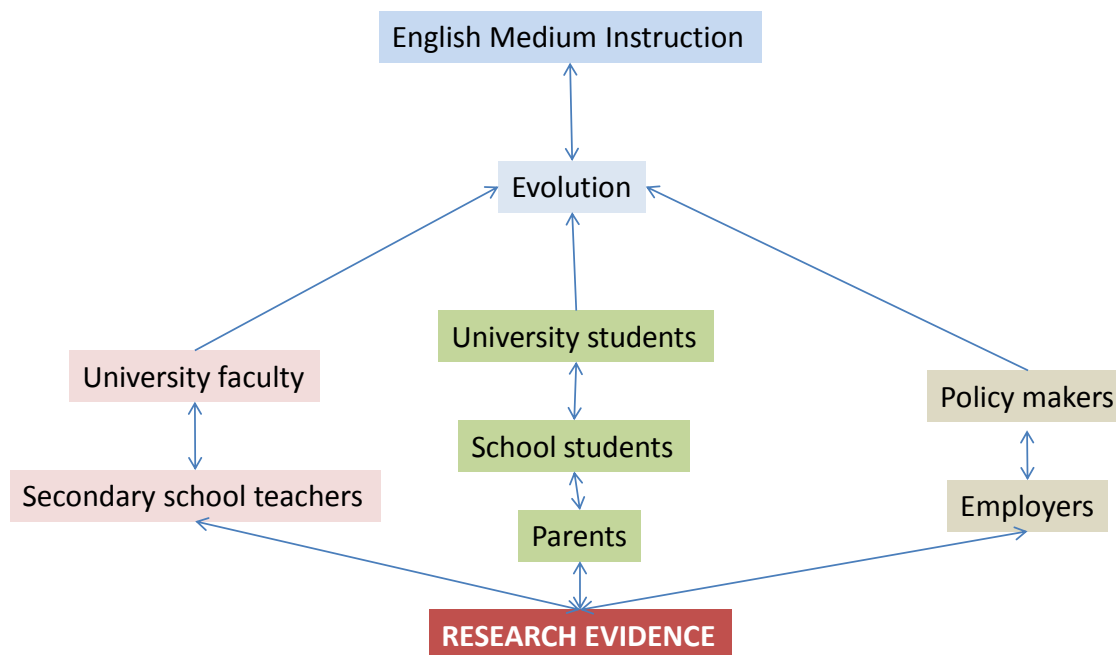
Another way to start thinking about and defining EMI is to say that it is in a state of fluidity and that over time it will go through a process of evolution. That process of evolution, in my view, should be research evidence-informed. The research should be gathered from groups of stakeholders and end-users of EMI.

Figure 1b. The comparasion approach



The first group of these is university faculty and secondary school teachers (see Figure 2). Clearly being able to adopt EMI in tertiary education will have a knock-on effect on how and why English is taught in secondary education. Whilst I don't believe that any individual phase of education should be beholden to the phase further up, there nonetheless needs to be a dialogue between them.

Figure 2. End-user driven approach



The second group of stakeholders and end-users of EMI are students (both secondary and tertiary) and parents. It seems to me that their attitudes towards, and understandings of the notion and practice of EMI need to be explored and taken into account. What are their views of the costs and benefits of an EMI programme approach?

The third group is made up of policymakers and employers. We often hear from policymakers that language skills are essential for the workplace, but the evidence that languages are then used by all employees is less strong and so a discussion needs to be had about whether all students should be learning academic subjects through EMI and, indeed, which subjects.

I am of course coming down on the side of the “evolutionary approach” to EMI rather than the fixed notion and definition of what it is, and I do so primarily because of what motivation theory tells us. Goals which are arrived at by consensus are pursued with much greater motivation than goals which are imposed on us. So let us think briefly of what might be the goals or the aims of adopting EMI. The following are aims which could be described as having potential benefits to the students of the country adopting the EMI programme:

- To facilitate learning of academic subjects by home students. The argument could be that much academic content is written in English and therefore students will find it easier if the teaching is done through English;
- A way of ensuring that home students can compete in a world market by enhancing their global employability in specific areas;
- To improve the English language capacity of the home country in general;
- EMI could be seen as a more cost-effective way of doing this than ELT/EFL;
- EMI as a more authentic way to learn a language. The ELT/EFL community has been arguing for decades

about the nature of authenticity in language learning. In being able to understand an academic lesson we have an indisputable authenticity – or so the argument might go.

The following could be described as being about bringing benefits to the institution adopting the EMI programme:

- To internationalise universities. By offering courses through the medium of English the institution will attract students from all over the world thereby bringing both revenue and prestige to it;
- A way of forcing change in Higher Education pedagogy. If it can be demonstrated that EMI requires (among other things) much greater levels of interactivity, EMI will bring about a desirable change in the way that programmes are taught.

A different and more general aim might be a new multilingual and multicultural tool for developing intercultural communication. In other words EMI might be adopted because by bringing different languages and cultures together, a greater ideal might be achieved perhaps in terms of world peace and understanding.

All the above could be perfectly laudable aims, but are they shared by all the participants in the process? Research is clearly needed so that major mistakes are not committed. So what kind of research questions might we want to ask? Here are just some of the questions that we are beginning to investigate at Oxford:

- What is the current and predicted uptake of EMI globally?
- What are the different forms of EMI currently being developed?
- Is the learning of academic subjects improved by EMI? If so by which groups of students?
- What programmes related to EMI are being introduced in Initial Teacher Education, Professional Development and is EMI reflected in Materials Development?

This is research evidence which needs to be established, the current global landscape if you like, so that we do not jump to conclusions about what “everyone else is doing” and making assumptions that “what they are doing is right and at the right time”. The next set of research questions concerns how to deliver quality on EMI courses:

- What levels of English competence enable EMI teachers to provide quality instruction?
- What are the implications for secondary education resulting from EMI in tertiary education?
- To what extent do language assessment systems need to change (for teachers and students)?
- What are the most sustainable mechanisms of teacher education and development beyond the immediate period of engagement on a course?

And then there are a set of research questions which drill deeply inside the pedagogy of the classroom or lecture theatre:

- How does classroom interaction change as the medium of instruction changes?
- What are the psycholinguistic representations in the mental lexicon of abstract concepts encountered in academic subjects through EMI?
- Do abstract concepts result in restructuring of the bilingual lexicon?
- What strategies are used by learners in EMI classrooms in oral and written comprehension tasks?
- What are the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic effects on students’ L1 resulting from EMI used in various phases of education?

I think these questions need to be asked and the research carried out as EMI programmes are being adopted. Of course we cannot stop the “phenomenon of EMI”, and I would not necessarily want to, but I think some measure of reflection is needed and the pace of introduction needs to be thought about.

With regard to the “landscape” in Europe we do have some tentative initial research evidence. A survey

carried out by Rima Dapous and Anne Wiseman of the British Council in eight European countries suggests that: some two thirds of teachers felt there was no requirement to have a certain level of English competence/qualification to teach EMI; that, on the other hand, the vast majority believed there was a need to improve their English but only half of the institutions surveyed were offering any help with improving their English; that a very clear majority favoured a discipline-specific English-upgrade course; that more than half of respondents wanted accreditation, preferably from a UK institution.

With regard to drilling deep into the pedagogy of the classroom or lecture theatre, some research has also already been carried out, but before outlining some of this research we should consider what is involved in the interaction of an EMI classroom. In my view there is not a huge difference in what is involved compared to the interaction in a ELT/EFL classroom, except to say that in an EMI classroom the interaction is almost exclusively message-oriented, rather than the medium-oriented interaction (i.e. about the language) which quite often characterises the ELT/EFL classroom. The EMI teacher is in the business of putting across ideas and concepts and they do this by trying to explain these through language. Thus all the theories and constructs that pertain to communicative ELT also pertain to EMI: input modification, modified interaction, pushed output, teacher feedback, learner feedback/confirmation of understanding, codeswitching, etc. There are some differences with ELT but essentially the task of putting across meaning is the same.

One of the differences is that in the EMI classroom we have three registers for the learner (and the teacher) to have to contend with. There is the technical language which is specific to that discipline (“electrode”, “voltage”, “zinc sulphate”). There is the more general academic vocabulary and “ways of talking” (“factual recall”, “describe”, “calculate”, “solution”, [plus] “discourse markers” and “conventions”). Then there is what we might call the “vernacular” or “everyday colloquial English” (just some stuff; you stick it in something; you end up with). It is likely that the technical language will not cause too many problems; it may be easily

memorised and subsequently recalled. The general academic vocabulary may pose difficulties. Consider the word “solution” as used in chemistry and how its meaning differs from “solution” used in mathematics and “solution” used in international politics. This difficulty posed by the different “senses” of “solution” is compounded by the respective equivalents in the learners’ first language. For example each sense of “solution” in English is rendered in Chinese by a different set of morphemes/characters. Then there is the difficulty encountered by students with vernacular/ colloquial English, with its metaphors, its collocations and its phrasal verbs.

EMI teachers will need to undertake their explanations of concepts using many linguistic resources among which we could list: Definition, Paraphrase, Circumlocution, Exposition, Contextualization, Synonym/ Antonym and Hierarchical Exemplification. This will need considerable amounts of teacher professional development and language update in some cases.

One piece of research that I have been involved in which would suggest this need for professional development was in collaboration with Dr Yuen Yi Lo now at the University of Hong Kong (Lo and Macaro, 2012). We found that in those academic subjects that switched to EMI at grade 10 (from Cantonese in Grade 9) the proportion of teacher talk increased significantly while the percentage of student talk decreased. The mean length of teacher turns rose significantly. The “richness” of student responses deteriorated and basically lessons became less interactive and more in the “transmission mode”.

Another interesting study carried out by Tatsiana Senina at the University of Oxford (Master’s Dissertation) used 50 public lectures given by both native speakers of English and non-native speakers. What Tatsiana found was that non-native speakers used far fewer discourse markers, referential questions, display questions, survey questions, checkpoint questions, and rarely had an “informal question time” for the audience. She also found in non-native speaker lectures less use of the pronoun “we” (which brings the audience into a discussion frame) and fewer opportunities for the members of the



audience to request clarification. All these aspects of classroom/lecture room discourse, previous research suggests, contribute to interactivity and hence to better comprehension. What this study implies is that non-native speaker teachers may need these kinds of linguistic resources in order to communicate more effectively and that merely relying on reducing the complexity or lexical range of one’s language is not going to be enough.

One issue that will remain on the research agenda for EMI is what the role of the first language (the L1) is in delivering subject content. Of course the easy answer is to say “ban the L1 and, in any case, with mixed L1 classes the lingua franca has to be English and English only”. However in banning the L1, I would argue, we may be depriving teachers and learners of a very important tool in their toolbox. And if there are mixed L1 classes, research may be able to show creative ways of using some L1 to help everyone understand. Let us

not forget that the goal of language learning (and some would argue of EMI) is to create bilinguals, not English monolinguals. So there does need to be a principled exploration of the role of the L1 in the EMI classroom.

I would now like to do a bit more shameless publicity for the research that we are doing at Oxford on EMI. Firstly, we have embarked, in collaboration with John Knagg from the British Council, on a 60-country survey of the extent to which EMI is being introduced globally, and in all phases of education. We want to know who is setting the policy, what the policy is and the extent to which there is adequate preparation for its introduction. We will follow this up with a phase 2 involving more in-depth analysis of a smaller number of countries.

We have also begun to carry out a series of semi-structured interviews in universities in Europe where EMI is being introduced. We have so far 20 interviews with academic subject teachers from Austria, Italy, and Poland. We would like to collect many more of these interviews. So I will end my talk by letting others do the talking. Here are some of the things that the teachers said in response to a question about why we might have EMI in the first place and what they might be trying to achieve by teaching in English:

- To be more international...not only lecturer but also students (A)
- Give the same opportunity to my students as I had (she studied abroad) (A)
- We're linguistically an isolated country. I'm used to delivering talks to everybody who knows the subject but in a classroom it's very different, especially here because Italians are really, really bad with languages. ..So I wanted to prove myself but it's been quite tiring (I)
- I think there is an advantage teaching science in English because it's the official language (I)
- I think our country is interesting for them [foreign students], I ask them this question, they say because of the position of 'XXXX' University which is the best in Poland, but also because they would like to travel around Europe (P).

We asked whether teaching through English was a stated policy of their university:

-there are not enough courses taught in English. In my case we do have incoming students but they end up being taught individually as the main course is taught in German (A)
- (We're) trying to convince the rector/principal to offer more courses in English, we have to pull the wagon. There is a strategy paper, internationalisation is a big goal and EMI is part of that (A)
- There isn't a comprehensive policy - more a general trend, not set in stone. It's a new thing (I)
- One opinion is not to use Italian at all, so it becomes quite complex for all the liberal professions that should use Italian, for example medical doctor (I)
- There is. The policy is exchange of students Erasmus, Erasmus mundus (P).

We asked whether they thought that the learning of academic content would be affected:

- I have noticed that if I teach in English I give them half of what I give them in Polish because I go slowly. I don't know if it's worse, perhaps it's even better because I throw away things perhaps that are not so important. It's even better to say less but to explain more (P)
- I'm afraid so, from the point of view of the teacher I'm not able to tell them every single detail as I run out of words, it takes us longer to teach to understand (A)
- in Maths you are saved by the formula, and the formula is true or false in any language (I)
- not in science. It's probably easier because the number of words you have to use in English is lower (I).

We asked whether students' English would improve through the introduction of EMI:

- Errr I don't think so, I'm not going to improve (their) English. I'm going to transfer basic knowledge, try to communicate in a correct way but I'm not going to correct or teach them English!(P)
- Yes because they are forced to communicate with me in English and forced to think in English (P)
- For sure yes, they will be exposed to more input, relevant input (I)
- I hope so, when I do a written exam, and it's sometimes very difficult to correct these tests because I'm not going to correct the English this is not my duty (I)
- I'm not interested in their English, I'm interested in their comprehension of micro-biogenetics (I)
- Probably not the level of spoken English, but give them more confidence, understand more when reading (A).

We asked what level of English the teacher needs to teach in EMI:

- it's not necessary that the teacher needs a higher level than the students (A)
- Good question.. I don't know actually...at least you have to be able to understand the questions of the students (A)
- I think for technical disciplines we don't need very deep knowledge of the language. The vocabulary is 400 or 500 words (I)
- teachers should have quite an advanced level, in the way that they're not limited when they have to speak and to make things understandable to the students (I)
- high intermediate if it exists and must be fluent in this specific subject language and be able to communicate with students asking questions and answering (P).

We asked what level of English students need before they do EMI courses:

- Intermediate just to communicate. They don't need to use special terms, I can teach them (P)
- The university can support ... I know there are English courses for the students but I think it's up to them (P)
- University-policy-wise, A2. I think it's not enough they should be B1 at least (A)
- I think they have to be able to listen ... to follow me to understand my words and my thoughts . They don't have to be very good in written English just for following my course (A)
- There is a wide variety. My class was 90% Italian students and class with the exception of 2 or 3 students the level was very low but it was even lower for foreign students...from Africa and their language was an African language and French so in English they didn't feel at ease at all (I).

And we asked how the students get to the level of English before they come to university:

- 9 years English at school and if you have good teachers it should be sufficient (A)
- We try to get them to the right level by giving them grammar classes in the first semester to prepare them for the official course in the 2nd semester (I)
- There isn't a test so the preparation is very different. In my experience European students are a bit equal, different for Indian or Arab students (P)

Finally, we asked respondents where they think EMI will be in 10 years' time:

- Other universities hurry to copy us, but I don't really know what is the objective of this hurry (P)

- In Italy? I doubt it will be much more diffused. There are still so many of my peers who do not speak English. They will never allow it to spread much more than this (I)
- I assume that in 10 years perhaps 50% of the faculties will also have English programmes. It will always be the case that in some disciplines people will say English is not necessary (A)
- It will get more for sure, more in technical studies where they are more used to it, rather than in health care, it's not the area where people are using English (A).

I think these testimonies offer plenty of scope for research.



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Conclusions from the Working Groups

Compiled by Mark Levy

- EMI is increasingly seen as an opportunity rather than a threat even by governments which are traditionally more hostile. Many governments are now seeing marketing potential for their countries in EMI.
- HE institutions are not looking for an EMI policy at EU or national level, but there is a need for guidelines and/or agreed principles to facilitate implementation and help assure quality.
- There is a need for a national foreign language strategy which links primary, secondary & tertiary education and the transition between them. Language level expectations at HE need to reflect learning and achievement in secondary education.
- In the absence of a national policy, or even a clear internal strategy/policy, EMI appears to be developing organically. This is not necessarily a bad thing, but
- Universities need a clear language strategy which encompasses the offer for both international students and “home” students.
- Successful EMI needs embedding in the institutions at all levels. This includes interdepartmental support and resourcing.
- Public and private institutions present very different scenarios.
- There were some calls for collaboration at a local/ regional/national/international level to pool, for example, resources, training, best practice (Setting up ‘academic regions’?).
- EMI is an excellent opportunity to focus on pedagogy and improve the quality of teaching (vs. the quality of research).
- An “intercultural awareness” of different learning and teaching styles/cultures is important.
- Current international assessment tests aren’t always useful tools for EMI.
- There should be no differentiation in the assessment of EMI and non-EMI courses. This should always be based on agreed learning outcomes.
- All agree that assessment of the English language level of university teachers/lecturers is important, but how this is done, and whether this is done at all, varies widely.
- Is there the danger that students with a higher level of English might be assessed differently because expectations of them are greater?
- Is there a risk of a “shared misunderstanding” between teacher and students because of common low English levels?
- There is agreement that there is often a considerable extra workload around EMI (e.g. extra administration, preparation, marking, etc.) and therefore a question of how this might be compensated / how EMI teachers might be rewarded / incentives for EMI teachers.
- Is EMI (inevitably) elitist? What are the selection criteria? (The most motivated students? The most mobile students?)
- What is the definition of the internationalisation of HE? Is there a shared definition or a common understanding?

Barcelona, Spain,
2-4 December 2013

British Council Regional
Policy Dialogue 3:

Learning and Teaching English in the Digital Age: Policy and Practice in Europe



This section of the volume presents seven papers from the British Council Regional Policy Dialogue event on the theme of learning and teaching English in the digital age. Martin Peacock analyses four key factors that are driving developments in on-line learning and discusses their implications for the design of on-line materials for learning English. Kirsten Panton then provides a brief introduction to the “New Pedagogies for Deep Learning” project which is seeking to involve 1000 schools from around the world in the development, use, evaluation and sharing of innovative technology-enabled approaches to teaching and learning. In responding to some key questions about on-line learning, Neus Lorenzo provides several examples of the work that is taking place in Catalonia in relation to three themes: private funding for state education, blended learning and its implications for the role of the teacher, and the flipped classroom. In her paper, Agnes Kukulska-Hulme explores how mobile devices can support lifelong

learning and the implications this has for the kinds of support and opportunities that students and their teachers require. İşıl Boy reflects on some limitations in the manner in which new technologies are currently being used in schools and suggests a model for integrating mobile technologies into educational settings. Nicky Hockly then outlines a broadened conception of what digital literacy is, stressing four areas (language, information, connections and (re)design) in which digital sub-skills, or *literacies*, can be developed. The final paper in this collection, by Steven Higgins, reviews historical trends in the adoption of technology in education and outlines what research says about the impact of technology on student achievement. One clear message here, and one that recurs in other papers from this Policy Dialogue event, is that teachers – their skills, knowledge, and judgements – play a central role in determining the extent to which technology enhances learning, rather than technology in itself.





Is it an English Course or an App? The Transformation of Online Learning

Martin Peacock



This presentation describes a project at the British Council in London to review existing online learning materials against the expectations of modern e-learning - derived in part by looking at competitor products on the market, but also by examining current trends in online learning being driven by the increasing popularity of mobile and tablet-based content.

British Council London, January 2013

The project was initiated in London at a meeting in January 2013 in which an existing product, *LearnEnglish Pathways*, was put under the microscope. *LearnEnglish Pathways* is an eight level general English course comprising approximately 250-300 hours of content. It had begun life in 1998, when it was first released as a blended learning product to accompany the British Council's general English courses being delivered across our teaching centre network. At release, it had proven only moderately successful, possibly because it was ahead of its time. It was then forgotten for almost eight years before being given a second lease of life with a refresh of the material, a transfer to Moodle as the delivery system, and the removal of all blended learning elements. At the time of the meeting in London, it was enjoying limited success in a number of government projects around the world where it was being used as self-access material – often as part of a larger teacher development or educational reform programme.

The aim of the meeting was to answer the question, “What features are missing from LearnEnglish Pathways

that might reasonably be expected in a modern online English course? And, by extension, to identify the key features of a new course if the decision should be made to build one.

The meeting was attended by a group of British Council staff and external specialists in ELT technology. Inputs to the meeting included:

- The results of market research with learner groups in China, India and Brazil;
- Findings from a series of workshops with e-learning consultants;
- A competitor analysis which identified and compared key features from a number of online products including those from: EF Englishtown; Rosetta Stone; GlobalEnglish Edge; Speexx; My Oxford English; Touchstone; LiveMocha; Busuu; Duolingo; Red River Press.

As a result of this meeting and several more over the next few months, a number of key features and functionalities were identified as being representative of the changes that have been (and are being) introduced into the online English market. In this paper, I have grouped these changes under four headings representing causal factors that are driving learning innovation:

- **Tablet-first approach** – impact on UX and interface design of choosing a tablet-first approach to product design;

- **Mobile effect** – mobile learning and general mobile usage is driving changes to syllabus design and patterns of learning;
- **Gamification** – using elements from mobile apps and games to impact motivation and learning habits;
- **Networking tools** – taking advantage of social media and platform tools to enable community learning and engagement and learner support.

In the rest of this paper I will deal with each of these four factors in turn and look at their practical implications for course design.

Tablet-First Approach

In a tablet-first approach to product design, learning materials are prototyped and implemented initially on touch-based tablets rather than a desktop PC. The tablet represents a “middle ground” between smartphones and laptops so solving design problems for tablets is a good starting point for extending the learning experience across all screens.
Implications for Course Design

a) No Flash

Designers have become accustomed to being able to quickly create quite sophisticated graphic animations. However, with the lack of support for Flash on tablets, html 5.0 and javascript need to fill the gap and they are not yet nearly so versatile.

b) Gesture control

Designing content for touch-screen has far-reaching implications for the size and layout of control elements. Elements must be large enough and sufficiently spaced to allow easy digital manipulation. Mouse-controlled screen elements such as scroll-bars and check boxes usually need to be redesigned, and features that make use of mouse functions such as “double click”, “right click” or “drag and drop” often have to be re-thought.

c) Variable form factors

Tablets can vary in size from a minimum of 7” to a maximum of 10.1”. This represents a significant difference in the amount of screen real estate available, and responsive designs which can accommodate a variety of form factors are important.

The Mobile Effect

The “mobile effect” is a term I use to describe an evolving set of learning behaviours that have developed through users having access to smartphone devices with sophisticated learning tools and “always-on” web access. Mobile users are accustomed to using their phones in short bursts which are determined as much by external factors such as travel, access to bandwidth, etc., as by the content. And 24x7 access to web is instilling a user-centric view of access to content: entertainment, events, maps, news, etc. that are localised and under the control of the user.
Implications for Course Design

a) Content granularity

We typically design a “unit” of elearning content that might be an hour in length, but learners want to be able to break that content into the 5 or 10 minute “snacks” that they can access while killing time, taking public transport, etc. The answer is to design the content to be more granular with natural break points, discrete learning aims and a navigation system that facilitates this “drop-in” approach to learning.

b) Pick-and-mix learning objects

In addition to content granularity, some learners are demanding more overall personal control of what they learn. From a design point of view, this means moving away from linear course materials towards syllabi which are made up of units that are not sequenced, but possibly gathered into modules under a common theme. This has implications around the use of story arcs in video content, the recycling of vocabulary and building grammatical exponents in sequence.

Gamification

Gamification is the inclusion of elements from video gaming into learning systems – especially related towards rewarding or recognising learning achievements. Gamification typically adds a competitive element to learning which can help to increase motivation and product loyalty.

Implications for course design

a) Awards/rewards systems

An increasingly common feature of modern learning management systems is the inclusion of PBL – points, badges and leader boards. Designing content that is engaging but also rewards learner achievements with badges, learning credits, skill points and collectables is becoming increasingly necessary, but also challenging as PBL systems begin to lose their novelty and hence their motivational stimulus.

b) Learner tracking tools

An important aspect of gamification is being able to track a wide range of variables on learning performance. For example a common gamification factor used in online learning is “streaks” – the number of consecutive days that a learner has accessed learning content on the system.

c) Dashboard

The learner dashboard is now becoming the ‘learning control centre’ where progress is reported and badge collection, progress bars, points, etc. are displayed. Recent designs are becoming quite visual with an “infographic” look and feel to them.

Networking tools

Networking tools allow learners, tutors, moderators and technical staff to communicate with each other via a number of channels in both synchronous and asynchronous modes. Networks allow the extension of the individual learning experience into larger social groups for the purposes of language practice, peer recognition, competition, etc., as well as providing learners with access to technical and pedagogic support.

Implications for course design

a) Forums and chat facilities

Basic facilities for learners to interact need to be a standard feature of a Learning Management System. More sophisticated systems have threaded discussions, group features (in which learners can gather or be assigned into smaller groups), internal messaging, file sharing, portfolio management and even tools to allow peer correction of written and oral work.

b) Peer-to-peer networking

Many courseware products on the market now offer software tools to allow synchronous tutor-to-learner interactions as part of an added value service at a premium cost.

c) Social media

Learning systems need to be constructed with ready access to other social media systems such as YouTube, Facebook and Twitter. New courseware products need to have accounts in the main social media networks which can be used for promotional purposes and, to a limited extent, as a content channel.



New Pedagogies for Deep Learning

Kirsten Panton



There is little doubt that education globally is at an inflection point. Studies from many countries show that less than half of upper secondary students are engaged in the classroom. Teachers are growing frustrated and dissatisfied. Although technology holds great potential, too often it saps productivity and discourages critical thinking. As Michael Fullan and Maria Langworthy (2013) articulate in their published white paper *Towards a New End: New Pedagogies for Deep Learning*, “Education needs to be radically rethought partly to stop the boredom, but mostly to blow the lid off learning, whereby students and teachers as active partners become captivated by education”.

New Pedagogies for Deep Learning: A Global Partnership is based on the understanding that no one country, sector or organisation has all of the answers. Rather, it is about collective capacity building to identify, apply and measure new and innovative approaches to learning. *New Pedagogies for Deep Learning* will develop deep learning competencies that go beyond 21st century skills. The goal is to create compassionate global citizens who have the ability to communicate effectively, think critically and collaborate to create knowledge and solve real-world problems in an increasingly complex and connected world.

Educators will identify, share and assess new pedagogies and deep learning tasks via an online platform. This platform will be a place to share and explore teacher learning tasks and student work enabled by technology, allowing students and teachers to learn from high-impact projects from around the

world. It will also serve as a mechanism for students and teachers to assess, using new measures that go beyond traditional standardised tests, what worked and what did not work. Finally, it will function as a reporting engine, sharing lessons learned with educators beyond the clusters. In this way the platform will provide an evidence base for effective and holistic system change by identifying promising practices and tools to be scaled up and replicated.

Contributing organisations include government and research agencies such as The British Council and European Schoolnet; industry associations like GSMA; non-profit foundations such as the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, and technology companies including Intel, Promethean and Microsoft. Schools will be organised in 10 clusters with 100 schools in each cluster from 10 countries. Australia, Canada, the USA, Uruguay, Finland the Netherlands are all signed up and several more countries are ready to join the project that is being led by the social enterprise Collaborative Impact.



Responses to Some Key Questions about Online Language Learning

Neus Lorenzo



At a time of budget cuts, is there a role for private sponsorship in state education?

We are living in changing times, when institutional budget cuts might not be just a transitory situation, but an indicator of an absolutely different way of financing education in the Western world, and especially in European countries. Catalonia, as a commercially active autonomy in Spain, has always explored financial alternatives for finding sponsorship to fund extracurricular events, but there is general resistance to letting enterprises get too close to decision making in schools. Things might change, if common aims in education could enhance collaborative networking between public and private sectors. With the new Erasmus Plus Programme for 2014-2020 (Erasmus +)¹, the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union have already made a clear statement in this regard, and they are now promoting collaborative projects between institutions, private foundations, enterprises and organisations in the field of education, training, youth and sport, including the international aspects of higher education and lifelong learning in formal, non-formal and informal fields.

In the last six years, the official policy for teaching and learning languages in Catalonia has included formal agreements to develop specific programmes with international institutions and private organisations for educational research. For example, the Catalan Department of Education has participated in several programmes promoted by the British Council, such as “Connecting Classrooms”², and “Language Rich Europe”³, amongst others, in order to foster international networking and collaboration in Catalonia.

Many other contextualised programmes for collaborating in the territories are also being developed by the Department of Education, where the educational authorities in charge of developing plurilingualism at school have been creating the legal framework that allows collaboration with enterprises and organisations within the most diverse projects. In this encouraging working climate, the *Servei de Llengües Estrangeres* in the *Subdirecció General de Llengua i Plurilingüisme* has been increasing the number of educational projects where international collaboration is based on private sponsorship and mutual understanding:

1. Regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council Establishing “ERASMUS+”: The Union Programme for Education, Training, Youth and Sport and Repealing Decisions No.1719/2006/EC, No. 1720/2006/EC and No. 1298/2008/EC. Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/documents/erasmus-plus-legal-base_en.pdf. Accessed 30 March 2014.

2. Connecting Classrooms, coordinated by the British Council. Available at: <http://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/programmes-and-funding/linking-programmes-worldwide/connecting-classrooms>. Accessed 30 March 2014.

3. Language Rich Europe, coordinated by the British Council. Available at: <http://www.language-rich.eu/home/country-profiles/profiles-overview.html> and <http://www.language-rich.eu/nc/home/welcome.html>. Accessed 30 March 2014.

- Teacher training conferences on “Content and Language integrated Learning” (CLIL) and Language Teaching (several publishers offered more than 20 free seminars for foreign language teachers in Catalonia during the 2013-14 school year);
- Contests in English, for students in compulsory education (“The Fonix”, an English language competition, is a successful annual example with more than 40, 000 students participating);
- Collaborating in celebrations (“The English Day” at school is widening in Catalonia and usually receives the support of local private and public sponsorship);
- Sharing digital learning materials for kids with special needs (more than 1200 subscriptions of Integratek’s “ClaroRead”, specific plurilingual software for dyslexic children have been kindly delivered for free in the last two years);
- Classroom support and teaching materials for enhancing methodological change (the British Council and several other organisations have been collaborating with the *Service of Foreign Language in the GEP Project*, an *Experimental Group for Plurilingualism*, promoting reading literacy, project work, and self-assessment tools for learning English in Catalonia).

These initiatives and others that are taking place in many language learning programmes have something in common, in spite of being very different: they are all possible because the perception of the *role for private sponsorship in state education* is changing towards a much more efficient, rigorous and accountable relationship. In the Catalan Government’s Plan 2013-2018⁴, political action is structured around seven main areas that respond to the challenges of the country, and includes the proactive participation of the private sector and the responsible creation of public-private networks of collaboration. To give an example, this governmental plan has created the “EFEC”, a public-private partnership to bring financial education to Catalan students with the objective “to promote

excellence in the Catalan education system, ensuring equal opportunities and reducing the dropout rate”. It is formed by the Government of Catalonia, the Institute of Financial Studies (IEF, *Institut d’Estudis Financers*) and a group of banks (BBVA, La Caixa, Banc Sabadell, Banc de Santander i Caixa d’Enginyers), to develop a programme where professionals or former professionals of the financial sector, formed by IEF, can teach workshops on basic finance to 15 year-old Catalan students, in “fourth ESO” (compulsory secondary school). The project follows the recommendations of the European Commission and is a leading innovation initiative in Spain, with more than 13,000 students receiving training during this school year.

Following the same policies, with the aim of “improving linguistic and communicative competence of students from a model of multilingual education”, several ongoing institutional actions are fostering the plan to ensure multilingual mastery of a foreign language at the end of compulsory education. In the first phase, 2013-2014, six private organisations (including the British Council) have collaborated with the Department of Education developing a pilot programme in foreign language teaching and learning with 52 primary, secondary, and vocational schools. The educational objective is that by 2018, students in Catalonia finish secondary school with competency in Catalan and in Spanish, and at least one foreign language, particularly English.

Furthermore, the Catalan Government has signed a cooperation agreement with the Catalan Broadcasting Corporation (CCMA) for the promotion and use of foreign languages among citizens (mainly English) and especially among children and young people. It includes broadcasting series in English, such as “WordGirl”, during school hours on the Catalan TV channel Super3, promoting radio programmes in English, and sharing the BBC’s online digital resources, with British Council support, for students and teachers to reinforce English language learning. All these initiatives are combined with legal requirements to increase the level of English that new teachers will need to have certified in order to teach other subjects in English. The

4. Pla de Govern, Govern.cat. Available at: http://www.govern.cat/pres_gov/govern/ca/pla-govern/cohesio.html. Accessed 30 March 2014.

minimum requirement to become an English teacher in Catalonia is now the C1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference.

In a panorama of medium-term or long-term budget cuts, these educational improvement aims wouldn't be achievable if the only actors had to be from state or local institutional infrastructures. Many international private enterprises and foreign organisations are becoming major collaborating actors, when providing their on-line courses for language learning, offering massive teacher training in foreign languages, and opening new research networks for innovative public-private cooperation.

How can we prepare teachers for an extended role involving interactions with learners outside the classroom, via online learning environments and social networks? Where does online interaction become blended learning?

Paradoxically, some Catalan teachers have longer experience of educational on-line interaction with schools from abroad and with foreign learners, than with the extra-classroom educational possibilities they can find in the nearby social environment. While on-line international school projects, such as *Comenius* or *eTwinning* from the Lifelong Learning Programme of the European Union, are quite popular among primary and secondary schools, the concept of "blended learning" is mainly connected to Vocational Education Training (VET), and occupational studies, and had not until recently been commonly extended into the ordinary educational system.

The official digital educational portal in Catalonia, the *Xarxa Telemàtica Educativa de Catalunya* (XTEC) has been functioning since 1985, and on-line training is widely provided for free by the Department of Education, reaching almost 98% of the teachers in the territory, both in private or public schools. On the other hand, we can observe that a relatively small number of the same teachers take frequent advantage of the most innovative training courses. It is often difficult to involve some segments of the teaching corps that

rarely or never access free training courses, and don't seem to be interested in them. Furthermore, the modern Extended School Model (connected to the internet, international, with intergenerational programmes, leading volunteer actions and cultural involvement in social citizenship and ecology) needs to engage parental participation, on-line social interaction and mixed private-public European programmes, which may involve educational institutions and third parties. This is why teachers who are interested in developing classroom activities in a "more enriched on-line learning environment" need to grow into roles that require managing complexity and leading school projects. Leadership, negotiation, plurilingualism and foreign language literacy are some of the skills that teachers will have to develop in order to participate in the new platforms for informal and non-formal lifelong learning, and thus have the best from the opportunities that the advance of globalised, interconnected exchanges can offer to students on academic, social, cultural, and pre-professional levels.

Teacher training is definitively part of the issue, but systematic mutual support inside the schools is also necessary. Headmasters should become more conscious of teachers' coordination needs. Content and language integrated learning should be a more common approach for teaching languages through different subjects in the schools. Teachers' networks inside the school must be enriched with virtual collaboration and on-line team-work, to be able to transfer results to the expanded fields of the virtual world. The educational community needs to optimise resources by sharing and enlarging professional impact. Dual education should be seen as an alternative to explore different scenarios for students who are not only more comfortable than their teachers performing in digital environments, but who will soon be more used to self-guided information gathering and community-enquiry than to studying in traditional ways.

We still don't know how blended learning approach can be successfully applied in primary and secondary ordinary schools (apart from VET levels that are starting to use it), but in Catalonia we are developing several pilot experiments to provide opportunities for school teachers to practise and design new techniques in

this line of innovation. Tools for developing blended education, like the “Personal on-line Learning Dossier” – a more universal variation adapted from the European Language Portfolio – have been explored by many teachers and trainers in Catalonia. The official digital educational portal in Catalonia (XTEC) is offering a space where educators can collect resources and examples provided by Catalan teachers, distribute different Personal Learning Dossiers for students and teachers, and provide some “Virtual Personal Portfolios for Blended Learning” together with different training courses for implementing them in the classroom⁵.

Further research has integrated these self-assessment tools and portfolios into inclusive and innovative curricular designs, for helping students to face, solve and overcome their difficulties. To give an example, in 2011 an individual research project that had the aim of fostering blended learning to help students’ employability obtained a one-year fully paid grant⁶ to develop an effective design of two courses to improve two difficult teaching and learning situations in the classroom of post obligatory Baccalaureate studies (on an Artistic Drawing course):

- How to provide the on-line curricular content of the previous course to students who have not passed it yet but were already attending the next grade
- How to give on-line support for personal creative projects, which students are required to develop on their own and deliver after four months of research.

This virtual course tried to integrate the main elements of the curricular content, the best methodology for self-access (objectives, timing, evaluation) and to optimise the digital technology. It eventually outlined two proposals that used blended learning strategies and

included digital portfolio, project work, collaboration and interaction among students in the virtual space, online tutoring, and individual agreement or self-employment skills. This research and other similar studies are particularly useful for encouraging teachers’ analysis of real situations, innovative teaching and learning designs, practical development in the schools with an action-reflection approach for implementation and alternative holistic evaluation that considers both students’ progress and improvement in teaching techniques. The whole educational system is nourished when teachers’ involvement in research and experimentation emerges bottom-up, and is shared top-down. Institutional support should be in the right place at the right time to obtain maximum benefit from these sorts of action-research initiatives, so they can become real, useful, scalable, and implemented blended learning programmes.

How relevant is the “flipped classroom” paradigm in a language-teaching context? Is redesigning physical learning spaces as important as building online environments?

The “flipped classroom” is a particular experience that some Catalan schools are already practising with students in post-compulsory education – the *Servei de Llengües Estrangeres* maintains a blog with some educational experiences that show flipped classroom practices and reflections, mainly for teachers and students at secondary level⁷. It is good to see that both private and state schools can be involved in these inverted sequences for teaching, which require families and students to be able to access the internet outside schools. The Virolay School in Barcelona, for example, is a state-funded private school where students are

5. XTEC Portfolio page: Available at: <http://www.xtec.cat/web/recursos/tecinformacio/portafolis>. Accessed 30 March 2014.

6. Fully paid grant to foster blended learning research: “Llicència retribuïda de la professora Isabel Taixes Dolcet: e-portafoli creatiu i e-portafoli pendent, una experiència i una proposta de blended learning en el context de Dibuix artístic de Batxillerat”. Available at: <http://www.xtec.cat/sqfp/licencies/200910/memories/2050m.pdf>. Accessed 30 March 2014.

7. Blog about Flipped Classroom in Catalunya: “Teoria i Pràctica al Servei de Llengües Estrangeres”. Available at: <http://blocs.xtec.cat/desenvolupamentprofessional/fonaments-teorics/flipped-classrooms/> & <http://blocs.xtec.cat/desenvolupamentprofessional/recursos/flipped-classrooms/>. Accessed 30 March 2014.

asked to view some videos at home before starting hands-on projects, and they can bring their own tablet, smartphone or other device to explore resources in the classroom (BYOD). La Pineda Institute, in a coastal village north of Barcelona, is a public school where students have been using flipped classroom techniques, and the school had to find ways to deal with equity to guarantee that students could view the videos in the library if they didn't have internet at home. Different contexts might demand different solutions, when exploring alternative learning spaces. The important issue would be to avoid technological gaps than can occur because of socio-economic differences, and to make sure that differentiated treatment doesn't occur, as it can create unbalanced situations and major inequity in the school.

Redesigning physical learning spaces at school is sometimes a challenge connected to resources and organisational processes. Innovative visions and creative solutions can be excellent facilitators for changing traditional school spaces. Collaborative problem solving requires movable chairs and tables, in order to organise debates and teamwork. Project-based learning (PBL) needs open spaces, labs or shared surfaces to elaborate models, murals or hands-on products. Task approach classes may use special tools or spaces to create or produce physical outcomes. All of them will benefit from quick access to the internet in order to gather information, to communicate with others, and to exchange results or to ask for feedback. Lots of decision making on use of learning spaces is required for organising international projects. It is evident that physical spaces can shape and modify classroom interaction, students' roles, and teaching techniques.

In the same way, sharing virtual spaces for collaborating, exploring communicative tools for exchanging information, or building online environments to share and work together, will also affect the way teaching and learning processes take place. In a given situation, classroom interaction will be shaped according to the

learning task design, the teacher's role, the required outcomes, the expected protagonists inside the classroom, and the students' virtual audience outside the school, if any. In an increasingly digital world, virtual spaces are part of everyday life, and should be part of school life, too. There is no sense in creating a school alienated from the virtual culture where our students grow and learn, play and share, live and love.

Expanded schools are going to be the norm. They'll have to find their way to achieve their visions with sustainable resources, continuous improvement and balanced results. The future of the next generation is at stake.





Castaway Learning: Handheld Devices as a Lifeline and for Life

Agnes Kukulska-Hulme



Introduction

In a globalised 21st Century, competency in other languages contributes to effective communication and collaboration with people from diverse cultural backgrounds in all areas of life and work (“Partnership for 21st Century Skills”, 2013; “Skills CFA”, 2013). Logically, language learning should therefore be an important lifelong pursuit, carried out in a variety of ways according to changing social and working life imperatives, as well as personal interests and needs. However, for far too many people, language learning is a forced activity undertaken at school and then abandoned.

New technologies make a lifelong commitment to language learning much more feasible and attractive than was the case in the past. In particular, mobile technologies are uniquely suited to supporting language learning on an ongoing basis, in a range of settings, according to a person’s ability and adapted to their needs. This is because mobile devices are not only easily portable, but they are also uniquely personal tools that can capture communication difficulties, prompt ongoing reflection and enable selection of affordable learning resources that suit an individual’s preferences and situation-specific needs.

Being able to listen to foreign radio stations at a whim, accessing news stories in other languages and reading social media messages on a mobile phone or tablet, all bring unquestionable benefits in terms of greater

exposure to target languages, increased listening and reading practice, and the chance to interact with others. What is important to note here, is that these new possibilities should be combined with more deliberately structured language learning materials that can be made available in conveniently portable ways. Unfortunately, current thinking around mobile language learning applications often fails to exploit the interface between informal and formal learning, which in turn misses the interconnections between communication needs, personal circumstances, growing ownership of multiple devices, and opportunities for learning.

In lifelong language learning, mobile technologies perform two vital functions. The first of these is the ability to support an unexpected or emergency situation, by providing immediate information or contact with people who can help. Unlike a traditional phrase book or dictionary, the mobile device also becomes a way to capture the moment and make it useful for others. Taking and sharing photographs is a prime example. This can be extended to a structured learning activity focusing on the encountered situation, enabling the learner to acquire pertinent vocabulary or specific ways of conversing and writing that are suited to the circumstances at hand. Such experiences can be brought into the classroom to enrich and extend - and ultimately transform - language curricula. This line of thought begins with the conviction that language learning should be a lifelong endeavour rather than an activity confined to a specific period of time at school.

Language Learning Ought to be a Lifelong Pursuit

Mobile technologies can play an important role in turning language learning into a long-term pursuit over a lifetime. As has already been demonstrated by the MOTILL project (Arrigo et al., 2013; SARD, 2013), there is an excellent alignment between mobile technologies and lifelong learning. One of the initiatives highlighted by MOTILL was a successful effort to make learning the Irish language attractive to children who lacked motivation to learn this language in their native land (Keogh and Ní Mhurchú, 2009). By providing speaking practice on mobile phones, the project appealed to young people. Such an activity can unlock the potential of a personal device, so that it is perceived as a learning tool that can be used in an enjoyable way beyond the classroom.

Every person's first or primary language evolves during their lifetime, for example through acquisition of adult vocabulary, technical terms and new expressions from ever-changing popular culture. Similarly, a person's second or additional languages should continue to evolve, so that their communication options are not fossilised at some earlier phase of their lives.

Mobile Technologies Must Connect Life and Learning

Much like other disciplines such as science or geography, language learning is severely constrained when it is conceived as primarily a classroom-based activity.

Hwang and Chen (2013) investigated how familiar situated contexts can facilitate language learning, through an activity of learning food-related vocabulary during lunch in school. It was also noted in this study that students extended their learning from school to home and that learning took place spontaneously in their daily lives. Researchers have long argued that situated everyday life experiences can become impromptu sites or spaces for learning (Sharples, Taylor and Vavoula, 2005; Pachler, Bachmair and Cook, 2010). By using mobile technologies, learners can adopt a new way of working whereby they habitually marshal diverse resources to create a personal ecology that meets their

needs (Luckin et al., 2010). However, adopting new methods of learning does not come naturally to most people. They will need strong encouragement to do so, and appropriate support along the way.

Mobile Devices are More than Just a Tool in Language Learning

Since increasingly pervasive technology influences language usage and evolution, mobile devices should not be regarded as just a tool in language learning but as an integral part of communication. Crystal (2006, 2009) has written extensively about how languages are affected by the internet and mobile devices. Furthermore, nowadays mobile devices are often physically at the centre of social interaction, which means that people talk about the device itself, its capabilities and features, the mobile apps and services they are using, as well as issues of connectivity and usability. Since mobile devices are frequently used to make social arrangements involving negotiations around place and time, there are additional implications for language learning content. The point is that people of all ages need to do much more than just use mobile devices to learn a language. They should be able to talk about the device and its use. They need to acquire and practise language associated with use of technology for mediating social interactions, and at more advanced levels, they need to be able to reflect on how the device influences language use.

Learners Need a Voice, and to Acquire New Study Skills

Thanks to use of mobile technology in combination with social media, the learner may be enabled "to enact and rehearse a personal voice" (Ros i Solé, Calic and Neijmann, 2010: 51), meaning that language learning can become more individual and empowering. A recent study by Viberg and Grönlund (2013) examined the attitudes of higher education students in Sweden and China, and concluded that they were particularly positive in relation to opportunities to personalise their learning, to have an authentic learning experience and to exchange information and collaborate multi-modally with others. We also know from studies of emergent practices among learners that language study can be

enriched through access to resources that suit learners' particular interests or needs (e.g. Kukulska-Hulme et al., 2011; Song and Fox, 2008).

To realise this potential, learners should be given a voice in shaping mobile learning, but they also need help with acquiring new skills that are specific to learning on the move. Even when learners are proficient users of mobile devices and have well developed online learning and networking skills, many have not had the chance to consider what is required for successful mobile language learning. People may think of their mobile device as just another way to receive familiar types of content involving listening and responding, memorisation and repetition. What is less familiar is the idea that a person's surroundings are frequently a rich source of language learning material and translation challenges. Mobile devices can support self-directed forms of language learning and learner autonomy (see Díaz-Vera, 2012). Kukulska-Hulme and Bull (2009) showed how appropriate mobile learning designs could encourage learners to notice how language is used around them and record their observations out in the world, subsequently sharing these in the classroom or informally. Similar possibilities for sharing of language observations among learners are reflected in work done by Pemberton, Winter and Fallahkhair (2010) and by Adlard, Ottway and Procter-Legg (2012), who have designed systems for mobile knowledge sharing among language learners, for example during periods of study abroad.

Teachers Need Access to Professional Development and to a Variety of Devices, not Just Their Own Device

Even with powerful tools at their disposal, learners cannot be left unguided and unsupported (Laurillard, 2007). When using mobile technologies with their learners, teachers will need to re-think and re-design both teaching and the associated processes for learner support (Kukulska-Hulme and Traxler, 2013), so tailored professional development is needed. While the drive to 'bring your own device' (BYOD) into the classroom has many advantages in education, teachers need to be given access to a variety of devices, not just their own personal phone or other device that they happen to own. Not being able to try out several different

mobile devices, including the latest models, and hence to understand their relative strengths, weaknesses and capabilities, surely prevents many teachers from becoming confident in the adoption of mobile technologies for language teaching. It is therefore crucial to provide teachers with plentiful opportunities to acquire professional development in mobile learning, combined with the chance to use different up-to-date mobile devices and associated technologies over reasonable periods of time (not just in one-off sessions).

Some Learner Groups are Better Served Than Others

Certain learner groups are currently better served than others when it comes to mobile learning. On the one hand, thanks to significant international development funding, initiatives such as "English in Action" in Bangladesh (Walsh et al., 2013) are having an impact on the lives of millions of people by helping them improve their English language skills on a daily basis through use of multiple media including mobile phones. On the other hand, many learners who could benefit from mobile learning remain hidden from view. Kukulska-Hulme (2013) found that mobile learning research has rarely concerned itself with the needs of the older population, learners in tight communities and families that lead very private lives, people with undiagnosed health problems that may deter them from participating in education, or learners who are underserved for reasons of relative poverty or inability to use the language of the (wealthy) country where they live.

Imbalances across the social spectrum therefore need to be addressed and policy makers can have significant impact in this regard. Immigrants are a case in point. With little or no preparation for a new life in another country, these people often need to learn a foreign language quickly, using whatever help they can get. In so doing, they symbolise the 21st century imperative to learn rapidly and adapt to change, in spite of limited financial resources. In response to this challenge, the EU-funded MASELTOV project is developing mobile services for immigrants (Gaved et al., 2012). In this project, The Open University is leading scientific research activity which proposes the notion of supported incidental learning, a form of learning resulting from other everyday activities, which exploits

the power of mobile technologies and social networks to construct specific informal learning opportunities as part of everyday life. Whilst MASELTOV focuses on immigrants' communication needs and seeks to facilitate their social inclusion, the approach has broader implications for language teaching and learning in an age of increasing mobility. Portable digital technologies support informal learning - both in emergencies and as a longer term way to acquire and practise new skills and knowledge - which can act as a bridge to formal learning, and innovative mechanisms need to be developed to link the two.

Conclusion

Mobile phones and other portable devices should enable new ways of learning, emphasising both spontaneity of access and continuity across diverse contexts of use. A language learner can therefore use these tools to face daily language challenges, as well as for longer term development of personal communication resources that will continue to be revisited and enriched over a lifetime. Increasingly, formal learning takes place in informal settings, and informal learning in formal settings (Wong and Looi, 2011; Wong, 2012). Therefore it makes little sense to keep these two spheres separate.

We must also remember that new learning skills and competencies will continue to be required as technologies and social behaviours change and evolve. Some social exchanges in online and mobile environments are now polylingual rather than being confined to one language (Jørgensen, 2008). In the near future, learners will begin to engage with the next generation of wearable devices and technology-rich surroundings where personal devices are part of a repertoire of tools, resources and social networks that will offer new opportunities for language learning and expansion of cultural knowledge. These opportunities will need to be fully understood by educators, policy makers, and learners, to make sure that the opportunities are not lost.

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Bridging the Gap to Promote Mobile Learning

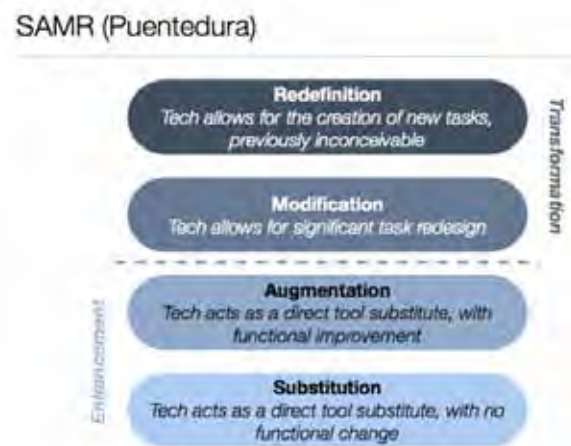
Işıl Boy



“Although mobile learning is regarded by some as an extension of e-learning, it is also said to provide more flexibility to learners in terms of time and place of access to learning material, more flexibility in communication, as well as altering the relationship between the learner and learning that is undertaken” (Boy and Motteram, 2013, p 2).

Mobile learning is the learning that can be done with the help of portable technologies such as (but not limited to) smartphones or tablets. With the help of mobile learning, students can potentially learn anytime/anywhere, what is often called “informal learning”. Mobile learning helps students learn when they need to, and according to the “Affective Context Model” (Jones, 2010), learning becomes more effective if people can access information as they need it. With the advent of mobile technologies, many people tend to carry their devices all the time, and if it has an internet connection whenever they need to access information, it becomes rather easy to search on the web, hence they do not need to wait till they get home or to work to search on their computers. However, there are many schools where tablets are used only in the classroom and students are not allowed to take tablets home. As noted above, mobile learning helps students to learn anywhere anytime, so students should be able to take tablets wherever they go. Besides, at some schools, tablets are mainly used as a substitute for a printed dictionary. However, tablets can be used to transform learning and teaching and a helpful way of thinking about the necessary process of change is the SAMR Model below (Figure 1 - Puentedura, 2006).

Figure 1



In 2013, I conducted a small scale study, which aimed to explore teachers' use of tablets to promote mobile learning in seven EFL classrooms. I chose this focus as the teacher perspective is often neglected when new technologies are introduced. The case study covers three foundation primary schools and two state schools in Turkey and a college in the UAE. Five of the teachers were using iPads and two using Android tablets as a part of the Turkish Ministry of Education-funded “Fatih” project. In the college in the UAE the iPads were the sole classroom technology. The study shows that tablet computers were mainly used in schools and colleges in similar ways to the other implementations of technology in the language classrooms. As Hoffman (1996) claims, “dropping and dipping does not work.” He holds the view that dropping hardware into the classes, and dipping educators in a little training will not work. Although there are many studies warning us of these issues, almost every new technology is introduced in the same way. Unfortunately, many school administrators still believe that it is enough to know how to use the

technology in order to be able to use it in teaching and learning. One of the participants also complained about this issue, “Although we were attending many ‘technical’ sessions, I did not feel confident going into class not having enough knowledge about m-learning pedagogies and instructional design.” (Participant 2)

When it comes to the question about what the future of education will be, I believe (1) augmented reality, (2) wearable technology and (3) big data will gain momentum in the future.

(1) “Augmented reality” is a 3D learning environment, which connects real and virtual worlds. It promotes informal learning, and provides interactive tools for learning. Furthermore, augmented reality engages students, stimulates learning, and increases their motivation to learn. In addition to this, augmented reality is helpful for kinaesthetic learners. It lets students learn interactively with computer-generated simulations. (2) “Wearable technologies” are expected to be the future of consumer electronics, such as Google Glass or smart watches, and the potential of convergence with the introduction of a single device, which makes ubiquitous learning possible. (3) “Big data” refers to the rapid rise and accessibility of the data, which holds great importance to all organisations. Big data is also important for educators as it provides good insight for education by collecting data from learners.

I developed a model for schools, which aims to integrate mobile technologies into education. The model can be called the “DED PC DIE” model.

- 1- Define your objectives
- 2- Expand and sustain technical infrastructure, and get support from the organisation
- 3- Develop your strategies
- 4- Provide on-going training for the teachers and students
- 5- Conduct a pilot study to see the strengths and weaknesses
- 6- Develop a policy for tablet use
- 7- Involve teachers in the decision-making process
- 8- Evaluate the project in line with your objectives

In order to determine what steps need to be taken to progress from the current state to the desired state, gap analysis can be conducted. Gap analysis enables educators to reflect on how they are utilising mobile technologies now, and how they can utilise these technologies henceforth.



When we look back at history, we see that educators recognised the importance of new technologies, and looked for some ways to integrate them into their teaching. Nevertheless, educators usually tried to use new technologies to teach students in the same way they had always taught, which shows that we tend to make similar mistakes with tablets as we have done with other technologies in the past. We need to bear in mind that *tablets are not transforming education*, teachers are, so along with the technical support, pedagogical support should be provided to teachers to facilitate technology integration.

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Digital Literacies: Implementation and Implications for Educational Policy

Nicky Hockly



Literacy and Digital Literacies

Traditionally, literacy has referred to the basic skills of reading and writing, occasionally coupled with basic numeracy and referred to as the “3 Rs” (reading, writing and arithmetic). With the proliferation of digital media, however, commentators have come to consider a wider range of skills as figuring in a new definition of ‘digital literacy’. As Clay Shirky (2010) points out,

“Reading is an unnatural act; we are no more evolved to read books than we are to use computers. Literate societies become literate by investing extraordinary resources, every year, training children to read. Now it’s our turn to figure out what response we need to shape our use of digital tools.”

Even if we teach supposedly “tech comfy” younger learners, we cannot assume that they are digitally literate. In fact, they often are not.

So, what exactly is digital literacy? Are there a series of subskills or digital “literacies” (note the plural) that we can define? In a recent publication (Dudeney, Hockly and Pegrum, 2013), we propose one way of conceptualising digital literacies. We envisage four main areas: **language, information, connections and (re) design**. Let’s explore these one by one.

A Focus on Language

These are key digital literacies which focus on communication via the language of text, image and multimedia, and include:

- **print literacy:** the ability to read and produce online text, such as blog entries, tweets, emails etc. This is clearly related to traditional print literacy, but includes an awareness of online text genres.
- **texting literacy:** an awareness of the conventions of texting language or “txtspk” (text speak, that is the use of abbreviations, acronyms, symbols etc.), and of knowing in what contexts to use or not use it. Research (Crystal, 2008, 2011) has shown that, far from having a detrimental effect on language standards and literacy, text speak can in fact aid literacy.
- **hypertext literacy:** understanding how hyperlinks in online text work, and being able to produce texts with effective use of hyperlinking. Here we could include knowing how many hyperlinks to include in a text and why, what to link to, understanding the effects of over- (or under-) linking in a text, and so on.
- **visual, media and multimedia literacy:** the internet is a multimedia medium par excellence, and we need to understand how images and multimedia (audio, video) can be used to supplement, enhance, subvert or even replace text communication. We

also need to know how to produce multimodal messages ourselves, from sharing our photos on Facebook to creating video clips for YouTube. In the age of Web 2.0 we are no longer passive consumers who need to learn how to sit back and critique mass media (although this is still a key skill). We are now “prosumers” (producers and consumers) of multimedia artefacts.

- **gaming literacy:** a macroliteracy involving kinaesthetic and spatial skills, and the ability to navigate online worlds (such as Second Life) or use gaming consoles such as the Wii. Although this may seem like a literacy unconnected to education, there is a growing interest in serious games for education.
- **mobile literacy:** an understanding of how mobile technology is transforming our world, from issues of hyperconnectivity (always being connected to the internet), to understanding how to use geolocation and augmented reality.
- **code and technological literacy:** apart from basic technical skills (such as knowing how to use a word processing program, or how to send an attachment by email), a basic knowledge of html coding can help us understand how online tools and products are put together- and more importantly, enable us to make changes to these to overcome limitations. As Rushkoff (2010) puts it “If we don’t learn to program, we risk being programmed ourselves”. We are not talking here about becoming fully fledged computer programmers, but rather about developing an awareness of the basics. Very basic coding skills can help one customise the elements in one’s blog for example, or route around censorship (for good or bad).

Focus on Information

- **search literacy:** the ability to search for information effectively online. This includes an awareness of search engines beyond Google!
- **tagging literacy:** knowing how to tag (or label) online content, how to create tag clouds and to contribute to “folksonomies” (user-created banks of tags).

- **information literacy:** the ability to evaluate online sources of information for veracity and credibility. In this age of information overload, we also need to develop filtering and attention literacy so as to know what to pay attention to, and what not - and when.

Focus on Connections

- **personal literacy:** knowing how to create, project and curate your online identity. This includes an awareness of issues such as online safety or identity theft.
- **network literacy:** the ability to take part in online networks and to leverage these to help you filter and find information. For teachers, their “PLN” (Personal Learning Network) - online professional contacts - can be useful as a means of tapping into ongoing professional development.
- **participatory literacy:** closely aligned to network literacy, participatory literacy involves contributing to and participating in online networks. So not just reading professional development tweets on Twitter, but contributing your own tweets. Not just reading blog posts, but leaving comments - or even writing your own blog.
- **cultural and intercultural literacy:** understanding digital artefacts from other cultures, and interacting effectively and constructively with people from other cultures take on even more importance in our global world, where intercultural contact via digital communication is increasingly possible and increasingly likely.

Focus on (Re)Design

- **remix literacy:** the ability to repurpose or change already-made content in order to create something new. Literal videos on YouTube are a good example of this. See the Harry Potter literal film trailer here for just one example: <http://youtu.be/MahTKZDHXaA>

Clearly then, this is a complicated mix of skills to master, and teachers can play a part in helping learners acquire

some of the necessary skills by integrating them into their classroom practice alongside the regular “content” they deal with. In this way we can make a difference in our learners’ comfort level, helping them beyond the “tech comfy” to the “tech savvy” which will contribute to their life beyond the classroom, in the professional workplace and in our (increasingly) knowledge-based economies.

Digital Literacies in Teacher Training

What does this mean for English language teacher training, and for the policy makers responsible for upgrading teacher training to include these necessary 21st century skills? In my view, providing teachers with the digital literacy skills they need can be achieved via a careful consideration of **Training, Teaching materials** and **Technology**.

Let’s take Training first. A clear and thorough focus on digital literacies needs to be integrated into the delivery of all pre-service and in-service training, whether institution- or state-led. For training to be effective, a “transmission” (or lecture-based) pedagogy needs to be replaced with collaborative models and spaces, so that trainee teachers have the necessary approaches clearly modelled for them. Mishra and Koehler’s (2006) “TPACK” (Technological, Pedagogical and Content Knowledge) model needs to be integrated into any teacher training syllabus. And for practising teachers, ongoing in-house continual professional development that includes work on digital literacies needs to be the norm.

Secondly, in terms of **Teaching materials**, digital literacies need to be integrated into coursebook syllabi, so that teachers understand how they can be operationalised within the English language classroom, and closely tied to language aims. And if students are producing digital artefacts as part of their language work, then the assessment criteria for these need to be closely and coherently aligned to learning outcomes.

Thirdly, the role of **Technology** in teacher training needs to be carefully examined. Trainers and institutions need to avoid falling into the trap of thinking that the most expensive or latest gadgets are the most effective. When choosing technology or devices, institutions (or Ministries of Education) need to clearly identify the economic pressure groups involved, and to carefully examine to what extent the technology really does lead to improved learning outcomes. The case of “IWBs” (Interactive Whiteboards) is a salutary example of how entire governments have wasted vast amounts of money with nothing to show for it in terms of improved learning outcomes (see Hockly, 2013). As a rule of thumb, institutions would be well advised to allocate 80% of their budgets on teacher training and development, and 20% of their budgets (or less) on any technology, whether hardware or software. At the end of the day, it is vital to ensure that technology is always subordinate to learning aims and outcomes.

If governments and policy makers need one final reason to start integrating digital literacies into English language classes, here are some sobering words from Henry Jenkins, “What [students] do in their online lives has nothing to do with the things they are learning in school; and what they are learning in school has little or nothing of value to contribute to who they are once the bell rings”.

Although Jenkins is referring to mainstream secondary schooling in the USA, his words are a strong reminder of the pressing need to make education both relevant and motivating for students in the 21st century. English language teachers are in a good position to marry a focus on digital literacies with a focus on language itself – and in the process to make their classes both more relevant and useful for today’s students. And teacher educators have a duty to ensure that teacher trainees not only know this, but know what to do about it in their classrooms.

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Note: See this list of resources about digital literacies:

<http://www.theconsultants-e.com/resources/ToolsResources/DigiLit.aspx>



Trends in Technology for Language Teaching: Looking Back to the Future

Steven Higgins



Overview

This contribution to the British Council Regional Policy Dialogue takes a retrospective look at the use of technology for learning, and language learning in particular, through the technological developments of the last century into the beginning of the 21st Century. There are two main sections to my argument. First, I believe that we can learn from the lessons of the past, both from what has and, perhaps more importantly, what hasn't worked before. Second, I shall argue that the evidence from research clearly shows that it is the pedagogy surrounding the use of technology, and the skills of the teacher or learning technologist in designing, supporting and enabling learners which makes the difference in terms of successful learning. I suggest that this understanding, together with an awareness of what has (and has not) been successful in the past, can help us to design and to integrate new digital technologies for teaching and learning languages.

A Short History of Educational Technology: Nihil Sub Sole Novum?

Is it helpful, first of all, to look back and to review broadly the effect of new technologies on learning? This next section therefore considers both the historic developments and the predictions about the impact of major communication technologies on education during

the last century. This serves as a basis to understand the current enthusiasm and energy for the adoption of digital technologies for 21st Century learning or to revolutionise language teaching in particular. My argument is that these perspectives, as analogies, may help us understand our current educational and technological context.

My first example is from the emergence of film and the technology of moving pictures or the future envisaged with the emergence of the motion picture, and its predicted impact on education. In July 1913 The New York Dramatic Mirror recounted Thomas Edison's vision for schooling: "Books," declared the inventor with decision, "will soon be obsolete in the public schools. Scholars will be instructed through the eye. It is possible to teach every branch of human knowledge with the motion picture. Our school system will be completely changed inside of ten years".

Radio similarly captured the imagination of visionaries in the 1920s and 1930s. In 1926, the educationalist and historian J. C. Stobart wrote a memo, while working for the recently founded BBC, advocating a "wireless university" (Kember, 2007, p 35). In April 1935 Short Wave Craft reported that, Professor C. C. Clark at New York University had conducted a class from his home using shortwave radio. Because the radio was two-way, Professor Clark was able to take questions from the class¹.

1. <http://www.smithsonianmag.com/history/predictions-for-educational-tv-in-the-1930s-107574983/>

The predictions for radio were quickly complemented with exploration of the potential of television and the experimental television technology of the time meant that viewers had to listen to their radio in order to hear the broadcast, as the audio and pictures couldn't be broadcast together. Research was conducted into the potential of television in schools in the 1950s (Levin and Hines, 2003), but it wasn't until the early 1960s that this technology became integral to teaching and learning when proposals for a "University of the Air" for adult education evolved into the founding of the Open University in the UK in 1964 (Kember, 2007).

Some of the technological developments were influenced not just by emerging technologies but were also shaped by contemporary learning theories. In the 1960s, language laboratories, with their carrels, tape-recorders and headphones emphasised the role of practice and feedback, similar to the programmed instruction models conceptualised by B.F. Skinner² a decade earlier. The 1950s and 1960s in particular saw a number of future classrooms predicted with robot teachers or automated push-button machines to provide tailored and efficient education for the individual or class, perhaps reflecting these theoretical perspectives. Today we are more influenced by social learning theories, but the lack of evidence of the predictive validity of these theories in terms of educational impact should encourage us to test the value of these theories in practice through evaluation and not adopt social technological tools, such as blogs or "wikis", without being clear about how their affordances relate to teaching and learning possibilities.

So What Does the Research Say?

The role of technology for learning remains an important contemporary issue with debates about the effects of technology on our society, the implications of quick and easy online access to information for knowledge and learning, and the impact of technology on young people's social, emotional and physical well-being all frequently in the news. It is therefore important to

take stock of what we know about the impact of digital technology on teaching and learning from what we have learned over the last fifty years.

The main approach used to evaluate the impact of technology on teaching and learning in schools has been where learners' progress or attainment across a range of tested outcomes has been correlated with the quantity or quality of technology which was available or which they experienced at school or home. At this very general level, computer use makes very little difference to students' achievement. An association between high ICT use and higher student attainment in primary schools was reported in a UK study funded by their Teacher Training Agency study (Moseley et al, 1999, p 82). Here however the research team believed that more effective teachers (and more effective schools) tended to use more innovative approaches, or chose to use the ICT resources that they had more appropriately, rather than that the technology itself was the cause of the differences in student performance. Fuchs and Woessmann's (2004) analysis of this link between provision and performance based on the "Programme for International Student Assessment" (PISA) data supports this interpretation that the link is a correlation and not causal.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) more detailed analysis of Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) data indicates a complex picture of association between student performance in school, their access to computers at home and at school together with frequency of use which varies from country to country. Here the research found that students who used computers the most extensively tended to perform slightly worse on average than those with more moderate usage. Overall the analysis suggests that the linkage may not be a simple causal one, nor necessarily a simple linear association. There may be a limit to the amount of technology which is beneficial (for an extended presentation of this argument, see Higgins, Xiao and Katsipatakis, 2012).

2. See, for example, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jTH3ob1IRFo>

In findings from experimental and quasi-experimental research studies, where gains in knowledge or understanding for groups of students using ICT have been compared with gains for groups learning the same content without technology, results again tend to show positive benefits for ICT. Again these reviews typically conclude that technology has a positive and measurable effect on learning. Most of these reviews do not, however, consider the effects comparatively. By far the majority of researched educational interventions have a positive impact, but the relative impact is not usually considered. When a comparative view is taken technology interventions appear to be less beneficial (Sipe and Curlette, 1997³).

Taken together, the correlational and experimental evidence does not offer a convincing case for the general impact of digital technologies on learning outcomes with serious questions about the nature of the evidence base. It may be the case, of course, that digital technologies do have an impact on learning, but that this is not apparent when looking at attainment (as measured by performance in academic tests), or that it is particularly beneficial for certain groups or learners. It is therefore important to identify more precisely and articulate more clearly where and when the use of digital technologies is beneficial (Schacter and Fagano, 1999).

A further question relates to the phases of adoption of digital technologies. The basis for this is more tentative and draws on a personal interpretation of trends over time. There appears to be a pattern of impact of ICT or digital technologies where, in the early stages, there is a high level of enthusiasm, supported by either anecdotal or qualitative accounts of its benefits, such as with integrated learning systems or interactive whiteboards. At the next stage, as the technology and teaching approaches develop and evolve, these effects are investigated more rigorously. At this stage a mixed message appears with different studies finding different effects or levels of effect (see for example, Parr and Fung's (2000) retrospective analysis of Integrated

Learning Systems or Higgins, Beauchamp and Miller's (2007) review of interactive whiteboards). It is rare for further studies to be conducted once a technology has become fully embedded, as interest tends to focus on the new and emerging, so the question of overall impact tends to remain elusive.

If this is the case, there may, of course, be different explanations. We know, for example, that it is difficult to scale-up innovation without a dilution of effect (Cronbach et al, 1980; Raudenbush, 2008). It may also be that early adopters (Rogers, 2003) tend to tackle particular pedagogical issues or challenges in the early stages, but then the focus shifts to the adoption of the particular technology, without it being chosen as a solution to a specific teaching and learning issue (I'm thinking here of Rogers' 'early' and 'late majority'). At this point the technology may be the same, but the pedagogical aims and intentions are different, and this may explain a reduction in effectiveness.

Where this difference may also be important is in what the technology replaces. Technology is not introduced into a vacuum. As schools and teachers introduce technology they stop doing something else. When teachers choose to adopt technology themselves they often do it as part of a process of enquiry (Somekh, 2007) and it replaces or displaces some problematic practice. When it is adopted for its own sake on a tide of popularity or mandated by policy, it displaces or replaces other teaching and learning activities which may have been as (or more) effective. At this point in the adoption cycle we do not see any educational improvement. An ecological view of adoption is therefore needed, where the justification of technology adoption is a relative one (Zhao and Frank, 2003). It should replace less effective practices as part of a more effective or more efficient teaching and learning context. As yet we do not have the tools to enable us to support these decisions (Underwood and Dillon, 2004). (Again, for further discussion of this argument see Higgins, Xiao and Katsipataki, 2012).

3. For a more recent overview of the relative benefits of different educational approaches see: <http://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/toolkit/>.

Overall, the challenge of assessing the impact is more acute than ever. The rise in technologies and the range of ways that they can be used in diverse educational settings across the spectrum of learners, coupled with the pace of change of technology make the task ever more demanding. The focus must shift from the technologies themselves to the pedagogies of use, and the analysis of general impact to the specific differences that digital technologies make to teaching and learning contexts and interactions with regard to particular learners. The quantity of technology use is not the key factor to student learning. “How much” matters when only when “what and how” are identified (Lei and Zhao, 2007).

Global Trends: A Move Towards Increasing Scepticism?

In the UK, we have been at the forefront of investment in technology in schools in particular, from the Microelectronics Education Programme in the 1980s and the development of the BBC Micro (Thorne, 1987), experimentation with software like “Integrated Learning Systems” (Parr and Fung, 2000) in the 1990s, and then in the first decade of the 21st Century the promotion of technologies like “Interactive Whiteboards” (Higgins, Beauchamp and Miller, 2007) and “Virtual Learning Platforms” (Passey and Higgins, 2013). All of these can be characterised by initial enthusiasm for a technology, often shared by practitioners and students in the classroom, then a search for evidence of effectiveness, followed by a refocusing on a newer technology emerging on the horizon. I think of this as a series of breaking waves of optimism, increasing in height as each approaches the shore. Then, as the wave breaks and rushes up the beach we try to estimate whether the tide is coming in or going out in terms of educational improvement. Next, the initial enthusiasm recedes, like the wave running back down the beach and we look out to sea at the next wave approaching the beach. As I stand on the technological “shore” at this point in time, I can hear the crash of iPads and tablets as the wave of enthusiasm for this technology breaks on the beach, and

I can make out the swell of MOOCs, Clouds, gamification and learning analytics as these waves approach.

This perhaps casts too negative a view of technology and its impact on teaching and learning. Each technology has not necessarily been washed away by the next, but some find their own particular niche and have become embedded. This might be for a number of reasons - not necessarily educational. They may provide as effective an approach, but may be more cost-effective or simply more popular. We still use printed books, a technology introduced to Europe by Gutenberg in about 1439, so long ago we perhaps no longer think of moveable type and books as a technology. There are alternative media for reading, but we will have to see to what extent electronic books replace bound printed versions in the remainder of this century. The underlying technology of the written (or digitised) word however shows no sign of being replaced, despite enthusiasm for the multi-modal presentation of information.

Overall, however, the impact of technology on teaching and learning has not been as great as initially predicted (Cuban, 1986), nor is there clear and consistent evidence of positive effects on learners’ outcomes (Higgins, Xiao and Katsipatakis, 2012). If my argument is correct, then it is for teachers and learners to identify how new and emerging digital technologies can help them to teach and to learn more effectively or more efficiently than before. This way each successive technology will only replace or displace less effective practices. We cannot afford to wait until each new piece of digital equipment has been thoroughly tested and evaluated before introducing it. This simply takes too long and a newer version or more innovative technology will appear. What we can do is look at what the existing evidence tells us in terms of teaching and learning, both about technology and about effective approaches to teaching and learning more broadly, and make some predictions about how a new approach might be better than something we already do, then test and critically evaluate the potential improvement so that we can be reasonably sure we are not just adopting technology for technology’s sake.

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Mobility and
Growth



The final set of nine papers in this volume (prefaced with comments by the Italian Minister of Education, University and Research) comes from a Regional Policy Dialogue event on the theme of content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Richard Rossner's opening contribution raises a series of wide-ranging questions about what CLIL is, the different forms it takes, its contribution to subject matter and language learning, and how it supports the EU's 2020 education strategy. Phil Ball and Keith Kelly focus on the idea of CLIL as doing things with languages and how this notion of competence can support the EU's goals for employability and mobility. John Clegg's paper extends issues raised in previous contributions, arguing that CLIL is well-placed to develop many of the transversal competences defined by the EU. This is followed by Franz Mittendorfer's reflections on both the benefits of CLIL and the challenges that teachers face in implementing it. One way forward, he recommends, is partnership among teachers.

Kate Bentley examines parameters which contribute to effective CLIL and concludes that teachers' confidence in their ability to teach content through another language is fundamental. Important too is teachers' ability to make productive connections between the L1 and the L2 and the use of learning-oriented assessment. Gisella Langé describes the growth of CLIL in Italy and outlines steps that are being taken there to maximise the effectiveness of CLIL. She also comments on a number of benefits that CLIL in Italy is seen to have, for teachers and learners. Teresa Ting's paper provides a more specific analysis of CLIL in Italy by examining the development of productive literacy (both L1 and L2) in student writing. Andreas Baerenthaler brings this collection of papers to a close by describing how CLIL has been implemented in Austrian technical and vocational colleges, highlighting several facilitative conditions as well as some challenges.





Message from Stefania Giannini, the Italian Minister of Education, University and Research

Stefanie Giannini



It is with great pleasure that I welcome you to Italy for the fourth British Council Regional policy dialogue, which is being held in Como. I would have loved to join you for these important discussions, but unfortunately other commitments prevented me from travelling to Como.

The European Union has done important work in the field of education, but there is still a lot to be done. The issues of the Conference are good governance and quality education for CLIL. Quality education has long been at the heart of reforms in education in most countries, and we all know how important education is to us Europeans and for the future success of Europe. Good governance that focuses on democratic participation is essential in educational institutions at all levels – primary, secondary and tertiary education – in order to provide proper skills and qualifications for all students to cope in life.

The Italian Ministry of Education is currently working to implement new regulations approved in 2010 where CLIL is mandatory in the final year of Upper Secondary Schools and will become effective as from September 2014. Training activities have been organised countrywide in universities and other institutions, to strengthen teacher competence-building, broaden CLIL awareness and extend its practice. Schools are gradually introducing the teaching of a subject in a foreign language showing evidence of the impact that CLIL can have in terms of educational outcomes.

I believe that this conference can greatly contribute to the goals set up by the ET 2020 strategy by fostering

competitiveness and growth and offering useful insights and concrete results.

I'm also convinced that the intensive discussions on such a topical theme can provide the opportunity to share good practices and experiences, as well as indicating directions for future developments.

I'm delighted to be able to thank the British Council for the outstanding professionalism and great enthusiasm with which it is supporting the shaping of a common vision and the achievement of common goals.





Education and Training 2020 and Languages: Coming To Terms

Richard Rossner



Introduction

The title of this timely professional dialogue event organised by the British Council, Italy, highlights certain key concepts relevant to Europe's intended strategy for education in the current decade, notably - "competence", "competence-based education", "employability", "mobility" and "CLIL". My presentation focused on examining these terms and exploring their implications, before raising questions about the potential role of second and foreign languages, and in particular content and language-integrated learning (or CLIL) approaches, in meeting the EU's strategic objectives for education, training and learning.

The EU's current education strategy is laid out in the Council's Conclusions relating to *Education and Training 2020* (ET 2020):

In the period up to 2020, the primary goal of European cooperation should be to support the further development of education and training systems in the Member States which are aimed at ensuring:

- a. the personal, social and professional fulfilment of all citizens;
- b. sustainable economic prosperity and employability, whilst promoting democratic values, social cohesion, active citizenship, and intercultural dialogue. (Council Conclusions, 12 May 2009)

The key words here are "fulfilment", which we can take to mean the meeting of individual needs through the development of competences that will enable individuals to achieve their personal and professional goals and to feel fully integrated in the society in which they live, and "employability", which is an aid in achieving these fulfilment goals.

Employability and Mobility

If employability is a "primary goal" of ET 2020, it is important to understand what it means. A useful gloss can be found in the Language for Jobs report, which will be referred to several times in this paper: "Employability is understood as the combination of factors which enable individuals to progress towards or get into employment and to progress during their career". (Languages for Jobs report, p 11). The questions that arise about employability and education are, among others, the following:

- a. How should employability be addressed in school curricula, and teaching and learning?
- b. From what age should we start focusing on employability?
- c. Which "competences" are required to enable individuals to become and remain employable?

Without answering these questions satisfactorily for all stakeholders, whether students, parents or teachers, employability may remain a vague aspiration that is not effectively catered for in mainstream education.

“Mobility” is often linked to employability because a readiness and capacity to work in other European countries brings with it wider employment options. “Mobility” is described in EU documents, for example, as follows:

*“The construction of a genuine European area of knowledge is a priority for the Community both for cultural and economic reasons. **The mobility of citizens, notably as regards education and training, encourages the sharing of cultures and promotes the concept of European citizenship as well as that of a political Europe.** Besides, in an internationalised economy, **the ability to educate oneself and work in a multilingual environment is essential to the competitiveness of the European economy.**”*
Europa website (2014) – my emphasis.

What is significant here is that greater emphasis is placed on the educational and cultural benefits of mobility than on employment or economic advantages. However, as is clear from internal EU migration patterns, the instinct of citizens is to “follow the money” or, more specifically, the better opportunities for employment. But such international mobility is often short-term and in reality involves a very small proportion of EU citizens – no more than 0.3% according to the latest OECD survey (OECD, 2012, p.64). This compares with nearly 2.5% of interstate mobility within the United States. Whether such differences relate to international language barriers in the EU (not a problem in the US), or to other factors, is not clear.

To my mind, “mobility” as it relates to education raises the following questions:

- a. What are the main drivers of international mobility?
Are they to do with education, aspiration, employment

opportunities, economics, or just personal preference?

- b. Employability is a key priority both for learners and educators, and mobility, i.e. free movement of workers, is part of the EU’s strategy. But why do so relatively few European citizens seek to study or work in other EU countries?
- c. How helpful is the experience of mobility in fulfilling long-term personal goals?
- d. What competences contribute most significantly to an individual’s readiness for, and ability to, benefit from mobility as part of fulfilling their individual goals?

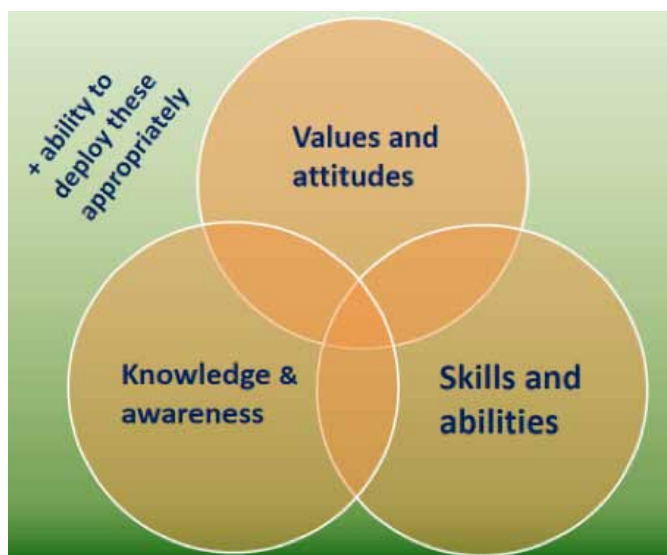
In summary, both employability and mobility are factors that vary considerably in line with the personal goals, aspirations, competences and the life experiences of individuals. Education can certainly play a role in developing people’s capacity to obtain employment, to develop in their chosen vocation or profession, and to be internationally mobile, but individual circumstances and personal qualities and preferences play an arguably much greater role.

Competence and Competence-Based Education

“Competence” has been defined in several ways. For the purposes of this presentation, the definition offered by the *Languages for Jobs* report is as good as any:

“Competence means the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development.” (*Languages for Jobs* report, p 12). Figure 1 attempts to capture the complexity of “competence”. The overlapping roles of attitudes, knowledge, and practical skills are all subject to the manner in which individuals deploy these in given contexts for specific purposes.

Figure 1. Overlapping elements of ‘competence’
(Rossner, 2014)



However, any such representation oversimplifies “competence”. In a given case, it is not easy to pick apart how exactly knowledge and understanding support practical skills, and how these are influenced by an individual’s attitude or values. In its application, a given competence has to be seen ‘as a whole’, not as a bundle of components. For example, being interviewed for a job involves knowledge about the employer and the type of job, as well as skill in using that knowledge to answer questions or present oneself as a candidate. However, it is hard to disentangle how attitude, personal factors and deployment of these elements of competence contribute to a successful interview.

“Key competences” have been an important part of EU education strategy, especially in lifelong learning. Eight such key competences were set out:

- a. “Communication in the mother tongue
- b. Communication in foreign languages
- c. Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology
- d. Digital competence
- e. Learning to learn

- f. Social and civic competences
- g. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship
- h. Cultural awareness and expression”

(Annex to the Recommendation of the European Parliament 2006)

Another part of ET 2020 refers to “transversal competences”:

Strategic objective 4

“As well as engendering personal fulfilment, creativity constitutes a prime source of innovation, which in turn is acknowledged as one of the key drivers of sustainable economic development. Creativity and innovation are crucial to enterprise development and to Europe’s ability to compete internationally. A first challenge is to promote the acquisition by all citizens of transversal key competences such as digital competence, learning to learn, a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, and cultural awareness.” (Council Conclusions, 12 May 2009) – my emphasis.

Meanwhile, the emphasis in US education has been on “21st century skills”. These include:

“Interdisciplinary themes:

- Global awareness
- Financial and entrepreneurial literacy
- Health and environmental literacy

Learning & innovation skills [the four Cs]:

- Creativity and innovation
- Critical thinking and problem solving
- Communication
- Collaboration

Life & career skills:

- Flexibility and adaptability
- Initiative and self-direction

- Social and cross-cultural skills
- Productivity and accountability

Information, media and technology skills”

Within the US education system these “skills” have been represented as indicated in Figure 2:

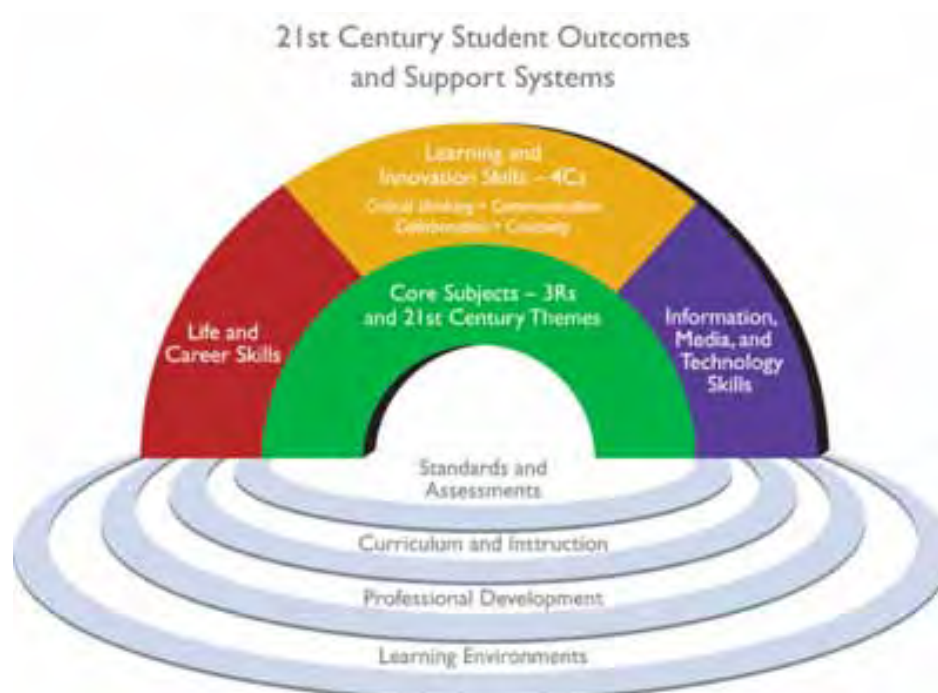
It can be seen from Figure 2 how these key competences are intended in the U.S. to be focused on all areas of the education system, including the professional development of teachers.

The notion of “competence-based education” raises some other important points for educational policy-makers as well as practitioners. The first has to do with the need to define in some detail, and in a manner that can inform all stakeholders, the competences that are to form the “basis” of education at each stage of it, and how these competences relate to the goals of ET 2020, including employability and personal fulfilment. A second issue revolves around what is labelled a “competence”. For example, although “creativity” is

related to “transversal competences” according to ET 2020, and is a “21st century skill” according to the U.S. definition, is creativity actually a skill, a competence or a personal quality? And what about “innovation”, also mentioned in ET 2020, or “imagination”, which underpins innovation and creativity? Related to these questions, how exactly can teachers help to develop creativity or innovation in young people? What curriculum guidelines and professional training are needed? A further issue is how early “competence-based education” should begin.

In summary, when education from a young age focuses on the development of competences, many of which are ‘transversal’ in the sense that they are not specific to given subjects or disciplines, we must begin to reconsider “the retooling of education”. First, clear and properly validated descriptions, or “competence frameworks”, are needed to specify the competences that are to be targeted, and to indicate how each competence is expected to be developed during a child’s and a young person’s education. So far as I am aware, a detailed framework incorporating indicators of achievement has not yet been developed. Competence targets then need to be incorporated into and

Figure 2. Framework for 21st Century Learning (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009)



catered for in curricula and formative and summative assessment procedures. And of course, assuming that competence-based education is relevant to all subjects and disciplines, intensive additional theoretical and practical training for teachers of all subjects will be required. 2020 is not so far away and, in order to achieve the goals of ET 2020, stakeholders must work in close collaboration and quickly to retool their education, training and language programmes so as to respond adequately to the interdisciplinary, transnational and multilingual reality of the 21st century.

Languages, Competences and Employability

As can be seen from the list of transversal competences for lifelong learning, cited above, high on the list are:

- competence in the first language, which in today's world may not be the language of the surrounding community and
- competence in foreign languages.

As pointed out in the *Languages for Jobs* report:

“Seen from an employment perspective, language skills are always a means to an end. Academics as well as students in initial vocational education and training need to make sure that their language skills become part of a qualifications profile that matches the future requirements of the labour market.”
(*Languages for Jobs* report, p 13)

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) has this to say about communicative and language competences:

*“Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by persons who, as individuals and as social agents, develop a range of **competences**, both **general** and, in particular, **communicative language competences**. They draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various **conditions** and under various constraints to engage in **language activities** involving **language processes** to produce and/*

*or receive **texts** in relation to **themes** in specific **domains**, activating those **strategies** which seem most appropriate for carrying out the **tasks** to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.”* (Council of Europe 2001, p 9 – authors’ emphasis).

This view of communication and of the role of language in it is relevant not just to foreign language learning but to the part played by language and communication in education as a whole. After all, learning of almost anything, including of transversal competences, inevitably involves language, and teaching in support of learning of any subject or of any knowledge or skills is essentially a particular kind of communication.

Within the context of the EU, one language, English, has, for better or for worse, come to be seen more as a “basic skill” than as a foreign language (Graddol, 2006, p 72). In several countries in the EU and elsewhere, this has led to the emergence of bilingual approaches to education, including “CLIL”. So what is CLIL? Again, there is no lack of definitions. David Marsh, one of the best known advocates of CLIL, defines it as follows:

“Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) refers to any dual-focused educational context in which an additional language, thus not usually the first language of the learners involved, is used as a medium in the teaching and learning of non-language content. It is dual-focused because whereas attention may be predominantly on either subject-specific content or language, both are always accommodated.” (Marsh, 2002)

The simplified version of this is to be found in the “Languages for Jobs” report, “CLIL ... is an approach in which a foreign language is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum with the aim of developing both language skills and content knowledge”. (“Language and Jobs” report, 2011, p 12)

This is actually not so straightforward. The notion is that, whilst teaching and learning of given subject matter is going on in an additional language (for the student and probably for the teacher), that language

can simultaneously be taught and learnt. CLIL, then, is different from simply teaching and learning subject matter in a language which is not the students' first language, as happens in bilingual education. For one thing, it requires that teachers involved in CLIL are both sufficiently competent as teachers of the subject matter, for example science or geography, and also have the awareness of and sufficient competence in the language being used to guide students in improving their competence in that language while learning the subject matter. This clearly requires a different approach to pre-service teacher-training, which, in most countries, has traditionally focused on subject or foreign-language education but rarely both. More importantly, CLIL-teacher preparation must involve the mastery of a range of teaching skills and pedagogic and didactic knowledge and awareness which are not often part of pre-service teacher training.

In reality, as CLIL has grown and developed throughout the EU and beyond, it seems to me (as a CLIL outsider) to have become a label for a diverse set of approaches spanning wide practices ranging from intensive bilingual teaching of subjects to occasional hours in the week dedicated to the teaching of miscellaneous subject matter in a foreign language. The age at which CLIL approaches are used in education systems also varies considerably, from early primary to upper secondary. Nevertheless, policy makers and practitioners, depending on the country, have forged ahead with a variety of initiatives, often in order to respond to the desire of stakeholders, including parents, to ensure that students develop their competence in English as a "basic skill" (while there are examples of other languages being taught through CLIL, more often than not the additional language is English).

Can it be claimed that CLIL approaches in themselves promote or support the development of the transversal competences discussed above? This is far from clear except as regards competence in a foreign language. If competence-based education is the aim, transversal competences should logically be taught and acquired, along with all the subjects in a curriculum. However, one can assume that, if a CLIL approach means that students use more English (for example) than they would

if they only had only traditional English lessons, then this additional input and practice will probably speed up their acquisition of English. On the other hand, if a foreign language is used to teach a subject, the learning of the subject might in some instances be "slowed down" or even undermined.

There are undoubtedly many arguments in favour of certain CLIL approaches. Depending on the approach adopted, evidence seems to show that the use of additional languages in subject teaching helps to develop cognitive skills and cognitive literacy (c.f. Grandinetti et al, 2013): using an additional language for a purpose such as learning another subject or acquiring key competences is clearly more realistic and purposeful than, for example, learning grammar "for the sake of it", and Ting (2011) presents evidence that, if a thought-through, balanced model of CLIL (the "core CLIL construct") is adopted, and use of the foreign language is adapted to learners' competence levels, the content will be better mediated due to the need to ensure that CLIL instruction focuses on manageable chunks. In short, learning rather than "teaching" becomes the natural focus in this kind of CLIL.

Whatever the merits of CLIL approaches, various questions will need to be addressed by any institution or national authority which is considering introducing CLIL into the curriculum or is reviewing its CLIL policy. First, is CLIL to be used as a *general* approach to teaching and learning, or as an approach to *language-teaching* and learning? If the latter, how is it different from teaching and learning a language for specific purposes or task or project-based language learning? After all, most current methods of language teaching integrate language with content in some way, as can be seen from current language textbooks.

A different question arises where CLIL is adopted for teaching content subjects. If English is the language in question, will this not undermine the aim to equip students with competence in their mother tongue and two foreign languages (EU 2003), and further reinforce the "hegemony of English" (Kaplan, 1993) Measures need to be taken to ensure that this does not happen.

A feature of CLIL approaches in Europe, apart from their sheer variety, is the difference in the ages of children with whom they are used. In several countries, some kind of CLIL is introduced at primary level. Using a CLIL approach as part of the general primary curriculum implies a belief that combining early language learning with the acquisition of basic numeracy, literacy and cognitive skills will benefit the average child. CLIL at primary level also raises the bar for primary teachers, who in most countries anyway teach “across the curriculum”. Should they be asked to teach partly in a foreign language, or will a language specialist be called upon?

This question of specialism also arises with CLIL in secondary education. If CLIL is handled by subject teachers, will the teaching of (for example) English as a subject be reduced as a consequence? If so, what are the implications for specialist teachers of English? Moreover, as CLIL involves the use of specific methods, techniques and materials, there are considerable implications for training (or retraining) for all teachers involved in CLIL. Having said that, the kind of (re)training involved may really (re)motivate and inspire experienced teachers, who often lack genuine professional development opportunities.

Conclusion

In this presentation, I wanted to raise questions of the kind that education professionals without direct experience of CLIL or competence-based education might raise in order to seek clarification and decide on policy. In educational terms, personal growth is just as important as national and international economic growth, if not more so. In the end, what young people and adults in education need is to acquire the “right” competences for life and their own empowerment, not only for employability and mobility. These include key and transversal competences, as well as communicative competences, and other qualities such as creativity and adaptability. However, so far as I am aware, no detailed descriptions of these competences and qualities, cross-referenced with age-related cognitive development, are available for policy makers and practitioners. On

the other hand, achieving the right balance between atomism and holism in competence-based education seems even more crucial than in “traditional” curricula and assessment. This makes competence-based curriculum development a crucial task that requires great care.

Regarding CLIL itself, few data are so far available on the exact nature of the approaches already being used across Europe. A comparative quantitative and qualitative survey of the role of CLIL in education systems would be advantageous as it could map the similarities and differences between ages at which CLIL begins, the subjects concerned, the amount of time per week given to CLIL which teachers do the CLIL teaching, and so on. It could also provide information about how given CLIL approaches have so far affected student attainment in the subjects and in the languages concerned, as well as in the development of transversal competences, what additional training was provided to CLIL teachers, and other key issues. Such data would help policy makers to define or categorise and reflect on the CLIL approach that they have adopted or are considering adopting. Without such an information-base, there is a risk of CLIL remaining an ill-defined portmanteau concept. Equally crucial is more well-designed research into the impact of CLIL, or specific varieties of CLIL, on learning, motivation and educational achievement at different ages.

The educational potential of CLIL may be high, and its ability to contribute to ET 2020 may be significant, but the enthusiasm and experience of CLIL practitioners is not, on its own, sufficient for any such impact to be achieved. A solid foundation is needed to enable principles and rational policies to be formulated and implemented.

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CLIL and Competences: Assessment

Phil Ball

The talk focused on seven main areas:

1. Assessment in general
2. Competences and CLIL
3. The key lifelong competences. Are they still appropriate? Are they adequate?
4. Competence as performance
5. CLIL's possible role as a conduit for competences
6. Using languages to learn
7. What does competence-based assessment (CBA) look like?

The basic message of the talk was that assessment is complex within standard education theory, but equally problematic with regard to a narrower paradigm such as CLIL. Add the further dimension of competences, and the picture gets trickier still.

Assessment in General

Nevertheless, although CLIL and competence-based assessment need to be considered as issues distinct from standard assessment theories and frameworks, they join the rest of the runners at the starting line. Assessment in CLIL, for example, is subject to the same rules – *validity*, *reliability* and *washback* – as any standard paradigm. With *validity*, you assess what you teach, with *reliability* you attempt to construct coherent test tools that actually reflect what the student knows and can do, and with *washback*, you try to assess the student in the spirit and manner in which he/she was taught. CLIL and competences tend towards a more process-oriented view of education, a more hands-on approach.



This is a logical extension of the fact that competences themselves must be observable in terms of student performance (to be discussed in more detail), and so the implications for assessment are considerable (if students are supposed to perform in some way). If you have taught your students using group work, research, presentations, problem-solving, critical thinking etc. - it would be strange to assess them summatively in a mere product-oriented way, where process and product are seen not as opposing tendencies but as priorities in the syllabus. From a competence-based perspective, the process is often more important than the product. The conceptual content is merely the vehicle to do something – to perform (competently) in a given situation.

The talk, therefore, attempted to paint a landscape in which assessment determines the pedagogic approach and reflects the general practice. This requires consensus at almost every level of operation, and is by no means easy. But we have to be aware of the changes to assessment procedures that a true competence-based approach will bring in its wake. If we are to contemplate this throughout Europe, then, as the talk suggested, we cannot have teacher-centred philosophies and serried ranks of single-row classrooms walking hand-in-hand with more student-centred, more process-oriented approaches. The beauty of implementing a real educational competence map of Europe would be that greater consensus could be achieved as to what we consider to be 'good practice'. CLIL, almost accidentally, seems to have helped us to focus on this.

Initially, however, CLIL and competences need to be considered under three general headings: system, institution and learner – the three main impact areas.

With regard to the first, system, each country needs to be able to compare itself with other systems, to know that it is broadly on the right track (or not). The PISA exams (which have a strong competence component) currently fulfil this purpose for the volunteer countries, but the introduction of more CLIL and more competence-based practice must not throw a country out of kilter. It must retain its national and international accountability, monitor its system and develop its policies. It must be able to trust in these new proposals (CLIL and competences) to preserve the validity of its chosen framework.

At the *institutional level*, the introduction of a competence approach and the adoption of more CLIL must again help to monitor against national standards, develop internal quality assurance and be accompanied by feedback to the various stakeholders – teachers, trainers, tutors, learners and parents. Transparent assessment procedures and ongoing systemic evaluation are more necessary than ever. Stakeholders need to feel that the effort and the innovation have been worthwhile, and that they have yielded results.

At the learner level, achievement is monitored, strengths and weaknesses diagnosed, progress is tracked – all of which leads to feedback for teachers regarding their teaching, and learners regarding their learning. This does not change when CLIL is introduced.

Competences and CLIL

CLIL is not necessarily in itself a competence-oriented phenomenon. But there does seem to be a strong interface at the level of practice, and consequently at the level of assessment. CLIL seems to default into a competence-oriented framework, maybe because teachers instinctively recognise the potential barrier that an additional language (which is not the mother tongue) creates for a learner. The old “transmission” methods, where the model teacher was required to be a good presenter, a performer, a purveyor of knowledge, are difficult to sustain in a CLIL-oriented environment.

Teachers recognise the limitations of explanation, and begin to seek new ways to break down content, to make it more comprehensible. This inevitably leads to a widening of their teaching repertoires, and to a heightening of their methodological awareness. The same is surely true of a competence framework, where the necessity to assess the student in terms of performance demands a completely different approach to both teaching and summative/formative assessment.

The Key Competences

However, when we compare the possibilities that competence-based approaches offer, specifically with regard to language learning, then the 2nd Key Lifelong learning competence, “Communication in foreign languages” looks curiously old-fashioned and far too vague in its remit. We may be able to “communicate”, but for what purpose, and to what effect? Why do we wish to communicate? In a competence-based world, we communicate for pragmatic reasons, in order to get something done. By doing things (crudely speaking) in relation to specific tasks in a specific context, we demonstrate our competences. The talk therefore suggested that one recommendation to make to the EC might be the updating of this competence to include a more CLIL-based tinge, where the new one might read “Doing things with languages”. Simplistic though it may seem, it is surely at the heart of the competence-based matter.

Indeed, David Graddol’s (2006) famous statement in English Next: British Council that English was now not a language but a “core skill” bears this notion out. Graddol might now change his phrase to “language” (not merely English) as a core skill, since CLIL to a great extent, and competences to some extent, use language as their motor, as their vehicle. Graddol’s other phrase - that people now learned English not as a language but “in order to do something else” perfectly anticipated the title of the Lake Como gathering, eight years on from his document. It is this perspective of language, that it is a vehicle, but a vehicle whose behaviour and characteristics need to be understood and made salient – that lies behind the marriage of CLIL and competences.

Competence as Performance

The talk expressed a fear that the definition of “competence” was still unclear, or was at least subject to various definitions and interpretations. The three components of a competence, namely “knowledge, skills and attitudes” were insufficient, because a student might possess all three but still be “incompetent”. In order to demonstrate competence, a student had to “perform”. The competence has to be observable. However, the competence needs a situation (as authentic as possible, given the scholastic environment), a *reason*, and a specific *target audience*. These were the criteria that underpinned performance. The wonderful thing about the criteria is that they are all conduits for expression and communication. They justify the communication, and they condition it. These parameters enable the assessment criteria to be clearer, more practical, and above all more coherent. Students tend to see the objectives more clearly.

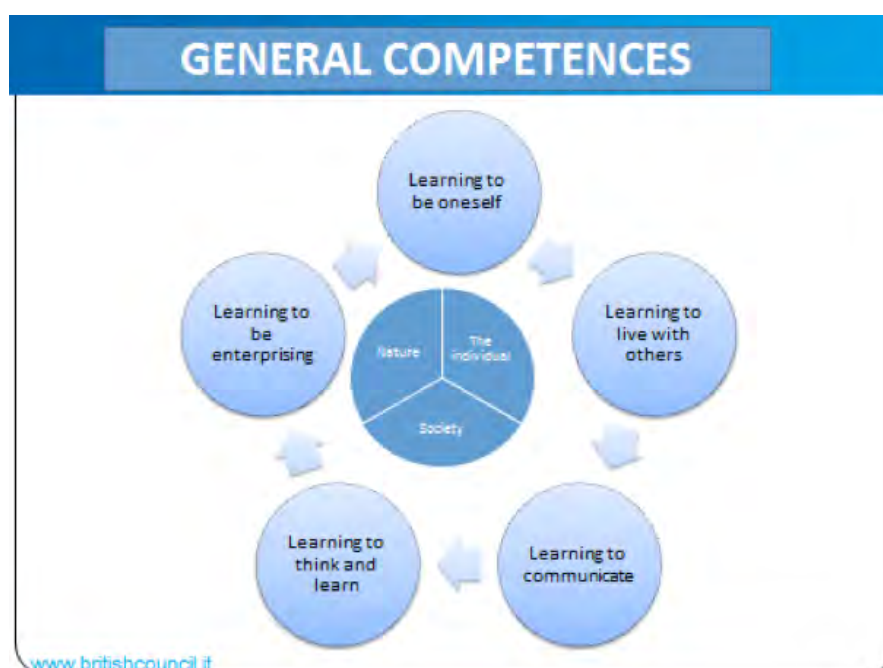
This has enormous implications for assessment, and also for curricular coherence. We cannot assess performance (process) by merely summative (product) means. It would make no sense. So assessment absolutely determines the shape of competence-based education, and must be its point of departure.

Language as Transversal Content

Of equal importance is the notion that all competences, right across the curriculum, are underpinned by language – the only truly transversal component. For example, as an overall framework of “Life” we can consider “Nature”, “The Individual” and “Society” as all-encompassing, themselves framed by a series of meta-disciplinary competences that any one country can choose as the axis of its curriculum. So, for example, the Basque Country (within Spain) has chosen for its autonomous community the following five competences (Figure 1) – roughly adapted from the *8 Key Lifelong Learning* competences of the EC.

These meta-disciplinary competences are then made concrete (and more conventionally assessment-worthy) by being tacked onto normal school subject-based disciplines, which form a third outer layer to Figure 1. However, the entire map is brought together by the inclusion of *language*, both in terms of its presence in the differing discourse fields of each subject and in terms of its impact on cognition (Figure 2). In short – without language, the curriculum falls apart. As the Alpha and the Omega, its explicit inclusion in a competence-based framework is crucial. CLIL can play an obvious part in the development of such curricula.

Figure 1



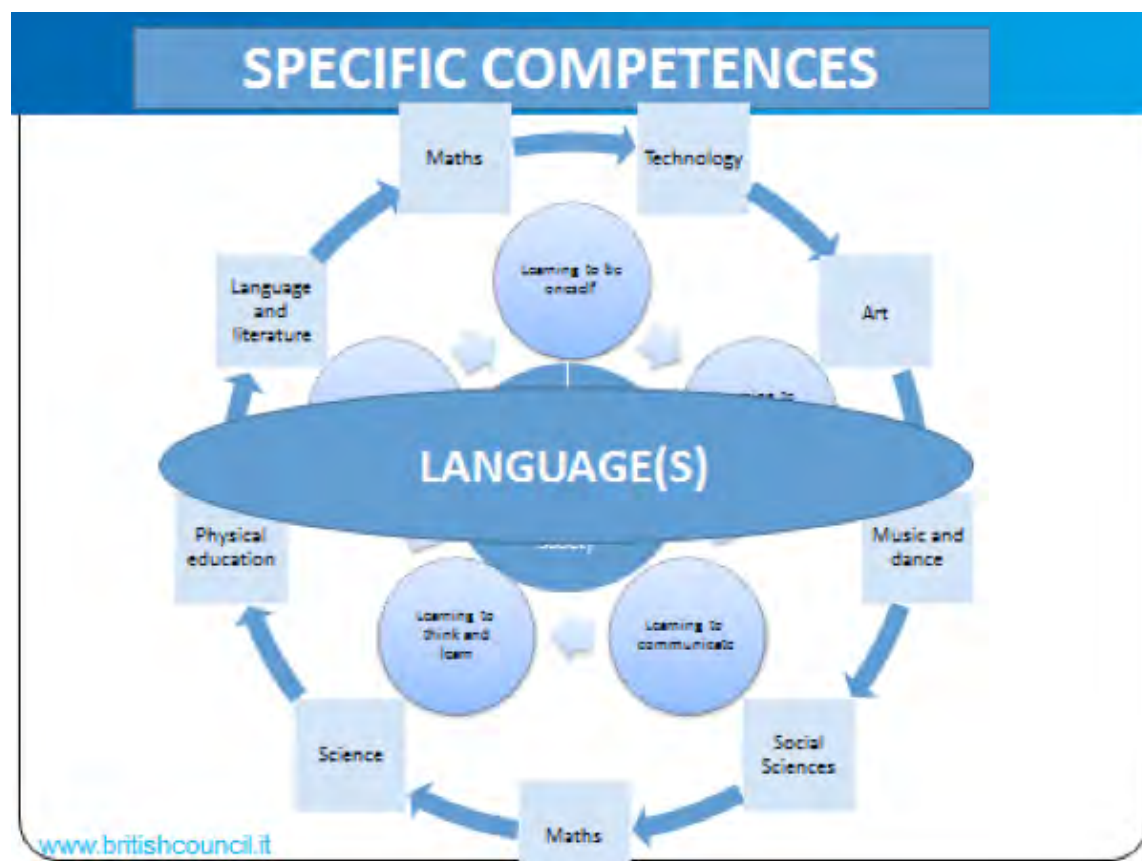
CLIL & Competences Versus Standard Approaches

It could be said, therefore, that the new map for European education, if it is to take CLIL and competences on board, could be summarised by the notion “Using **language**, through different **content**, to develop **competences**.” Also, we must not forget that it is equally valid and possible to assess metadisciplinary content in itself. There is no reason why we cannot use the subject content as the vehicle, and use it to develop a general competence. In the talk, it was suggested (as an example) that one could teach the Theory of Relativity in Physics as the vehicle for teaching Civic Competences, or learning to communicate. It is merely a question of the explicit nature of the objective(s). However, the talk suggested that a combination of content assessment and meta-disciplinary assessment

would be the fairest and perhaps most coherent way forward, for now at least.

For language teaching itself, the talk suggested that CLIL-based assessment was feasible, in that “content” could be tested, using the language as the vehicle. The example used was the topic “Saving the World”, where for the ELT class the objective was the second conditional (“If I were the President of the world I would reduce carbon emissions” etc.) but for the CLIL class (either the English syllabus or a subject-based one) the objective was to *save the world*. Obviously, this is a good objective (!) but the language (the second conditional) is the vehicle by which to save it, not the focus of study. In short, the CLIL objective makes more sense, and is likely to be more motivating for the students. It is “doing things with language”.

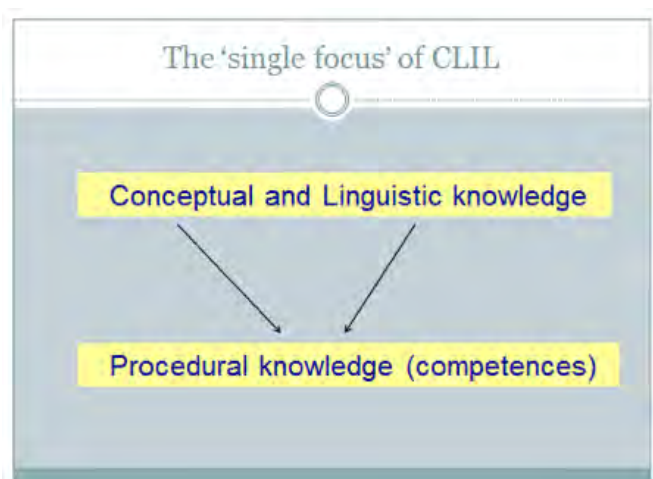
Figure 2



Three Dimensions

Other points mentioned were the idea, expressed in a forthcoming book entitled *'Putting CLIL into Practice'* (Ball, Clegg and Kelly, 2015), that CLIL-based education could be assessed by a three-dimensional approach, considering the linguistic, procedural and conceptual content, and prioritising any of these dimensions in relation to the objectives of a unit of work. Also, the old canard of whether CLIL assesses content or language was put to rest by the claim that language is indeed "content". If language is viewed as the vehicle through which conceptual and procedural understanding is expressed, and viewed as a range of 'discourse' from a variety of fields, then it is relatively simple to assess. In this light, the talk suggested that Marsh's definition of CLIL as a "dual-focused approach" was probably untrue now. Rather it was now a single approach (Figure 3) where conceptual and linguistic knowledge function as vehicles for "procedural" knowledge, a notion synonymous with "competence".

Figure 3



Priorities

The talk concluded with two points: firstly by repeating that the EU key competence "Communication in foreign languages" was inadequate for a competence framework, and should be changed to a more performance-based orientation such as "Doing things with languages" and secondly, by emphasising that the inculcation of a competence-based framework would require a solid base of consensus, underpinned by four basic priorities:

1. We have to prove that there are benefits;
2. We have to identify those benefits;
3. We have to agree on the benefits;
4. We have to change assessment parameters to reward multilingual skills.

References

Ball, P. Clegg, J. and Kelly, K. *Putting CLIL into Practice*: Oxford, Oxford University Press (forthcoming 2015)

Graddol, D. (2006) *English Next*. London, British Council.





Competence-Based Learning and Skills for Employability and Mobility

Phil Ball and Keith Kelly



Giving a rationale to any educational initiative needs to take into consideration the factor of “context” in which initiatives are being undertaken. The European context is a busy and dramatic one for CLIL to develop at a time of ongoing economic crisis, where young people are increasingly victims of high unemployment and where the same young people are expected to develop the skills needed for mobility in answer to the difficult situations in which they find themselves.

Young people are expected to be mobile. Young people need to cope with migration in their search for work opportunities. They need mobility (immigration) within their own country context as jobs move them from one part of their homeland to another. Within large companies, young professionals are expected to be able to move around from department to department, sometimes between different countries, but also frequently between cities.

What then, does CLIL offer these young Europeans? The European Union is, at the time of writing, promoting an education in Europe for “Employability, mobility and growth”. The key competences which the European Union has laid out as a challenge for educational systems around Europe to deliver, are effectively provided using a CLIL-based approach. What CLIL does for education - and hence for those studying the curriculum in this context, is bring competences to the foreground. CLIL is first and foremost about identifying the competences that young people need. Secondly, identifying the communicative skills that accompany these competences, and thirdly, making decisions about classroom practice in order to give young people the

chance to gain experience of these skills and acquire them in meaningful, curriculum-led activities.

We might contextualise this with the example of someone learning how to juggle (see Figure 1). It is almost impossible to learn how to juggle simply by reading about it. Learning to juggle demands a “sympathetic”, more advanced collaborator, such as that played by a teacher in a CLIL classroom. It is the interplay between the physical and visual display of a “facilitator” doing some juggling for the novice to watch and listen to, and then the interaction between ‘expert’ and ‘learner’ through a foreign language which creates the rich language and content learning environment embodied by CLIL in Europe.

Figure 1: CLIL is ‘learning to juggle’ in a foreign language



Implementing CLIL does carry a price. It may demand a sacrifice in terms of some of the pure curriculum content. Working through a second language can be more time consuming! Nevertheless, there is no question that CLIL brings with it advantages for language and communication, and there is evidence which shows that where it is done well, CLIL can bring about results on a par with those achieved by mother tongue peers. With this in mind, as well as the communicative and cultural competences it carries, CLIL contributes to ongoing growth, youth employability and mobility.

CLIL is also about thinking skills, although it isn't necessarily so. It's perfectly possible to teach through another language as if the students were mother tongue recipients. But teachers rarely do this. They adjust their approach, and as such extend their own repertoires and competences. Teachers must also be competent, in order to foster the same in their students. This also impacts on national educational cultures, which tend to favour (or have tended to favour) what Dahlgren called "The Quantitative Conception of Knowledge". Every country has their version of "Who Wants to be a Millionaire?" or "Mastermind", a phenomenon that reflects a fact-based view of knowledge and an overwhelmingly declarative view. Rarely are questions asked that are based on "why" or "how" premises. We seem to value the quantitative view of knowledge, but we'll need to change this very soon, especially given the putative competence-led revolution.

In the "New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism (2005)", the stated objective was "to increase individual multilingualism until every citizen has practical skills in at least 2 languages, in addition to his or her mother tongue".

How can this be achieved? Surely by reaching some consensus about what type of educational system can bring this about. This is the function of gatherings such as Lake Como, where resolutions can be discussed and fine-tuned. However, we have already had a whole battery of initiatives: "European Year of

Languages" (2001), "Action Plan on Lang. Learning and Ling. Diversity" (2004), "New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism" (2005) and "Europe 2020", the latter still in operation. Curiously, none of Europe 2020's seven flagship initiatives mentions "Education". They mention the need to "equip people with the right skills for the jobs of today and tomorrow", but with such a dynamic and changing scene, how do we know what they [the skills] will be?

The CLIL slogan "Learning to use languages and using languages to learn" comes in here, as the very essence of this clever phrase is competence-focused. CLIL isn't about teaching and learning languages but rather it's about using them – a relevant message for the beginning of the conference. Competences are about performance – doing things with languages. Perhaps, as the opening plenary suggested, the EC Key Competence No.2, "Communication in foreign languages" should be changed to "Doing things with language(s)". It was suggested that this might figure among the eventual proposals of the conference at Lake Como.





The Role of CLIL in Developing Language and Cognitive Skills in The Curriculum

John Clegg



Specific cross-cutting, cognitive, social and cultural competences underpin successful school learning. One crucial competence is the ability to use an academic variety of language for learning. In addition, the European Union has specified eight desirable additional “transversal” competences (European Commission, 2006). I want to propose that it is not easy to teach these competences and that schools often avoid them, but that “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (CLIL) is well-placed to develop many of them.

Cross-curricular Competences

The curriculum is normally represented vertically. It is divided into separate subjects. Clearly however, some competences are cross-curricular. Fundamental to the business of school learning are thinking skills and the academic language skills we use both to develop and use them. The EU transversal competences are similarly cross-cutting. While language and cognitive skills are necessary for learning curricular contents, these transversal competences are often “additional” to learning - that is, they are desirable, but not necessary (see Figure 1).

Language and Cognitive Skills in School Learning

Language and cognitive skills are often described as including:

- thinking skills;
- knowledge of academic vocabulary;
- knowledge of academic genres (e.g. narrative, instructional, explanatory, persuasive etc.);
- academic language skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing about subjects);
- study skills (using books, libraries, internet; taking notes, summarising, planning and executing writing, etc.).

EU Transversal Skills

The transversal skills which the EU has specified are as follows:

- Communication in the mother tongue;
- Communication in foreign languages;

Figure 1. Cross-curricular competences in the curriculum

Subjects:	science	history	maths	etc
Cross-curricular competences:	language and cognitive skills			
	transversal competences			

- Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology;
- Digital competence;
- Learning to learn;
- Social and civic competences;
- Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship;
- Cultural awareness and expression.

Teaching Cross-Curricular Competences

Cross-curricular competences are often difficult to teach, for several reasons. Firstly, they tend to remain inexplicit and are part of what has been called the “hidden” curriculum. They are often not included in subject syllabuses. Secondly, teachers often assume that learners have them, or they assume that they will “pick them up”, that these competences do not need therefore to be taught. Teaching is in this sense “assumptive” (Marland, 1977). It assumes learners already possess certain abilities. Thirdly, and hand in hand with this latter assumption, is teachers’ belief that they are not responsible for teaching certain skills or that they are someone else’s responsibility. And indeed, teachers are often not trained to teach cross-cutting skills. Teaching skills, like the curriculum, are often described vertically – that is by reference to subjects. Subject teacher education often excludes these cross-curricular competences. Finally, teachers are unsure how to teach and assess these competences. And since they are often not part of teacher-education, not included in the teacher’s responsibility for teaching and assessment and not the explicit domain of one teacher, this is not surprising.

CLIL, by contrast, is cross-curricular in nature. It teaches some cross-cutting competences explicitly. One fundamental reason for this is that learners cannot learn subjects in a second language (L2) unless the language and cognitive skills they require of learners are taught explicitly – a point to which we shall return. CLIL therefore uses a pedagogy which raises some competences – in particular language and thinking skills – to the surface of classroom discourse, where they are named, discussed and taught. In addition, CLIL is – or

should be – cross-curricular in the extra-classroom sense. In other words, it depends on collaboration between teachers and on whole-school management.

Language and Cognitive Skills in CLIL

In this section I will focus on two of the language and cognitive skills listed above: thinking skills and the use of academic vocabulary.

Thinking Skills

Here is an example of thinking skills in the UK maths curriculum. In the maths public examination taken at age 16 – GCSE – candidates have to write several pages describing a mathematical investigation which they have carried out. In the example below, the maths examiners are writing to maths teachers and telling them what they, the examiners, will be looking for in good maths projects and what the teachers should therefore make sure their students can do. They should make sure their students can:

- clearly record any observations or strategies;
- use appropriate methods to record results or data;
- state any conjectures and ways of testing or justifying them;
- make generalisations;
- explain the reasoning behind these generalisations;
- make appropriate justifications;
- examine and explain any results;
- try to offer proofs.

These are thinking skills. Who teaches them? I doubt if the maths teachers do, explicitly. In addition, I doubt if the maths teachers know the phrases we use to express these skills. I myself would have to think carefully about that. I doubt also if the maths syllabus is good at highlighting these skills: they tend to belong to the hidden curriculum of cognitive and language skills essential in maths (and indeed in other subjects), but not

explicitly taught. Here are some of the most common thinking skills typically essential to school learning and required by teachers of learners, but not explicitly taught.

- defining;
- classifying;
- illustrating/exemplifying;
- describing place;
- describing objects;
- contrasting;
- comparing;
- giving reasons;
- predicting;
- hypothesising;
- expressing time sequence;
- expressing cause and effect;
- drawing conclusions/deducing.

Cognitive skills are a language issue. You learn them largely through attending to language and express them through language. The maths teacher – and the learners – need a list of phrases which are conventionally used to express these thinking skills in academic language. Here, for example, are some of the questions which teachers use to ask for reasons and some of the statements which learners use when giving them.

Teacher questions

- *Why?*
- *Why does/did...?*
- *Who can tell me why...?*
- *What is/was the reason for that?*
- *Give me a reason for that*
- *What will/would happen if...happens/happened?*

Statements

- *This is/was because...*
- *The reason for this is that...*
- *There are three reasons for this.*
- *This is/was due to...*
- *This is/was the cause of...*
- *This causes/caused ...*

While mainstream maths may not be good at making thinking skills explicit, CLIL, by contrast, is good at it. In Figure 2 is an example of CLIL teaching focusing on the skills of expressing cause and effect in bilingual primary science in Spain (Quinn, 2011). The text is about the operation of the muscles. The mini-texts show explicitly how cause and effect shows in language. They use largely the same language forms. It may be said that this repetition is boring. CLIL teachers, however, think it is very valuable, because it makes thinking skills explicit on the surface of classroom discourse, which is of course what learners need.

Figure 2. CLIL science

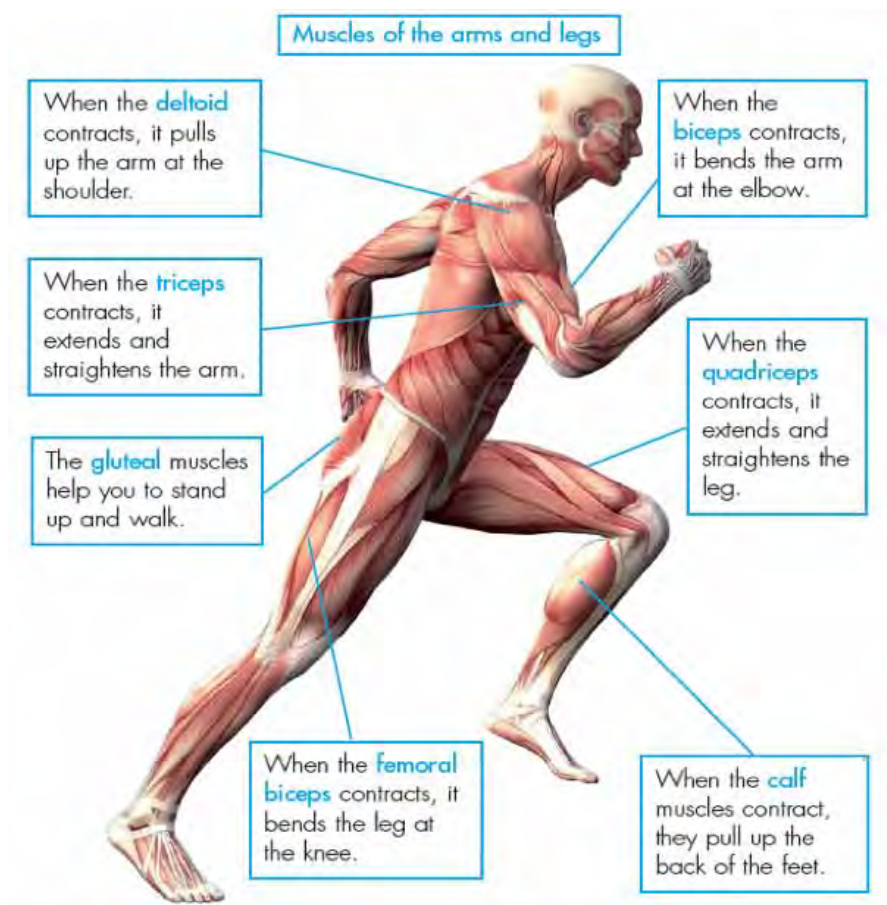


Figure 3 is a second example of CLIL teaching focusing on experimental skills for primary science. The learners are 9 year olds, learning science through English and have low English language ability. They are testing to see in what temperature a number of substances will melt. When they come to talk about their experiments before and after, a primary CLIL teacher can make the key learning skills in experimental science explicit and give support with the language the learners need to engage in these thinking processes.

Figure 3. CLIL science

1. Predicting (before the experiment)

We think	candles butter margarine ice cheese chocolate	will melt	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
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2. Reporting (after the experiment)

Candles Butter Margarine Ice Cheese Chocolate	melted	in	cold cool warm hot boiling	water
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Finally, Figure 4 is a third example of secondary learners learning history through English in Germany (Cornelsen, 2001). They are talking about colonial history in Africa. To do that, they have to express time sequence and

geographical location. To enable them to talk about the map in groups, they need support with these thinking skills. Their CLIL history book (Figure 5) provides an activity which helps them do that.

Figure 4. CLIL history

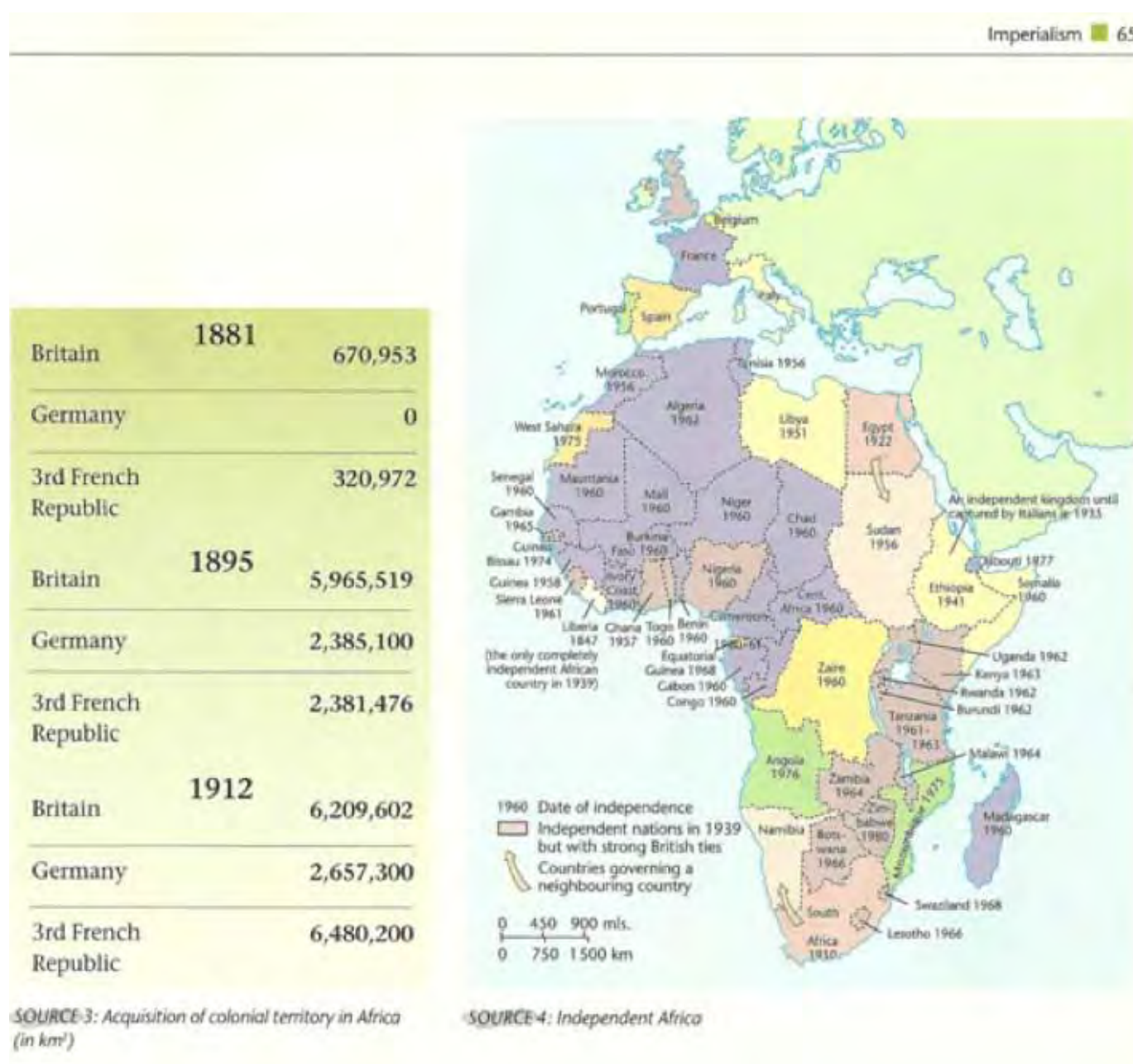
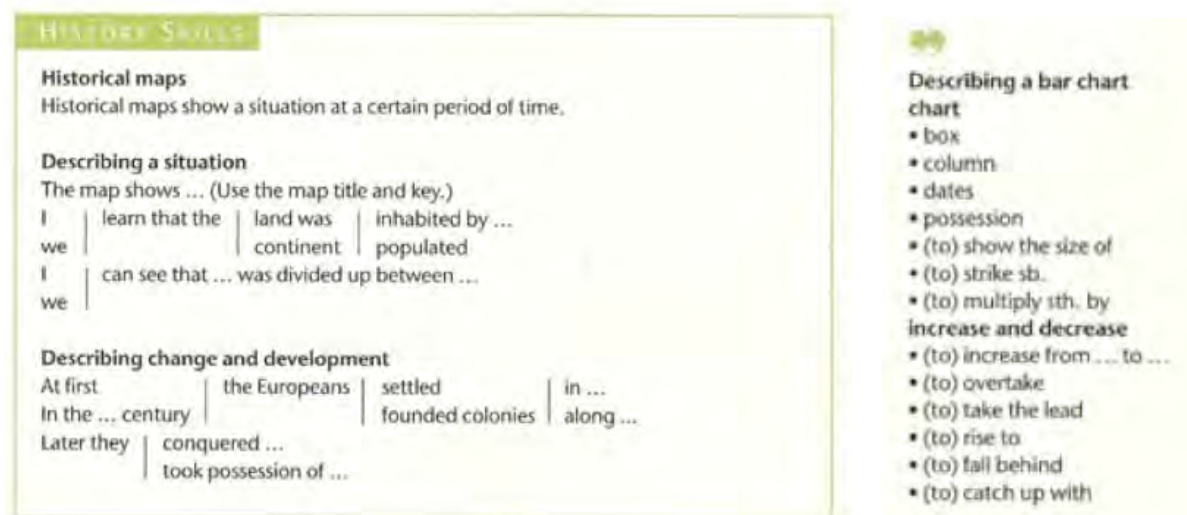


Figure 5. CLIL history



Academic Vocabulary

Cognitive skills also involve the vocabulary of thinking. There is an academic vocabulary which is not specific to subjects, but is cross-curricular. It is crucial to learning: learners cannot learn subjects without it. In Figure 6 is a list of the 150 most frequently used words in North American university discourse (Corson, 1997). None of them is subject-specific. Indeed most academic words which learners need are cross-curricular. Subject teachers, however, do not normally teach these words. They focus on the language of their subject, as opposed to the language of learning. CLIL subject teachers, by contrast, do teach these words, because without them CLIL learners cannot talk about subjects.

Transversal Competences

How does CLIL relate to the EU transversal competences? It would be foolish to suggest that CLIL can develop all these competences, but it is clearly a good vehicle for some of them.

Communication in the Mother Tongue

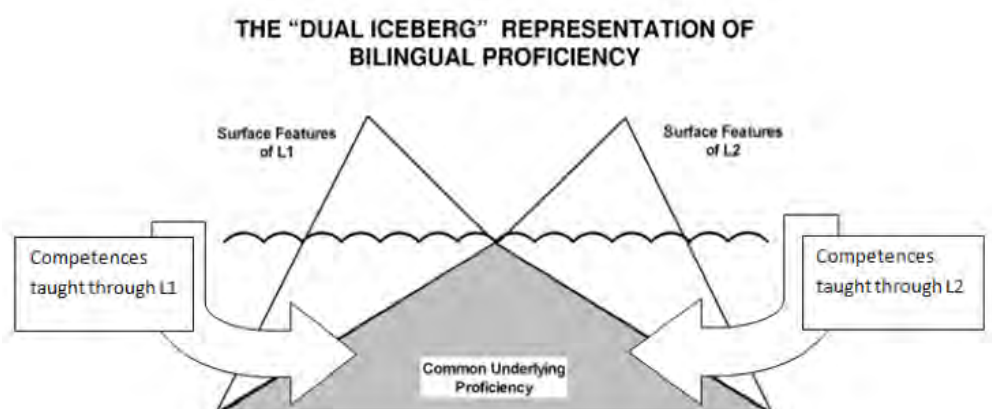
Academic language skills are learned either through L1 or L2. In Figure 7 is Cummins' (1981) diagram showing how this occurs. Academic language proficiency is to a large extent common to both languages – what Cummins calls a common underlying proficiency. If learners learn a skill such as note-taking or skimming through one language, they do not have to re-learn it when they use the other language for learning. It is clearly easier to learn these skills in L1, but many CLIL learners find themselves learning them for the first time in L2. CLIL teachers often find themselves teaching explicitly some academic skills which should have been taught in the L1, but weren't.

It is also the common experience of CLIL subject teachers that when they teach language and cognitive competences within their subject, they find themselves thinkingm 'This is what I should be teaching in L1'. In this way, CLIL teachers working in L2 find themselves supporting the development of cognitive skills in L1.

Figure 6. General academic vocabulary

accelerate	contribute	fluctuate	notion	sequence
achieve	convert	focus	obtain	series
adjacent	create	formulate	obvious	<i>shift</i>
affect	criterion	function	occur	signify
alternative	crucial	generate	passive	similar
analyze	data	guarantee	period	simultaneous
approach	define	hypothesis	perspective	sophisticated
approximate	definite	identify	pertinent	species
arbitrary	demonstrate	ignore	phase	specify
assert	denote	illustrate	phenomena	stable
assess	derive	impact	portion	statistic
assign	design	implicit	potential	status
assume	devise	imply	precede	structure
authorize	devote	indicate	precise	subsequent
automatic	dimension	individual	presume	suffice
chapter	distinct	inhibit	prime	sum
compensate	distort	initial	principle	summary
complex	element	innovation	proceed	technique
complicate	emphasize	intense	publish	technology
comply	empirical	interpret	pursue	tense
component	ensure	intuitive	<i>random</i>	theory
comprehend	entity	involve	<i>range</i>	trace
conceive	<i>environment</i>	isolate	react	tradition
concentrate	equate	magnetic	region	transmit
concept	equivalent	magnitude	require	ultimate
conclude	establish	major	respective	<i>undergo</i>
consequent	evaluate	manipulate	restrict	usage
consist	evident	mathematics	reverse	valid
constant	expand	method	<i>role</i>	vary
construct	expose	minimum	section	verbal
consult	external	modify	segment	verify
context	feasible	negative	select	vertical
contrast				

Figure 7. Cummins's view of academic language proficiency



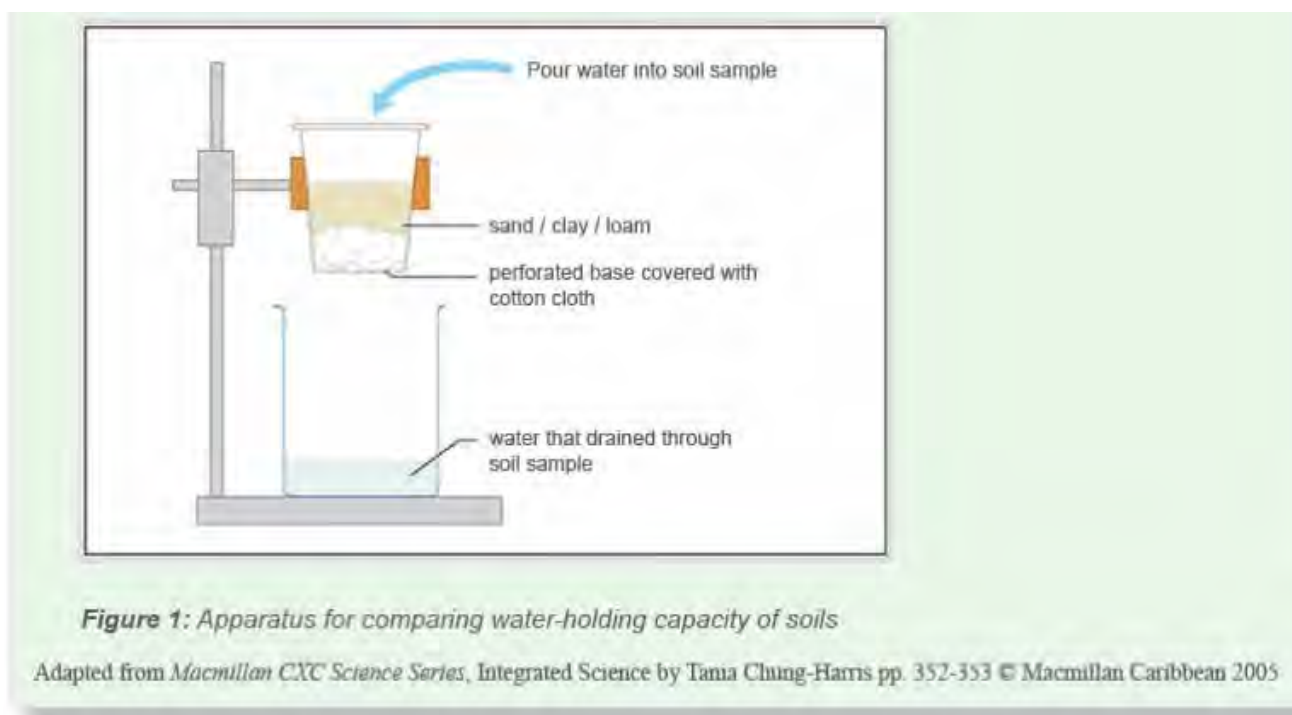
Communication in Foreign Languages

There is good evidence that, given specific conditions, CLIL can achieve both higher levels of L2 ability than conventional FL teaching and higher levels of subject knowledge than conventional subject teaching (European Commission, 2009). This comes from several sources, e.g. from Germany (Lamsfuss-Schenk, 2008 and Zydatis, 2009), from Belgium (Braun, 2007), from Italy and Switzerland (Gajo and Serra, 2002), and from Spain (Sierra, 2008). The crucial conditions tend to relate to learner and teacher levels of L2 ability, which need to be sufficiently high.

Basic Competences in Science and Maths

In section 2 above, we discussed the role which CLIL plays in raising cognitive skills to the surface of classroom discourse and making them explicit to teachers and learners. The ways in which this can happen in maths and science is already there. In Figure 8 is an example – for which I'm grateful to Keith Kelly (Macmillan onestopEnglish): CLIL learners of science are comparing different soils and their properties.

Figure 8. CLIL science – underlying science competence



1. Which soil sample retained the most water? Why?
2. Which soil sample retained the least water? Why?
3. Which soil sample would be most suitable for growing crops? Why?

When they come to present their findings, the CLIL teacher makes explicit the language and cognitive skills required for comparing (see Figure 9).

Digital Competence

I would not like to suggest that CLIL is any better at improving digital competence than any other part of the curriculum, but some CLIL practitioners claim that CLIL, enhanced by ICT, promotes digital skills (Carloni, 2013).

Learning to Learn

There is, by contrast, very good evidence that CLIL is good for developing learning-to-learn skills, as I have partly discussed above. There is, for example, evidence (Civil Society Platform on multilingualism, 2011) that bilingualism can:

- improve abstract reasoning, including mathematics;
- increase ability to think laterally;
- increase metalinguistic awareness;
- increase greater longevity and quality of life;

- influence the slowing down of the onset of Alzheimer's disease and senility.

This relates to CLIL, simply because CLIL aims for bilingualism. In addition, in its own right, CLIL is claimed (Lasagabaster, 2008) to:

- improve language terminology;
- foster incidental learning;
- trigger high levels of communication among teachers and learners.

As an example of CLIL promoting learning-to-learn, in Figure 10, we see German secondary CLIL learners developing skills in the use of tree diagrams in history, as well as their knowledge of cause-effect language (Cornelsen, 2001).

Social and Civic Competences

It is claimed (European Commission, 2009; Goetz, 2003) that people with fluency in foreign languages have greater sensitivity to sociolinguistic interactions with interlocutors.

Figure 9: CLIL science – underlying science competence

ACTIVITY 5

You are going to prepare a one-minute presentation of your comparisons and findings from the experiment in Activity 4 to share with the class. Use the questions and the language support in the table below to help you.

The loam soil _____ whilst the sandy soil _____			
The clay soil _____ however _____			
The sandy soil	retained	more water (than _____)	which indicates _____
The loam soil		(the) most water	
The clay soil		(the) least water	
The reason for this is _____ / This is because _____			
Sandy soil has	the biggest	particles	which means _____
Loam soil has	the smallest		
Clay soil has	medium-sized		
Therefore, the sandy / loam / clay soil is _____			

Figure 10: CLIL history: learning to learn

- 1 Work in pairs: Read the text on pp. 32–33 and organize the different groups of people in the three estates in a tree diagram titled "The Three Estates before 1789".

Tree diagram



- 2 a Look at the table in 5.2 and draw charts showing
 - the French budget of 1787 (income and spending), so that it is clear how bankrupt the French government was;
 - how the French government spent tax money;
- b Making connections: From what you already know about France, give one reason for the government's financial problems.
- 3 a Look at the text on pp. 32–33 and fill in the cause-and-effect diagram below.
- b Present and discuss your results in class. See **Activate your English** below.

Causes

Changes within the Third Estate

Terrible weather, animal epidemics

...

Effects

Members of the Third Estate demand that ...

People cannot buy enough food.

...

- 4 Discuss the advantages and/or disadvantages of diagrams such as the cause-and-effect diagram. Vocabulary help:
One advantage of this type of diagram is that it clearly points to ... / focuses on ... / shows that ... / gives a visual representation of ...
A disadvantage is that it only shows / focuses on ... / fails to show ... / simplifies ...

Activate your English

Causes and effects I

Causes:

because of sth.
the reason why
the long-term¹ cause / short-term cause /
trigger² was ...
was caused by ...
can be explained by ...

Effects or consequences:

led to ...
resulted in ...
was followed by ...
had the effect that ...
as a result, ...
the result/outcome was ...
consequently, ...
as a consequence, ...
the consequence was ...
brought about³ ...
triggered off⁴ ...
thus/therefore ...

Activate your English

Time expressions

first, then, finally
soon after, shortly after, after awhile
two days/weeks/months/years later
as soon as
in 1789, in July
in (the) spring/summer/autumn/winter
in the spring of 1789
on 14 July 1789
at the end of August / the 18th century
about / around 1800

- 1 long-term/short-term langfristig/kurzfristig
- 2 trigger Auslöser
- 3 bring about sth. etwas bewirken; zur Folge haben
- 4 trigger off sth. etwas auslösen, einleiten

Sense of Initiative and Entrepreneurship

Here again, I would not like to suggest that CLIL is any better at instilling a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship than any other part of the curriculum, but the CLIL community (CLIL Cascade network, 2008) does claim that the competences of a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship are embedded in CLIL methodology.

Cultural Awareness and Expression

There is some evidence (EU high level commission on multilingualism, 2008; Lasagabaster, 2008) that learning other languages generally – and learning through CLIL in particular – can:

- increase openness to other people's cultures;
- raise awareness of one's own culture;

- stimulate the willingness and enhance the ability to cooperate with people across language and cultural boundaries.

The Role of School Development Planning in Developing Cross-Curricular Competences

In this final section I would like to turn to the role of school development planning in developing cross-curricular competences. Teacher collaboration, at a whole school level, is often necessary in the development of cross-curricular competences. Teachers collaborate in order to establish, improve or share procedures in, e.g.:

- target-setting;
- planning schemes of work;
- materials design and purchase;
- pedagogy;
- assessment.

They do this in various ways, for example by:

- holding meetings within/between schools;
- trialling, monitoring and reporting practices;
- co-teaching and co-observing each other;
- developing school policy.

Collaboration is particularly well established in minority education as well as CLIL. In minority education, subject teachers collaborate with minority language support teachers. In CLIL, subject teachers collaborate with language teachers. In both domains, subject teachers working in L2 collaborate with subject teachers working in L1, focusing on academic language skills in both L1 and L2.

Indeed cross-curricular competences can only be developed if teachers collaborate on them often within the framework of whole-school policy. Both minority education and CLIL are good at whole-school development planning. In Figure 11 is a diagram of the operation of school language policy in UK English as an additional language (EAL). In what is now a widely

practised model of whole-school development planning in EAL, called “Partnership Teaching”, teachers set goals for EAL practice across the school, experiment with them, evaluate them, disseminate and review them (Bourne and McPake, 1991).

Figure 11: Partnership teaching



Certain crucial things happen to make whole-school development plans work. For example:

- A member of the school senior management has responsibility;
- A committee controls development and meets regularly;
- The committee draws up a school development plan, specifying targets and monitoring achievement;
- Responsibilities are allocated;
- The plan enables teachers to collaborate, and provides paid hours on their timetable;
- The plan provides for professional development and for the purchase of teaching materials;
- The committee may liaise with other schools or commission expert help from external sources.

Summary

I hope to have outlined how CLIL is good at focusing on underlying cross-curricular competences, how it has

developed a pedagogy which makes them explicit in lessons, and how it has developed ways of managing the teaching of competences at a whole school level.

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Competence Matters: Signposting the Road to Learner Empowerment

Franz Mittendorfer



With unemployment rates soaring in virtually all European countries, with labour market predictions announcing an urgent need of greater mobility and flexibility among the present and future workforce, and with societies undergoing processes of profound change, educationalists are facing an obvious challenge – the challenge of how to empower learners to cope successfully with what is around and ahead.

I would like to suggest three leitmotifs upon which modern education - language education in particular, may be built:

1. Language is acting with words. Acting is responding to and creating situations most of which affect the actor as well as others. This raises the issue of responsibility; the actor is responsible for what s/he does, i.e. says and writes. What matters is what you do with words and how you do it. Modern language education takes account of that.
2. Language education cannot be separated from content education. Learners need content to learn as well as they need language through which to learn. Hence, the days when “language” and “content” were seen and delivered in separate lessons are gone. Gone, too, are rigid borders between the classroom and the world beyond. Modern education is multifaceted, flexible, authentic, and cross-curricular. And so is language education.
3. There is no such thing as a monolingual world, society or workplace. Wherever we are, we meet languages – plural. Whoever we are, the languages, dialects, sociolects, professional jargons etc. we

speak, are significant to our identity. They are part of who we are. Besides, “languages are at the centre of Project Europe. They open and reflect its complexity, variety and very nature. They are the key to its heart and to its potential” (K. Cunningham). Modern language education builds upon that.

Are we ready for that? As the learners and teachers that we are? Do pre-service and in-service teacher development programmes and do our curricula provide for what is needed? Is the culture of our schools up to these challenges?

Just as it is cross-curricular, modern (language) education is transnational. It builds upon internationally agreed frameworks (such as the “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages”) and targets what might be called “umbrella objectives”. European education has identified and set itself the dual objective of “active and responsible citizenship” and “employability”, both of course being intertwined and inseparable. Neither of them boils down to one single ability or competence. They both consist of a bundle of skills and personal attributes which dovetail to empower the individual by helping to make them aware and able, confident and competitive, reflective and responsible.

What has been laid down and labelled “key competences for life-long learning” in European core documents on education (Recommendation of The European Parliament and of the Council, Brussels, 10.11.2005) may well be seen as transversal in nature. And none of these key competences can be developed, let alone attained, without “language”. Language competence is the key to all other keys.

“Competence”, as we understand it, encompasses KNOWLEDGE (the degree to which one is acquainted and familiar with facts, the amount of insight one has into truths and principles) SKILLS (the ability and technical know-how one has to carry out activities or functions) as well as ATTITUDE (the set of values upon which a person’s acting / responding / behaviour is based, the degree of commitment and empathy which is demonstrated).

Competence-based education which targets the development of critical thinking and creativity, the ability to assess risks, take decisions and solve problems, to manage processes related to self and others etc. is like a river feeding three lakes - personal fulfilment and development, social inclusion and stability, employment and employability. And it is precisely at the heart of what we call CLIL.

In essence, CLIL (“Content and Language Integrated Learning”) is independent of any particular content subject. What might be called Meta-CLIL applies to whatever content is studied through a language that is not the learner’s mother tongue. It is a rich and flexible set of language-sensitive processes: processes of negotiating learning priorities, of designing and establishing conceptual and operational frameworks, of exploring, scaffolding, structuring and documenting procedures and outcomes. Meta-CLIL provides the dominant colour and frame of the picture. What is content-specific is what the picture is about.

While, as one might argue, much of this relates to any learning/teaching process, with Content and Language INTEGRATED Learning we are looking at a concept which has a TRIPLE OBJECTIVE – the development of insight and skills related to the content of a particular learning programme, of (foreign) language, social and cultural skills which are required to participate in content related contexts, AND, deliberately and consciously, of learning and thinking skills. The road to success is paved with a consciously blended mix of guided and unguided elements, of authentic and tailored materials and of individual and team work. In musical terms, we might think of carefully “orchestrated” proceedings, which, at the same time, provide room for and encourage “improvisation” – on the part of the learner as well as on the part of the teacher.

If we paste the characteristics of Meta-CLIL,

- experience and development of learning in a given social environment;
- experiential and integrated approaches to what is substantial in a particular scenario and task;
- integration of cultural content into all subjects;
- constant and conscious development of language communication skills;

into the conceptual framework of “European citizenship and employability”, we clearly see the perfect overlap. CLIL, as defined above, is a concept that has a truly European, i.e. transnational, dimension and relevance.

“Where am I in all that?” many teachers will ask.

As content teachers who are meant to engage in that thing called CLIL, are we fit, as users of a language which is not our own? Do we have to master the language necessary to manage class and processes? How do we cope with students whose language skills are superior to ours? How do we avoid the trap of focusing on topic related lexis at the expense of topic related interaction?

As language teachers, do we actually “think and speak” science, business, technology? (Few of us do, if truth be told.) Can we resist our temptation to put “language” before “content”? And how can we win the hearts and brains of those of our learners whose main talents are other than linguistic?

Maybe the answer is that, while in certain cases the road may be very steep for the individual, it may well be worth tackling in tandem, as a team of two committed individuals who have a shared sense of purpose and direction.

As content teachers, do we not strive for meaningful tasks in which our learners actually put into practice the content knowledge we have taught? Do we not see that all “putting into practice”, sooner much rather than later, has a distinct language component that we can neither organise nor communicate “content” without language?

And that those who are in our classrooms now will most probably change jobs several times in their future professional careers and that they will have to compete in a labour market where monolingual speakers are clearly disadvantaged?

As language teachers, are we not constantly in search of situations and tasks where language is used in a meaningful way? Where a clear evidence of “purpose” motivates learners to get engaged and move on. Do we not, sometimes at least, feel utterly alone as we are searching and trying, with a textbook, however distinguished and refined, being our sole and only teammate?

Let’s get into pairs, let’s find a partner. CLIL, where “content” and “language” meet “learning”, is an excellent reason to embark on a real joint venture and, together, exploit the symbiotic potential and power of such a partnership. Are we ready?

Are we ready to:

- identify, set, communicate and assess priorities;
- learn and cultivate working in teams;
- learn and use at least one other language;
- learn and teach how to develop and recognise thinking skills;
- learn and teach how to use ‘language’ to consciously explore, exploit and communicate content;
- learn and teach how to deal effectively with ICT and visuals;
- learn how to teach less in order to allow more learning?

Here we seem to be looking at an agenda for pre- and in-service teacher education. It may be worth noting that all of the above is related to “competence” – to a genuine and well-balanced mix of KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS and ATTITUDES. It may also be noted that the ability to learn is essential to all good teaching, whether it be “content” or “language” focused. Even more so, if we aim at the integration of both.





What are the Basic Parameters which Help CLIL to Thrive?

Kay Bentley



For this panel discussion, I focussed on the fourth question which the British Council requested panellists to address in relation to competence-based education in Europe: What are the basic parameters which help CLIL to thrive? To explore the question, three main issues were raised: teachers' challenges when faced with delivering their subject specialism through the medium of English; justification for use of some mother tongue (MT) during CLIL lessons; conducting learning-oriented assessment.

The issue of what teachers say about the challenges of CLIL was considered through an analysis of qualitative data gathered from seventy-nine questionnaires completed by European CLIL teachers in 2013. Data was categorised into three groups: teachers new to primary and secondary CLIL; experienced primary CLIL teachers; experienced secondary CLIL teachers.

Teachers "new" to CLIL represented those in their first two years of teaching in CLIL contexts, while "experienced" referred to teachers who had taught CLIL for three years or more. What became apparent was a pattern of similar challenges faced by these three distinct groups. The main challenge reported by teachers new to CLIL, whether from primary or secondary schools, was their language level. Was their level sufficient to feel "confident" and "comfortable" when teaching curricular subjects in a non-native language "for all the lesson"? Significantly, a few teachers used the word "fear" to express the challenge they faced to achieve FL competence.

The predominant challenge faced by experienced CLIL primary teachers, many of whom were teaching in the upper primary years i.e. ten to twelve year olds, was their ability to explain subject concepts, particularly tricky concepts, and "getting students to really understand new ideas". These primary teachers frequently referred to concepts and ideas related to basic science, a subject highlighted in one of the eight European competences. CLIL teachers therefore need sound subject knowledge as well as skills to teach cognitively demanding subject concepts. In contrast, the experienced secondary teachers mainly focussed on the challenge of developing the language needs of their students. They stated it was a challenge to help students, "be more fluent", "to encourage students" to use subject-specific vocabulary, to ensure all students participated in lessons "regardless of their language level". Clearly, this third group of CLIL teachers were motivated to support their students' ability to communicate subject knowledge and to achieve communicative FL competence.

The second issue raised, consideration of some use of the MT during CLIL lessons, was illustrated by examining what happened in a primary and a secondary CLIL context where the teachers had either a high B2 or C1 level of English. In the first context, a primary Austrian teacher was activating children's prior knowledge of spring flowers before exploring which flowers grow from bulbs. Learners knew the names of some flowers in the MT so the teacher accepted them, translated then encouraged children to make links between

flower names in the MT and in English. Learners were interested in sound and spelling similarities e.g. “tulip / tulpe”; “primrose / primel”; “crocus / krokus” but they were also fascinated by differences in concepts to describe flowers such as “snowdrop” and “schneeglöckchen” (little snow bells). Planning to make links between subject-specific vocabulary in the L1 and in the MT makes words more memorable, develops creative thinking processes and competence in learning to learn. This form of code-switching in educational contexts has been described as going “far beyond the function of translation...it develops and extends concepts” (Gajo, 2007).

The secondary Italian context illustrated how during a biology lesson, teenage students were involved in a cooperative learning task which involved them in reading and discussing different digital and course book texts in order to create a study guide on the topic of genetic mutations. Later in the lesson, the teacher gave groups of students the opportunity to prepare a presentation about the content of their study guides using the IWB. The teacher’s oral support at this stage enabled some students to use MT if they required the teacher to clarify any misconceptions before presenting their guides to the rest of the class. Students in the secondary lesson were developing digital competence, competence in science and competence in learning to learn.

The third issue presented as a basic parameter for CLIL to thrive was the “cycle of learning-oriented assessment” (LOA). LOA “involves the collection and interpretation

of evidence about performance so that judgements can be made about further (content and) language development” (Cambridge ESOL). The cycle starts with the teacher deciding which learning outcomes will develop students’ knowledge, skills and competence in CLIL contexts. Teachers then plan lessons and tasks which will help learners work towards achieving the knowledge, skills and competences stated in the learning outcomes. Teachers next observe learners as they carry out tasks and make an informal record of learners’ progress in communicating subject content, in achieving specific competences and in learners’ attitudes towards learning. Teachers interpret their notes, give learners feedback on progress or lack of it and provide links to extension or consolidation activities digitally or using paper resources. Finally, teachers modify their learning outcomes and the cycle continues. During the next cycle, summative assessment and a more structured record of progress may be implemented before teachers consider their plan of action for future progression in CLIL. However, what is missing in this cycle, adapted from an English LOA model, is a set of standardised CLIL learning objectives for European contexts.

To sum up, one basic parameter which helps CLIL to thrive are teachers who are confident and comfortable with their language levels. Further facilitative parameters are teachers who are accepting of some planned and suitably applied use of MT and teachers who conduct learning-oriented assessment for CLIL. With these parameters in place, I believe CLIL can deliver competence- based education in Europe.

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The Development of CLIL in Italy

Gisella Langé



CLIL is an educational innovation, a pragmatic solution for introducing new ways of teaching and learning. In the 21st Century teachers are no longer asked to lead students to learn “contents” in a particular subject, but to enable students to build up “competences”.

Focus on competences became part of Italian school policy after approval by the European Parliament and the Council of the Recommendation of 18 December 2006 on *Key competences for lifelong learning*, followed by the Recommendation of 23 April 2008 on the establishment of the *European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning*. Since then Education authorities in all countries have reshaped curricula on the basis of new concepts such as “key competences” and “learning outcomes”.

The adoption of a “competence-based approach” has led to the development of a variety of curricular approaches focusing on practical skills and cross-curricular activities that have been analysed in the report *Developing Key Competences at School in Europe: Challenges and Opportunities for Policy* published by Eurydice in 2012. The study reviews national policies for the development of school curricula. It acknowledges the progress made so far in implementing the key competences approach and discusses several policy challenges that are directly linked to the contribution of education and training to meeting changing skills demands and further support for the acquisition of transversal competences.

With reference to the current debate concerning the development of CLIL in Italy, this paper will explore five strands.

Strand 1: Competence-based Curricula

Competences, defined by the European Commission as a “combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to a context”, are fundamental for each individual in a knowledge-based society and are considered necessary for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment.

Competences cannot be related to one specific subject, but they involve different aspects of learning skills and strategies and are interdependent and transversal.

CLIL is becoming part of mainstream education since it enables integration within the curriculum and assists cross-sector and cross-curricular dialogue, thus offering an example of an innovative educational model. Different stakeholders (administrators, education authorities, head teachers, teachers, parents, students) are required to share responsibilities in the construction of successful CLIL programmes. Key areas to be faced in implementing CLIL are: a) identification of needs and resources; b) training and qualifications of teachers; c) development of classroom applications; d) assessment and certifications for students. Managing the change should focus on three guiding criteria: convergence, flexibility, and sustainability.

Strand 2: European Documents on CLIL

The first CLIL report to be produced for the European Commission is CLIL/EMILE - *The European Dimension - Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential* compiled by

David Marsh in 2002 in which the origins, position, application of this approach are explored and case studies from different countries are offered.

A survey by Eurydice in 2006, *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*, is the first “European” insight into this methodology. It examines the general framework for this kind of provision (its position in the education system and how it is organised and evaluated), revealing the status of the target languages concerned, the subjects in the curriculum, the time devoted to it and putting emphasis on recruitment procedures.

No other in-depth studies have been carried out in recent years by the European Commission, but in *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe 2012* published by Eurydice, some parts offer insights on foreign language provision in the context of CLIL in primary and secondary education. Figure 1 clearly shows how CLIL is part of mainstream provision in almost all European countries.

The qualifications normally required for teaching using the CLIL model are sufficient in around two-thirds of countries. Only a dozen countries recommend or require teachers to have special or additional qualifications and have issued specific guidelines on the qualifications for teachers to work in CLIL-providing schools, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 1

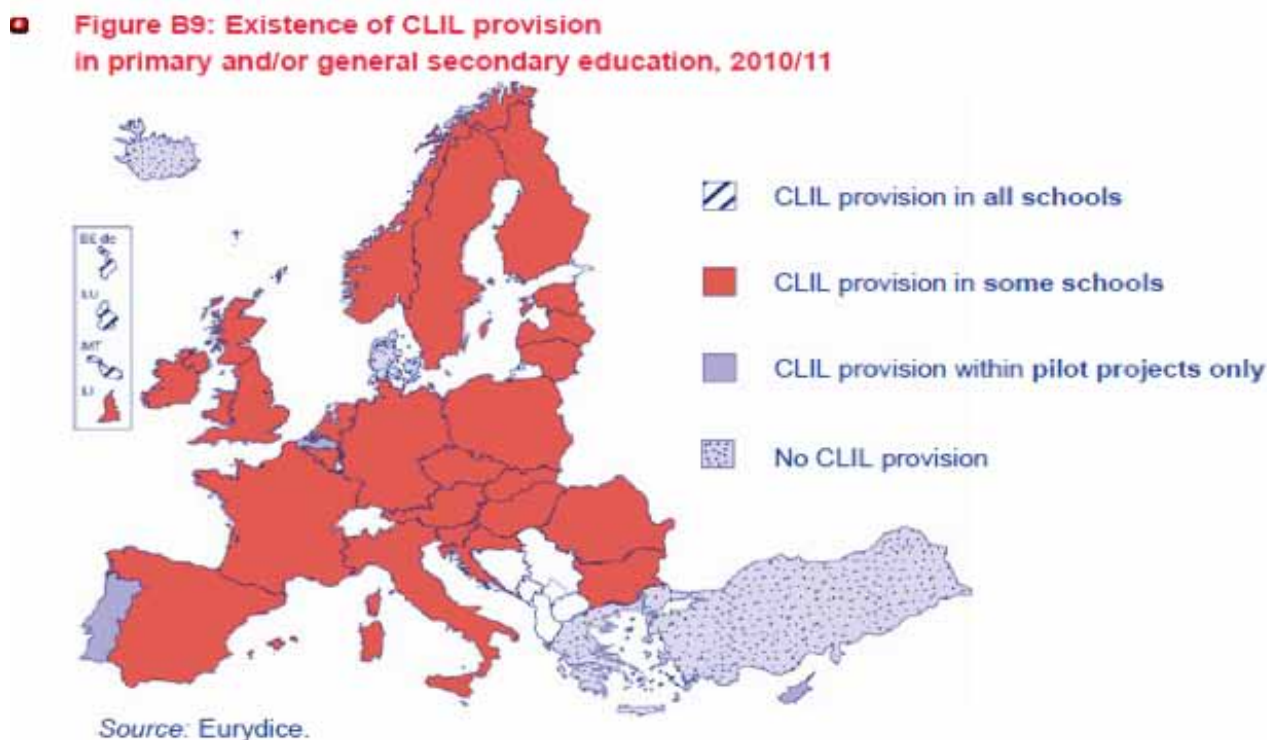
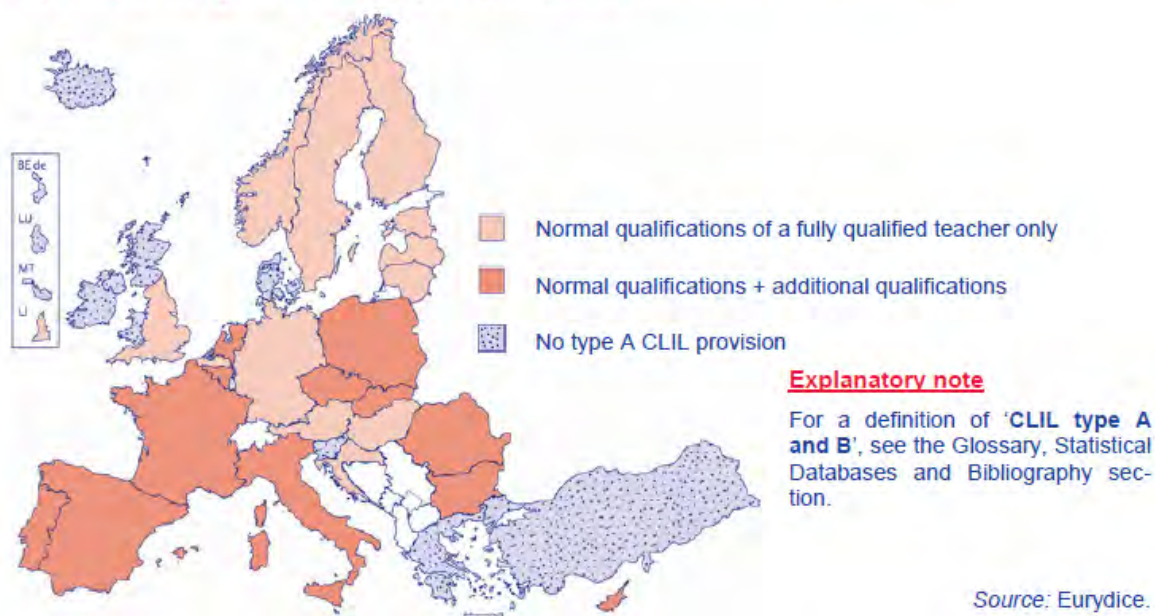


Figure 2

● **Figure D8: Qualifications required to work in schools using the CLIL (type A) model in primary and/or general secondary education, 2010/11**



Strand 3: CLIL as a Quality Change Agent

CLIL is a quality change agent. It is an innovative methodology favouring learner centricity, learner autonomy, and competence-based learning/teaching. It is designed to change thinking, it favours creativity, it requires action, it asks for functional learning spaces. New “learning environments” need the cooperation of teachers in building learning pathways. CLIL methodology requires interactions between the foreign language teacher and the subject teacher. That’s why in Italy we are suggesting that schools build “CLIL TEAMS” that work on the co-construction of competences by defining competence-based teaching/learning goals involving problem-posing and problem-solving skills.

The student at the centre of the learning process asks for a total change of the key pillars of the traditional model: content/programmes/explanations/face to face lessons /assessment based on what has been taught. Focusing on learning outcomes and learner achievements requires new ways of planning, implementing and evaluating students: micro-planning

of activities, proposal of content, group-work, and definition of final performance based on descriptors for assessment and self-assessment. Activities are usually organized through the provision of real, meaningful, experiential tasks, aimed at mobilising one’s resources and knowledge of different fields. Learning outcomes are usually expressed in terms of what the learner is expected to know, understand and be able to do on completion of a learning unit, level or module. Needless to say, this is a new way of “activating” knowledge.

Strand 4: The Italian Case

Italy has been developing CLIL experiences at different school levels for about twenty years and CLIL is proving to be a driver of significant change in the Italian educational system, positively affecting teacher education and schools.

In 2003 a Reform law was passed stating that the study of one non-linguistic subject through English or another foreign language is mandatory for students

in the 5th year of upper secondary schools. The Ministry of Education had to approve a complex series of regulations and guidelines in order to prepare schools and teachers for a gradual implementation of this innovation that will be mandatory in school year 2014/15, as Figure 3 illustrates.

The Ministry of Education has designed a framework for both initial and in-service training for subject teachers of upper secondary schools where universities are responsible for offering training and extra qualifications in CLIL. Different regulations have identified the main characteristics of initial CLIL courses (university courses worth 60 ECTS) and in-service CLIL courses (university courses worth 20 ECTS) with regards to structure, in particular the skills that need to be developed (language at C1 level, language awareness, content, materials writing/adaptation, networking). Figure 4 summarises the timeline for the teacher training programme organised at a national level.

Needless to say, the opportunities for professional development are radically changing our subject teachers who are improving both their language competences and their methodological skills. “CLIL TEAMS” both in universities and schools see foreign language professors/teachers, language assistants,

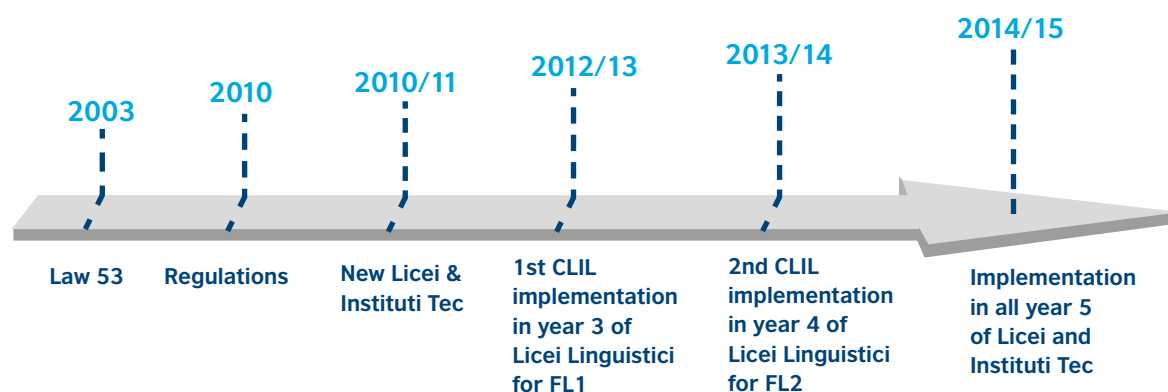
and subject professors/teachers work collaboratively in designing and implementing integrated learning pathways. It is becoming evident that CLIL activities are working best if foreign language and subject teachers plan and implement “Learning Units” organised on the basis of the competences that students should achieve. It is becoming evident that transversal skills such as the ability to think critically, to take the initiative, to work collaboratively, are deeply changing teachers’ mindsets. It is becoming evident that entrepreneurial skills through new and creative ways of teaching and learning are modernising schools.

Strand 5: The Impact of CLIL

The impact of CLIL on teachers, students and schools can be summarised as follows:

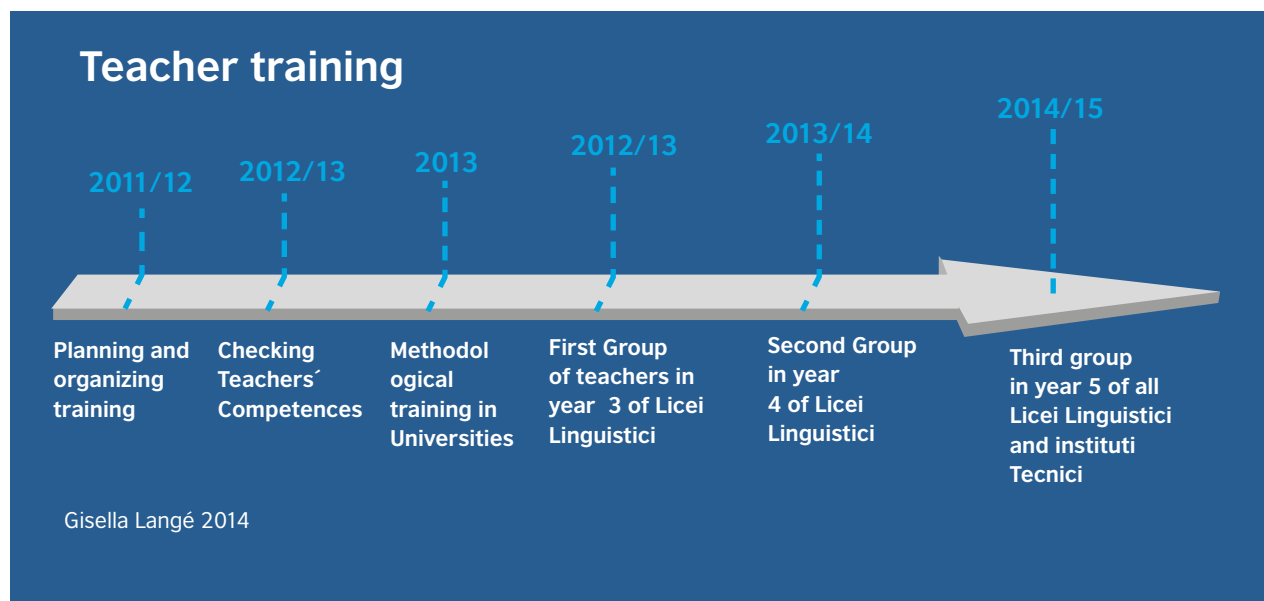
- a) both language and subject teachers are approaching the organisation of the foreign language and other subjects curricula in a new way;
- b) subject teachers are gradually improving their foreign language competence by attending courses;

Figure 3



Gisella Langé 2014

Figure 4



c) subject teachers are using new techniques in their classes (role play, simulations, visual aids, amongst others);

d) subject teachers are using more and more materials with a "European perspective";

e) foreign language teachers are finding that language is gaining a more important position within the teaching profession;

f) foreign language teachers are "repositioning" themselves, gradually improving their subject competences;

g) school curricula are becoming more and more "competence based", "interactive" and "integrated";

h) CLIL activities have developed productive dynamics and positive attitudes in students;

i) networking and mobility experiences with other countries both for teachers and students are now common activities in school life;

j) cooperative and collaborative teaching and learning are creating real learning communities.

On the horizon: the impact of CLIL is significantly changing teacher training programmes and school curricula. It comes as no surprise that new training courses, programmes, materials and certification will be required and that new forms of assessment for students and schools will develop as CLIL moves forward. What needs to be done is to make educational authorities and stakeholders aware that CLIL is becoming a key dimension in modernising European schools and represents an EVOLUTION for educational systems, favouring a "language-friendly environment" and a "competence-friendly environment"!



A Concrete Directive Towards Literacy

Y.L. Teresa Ting



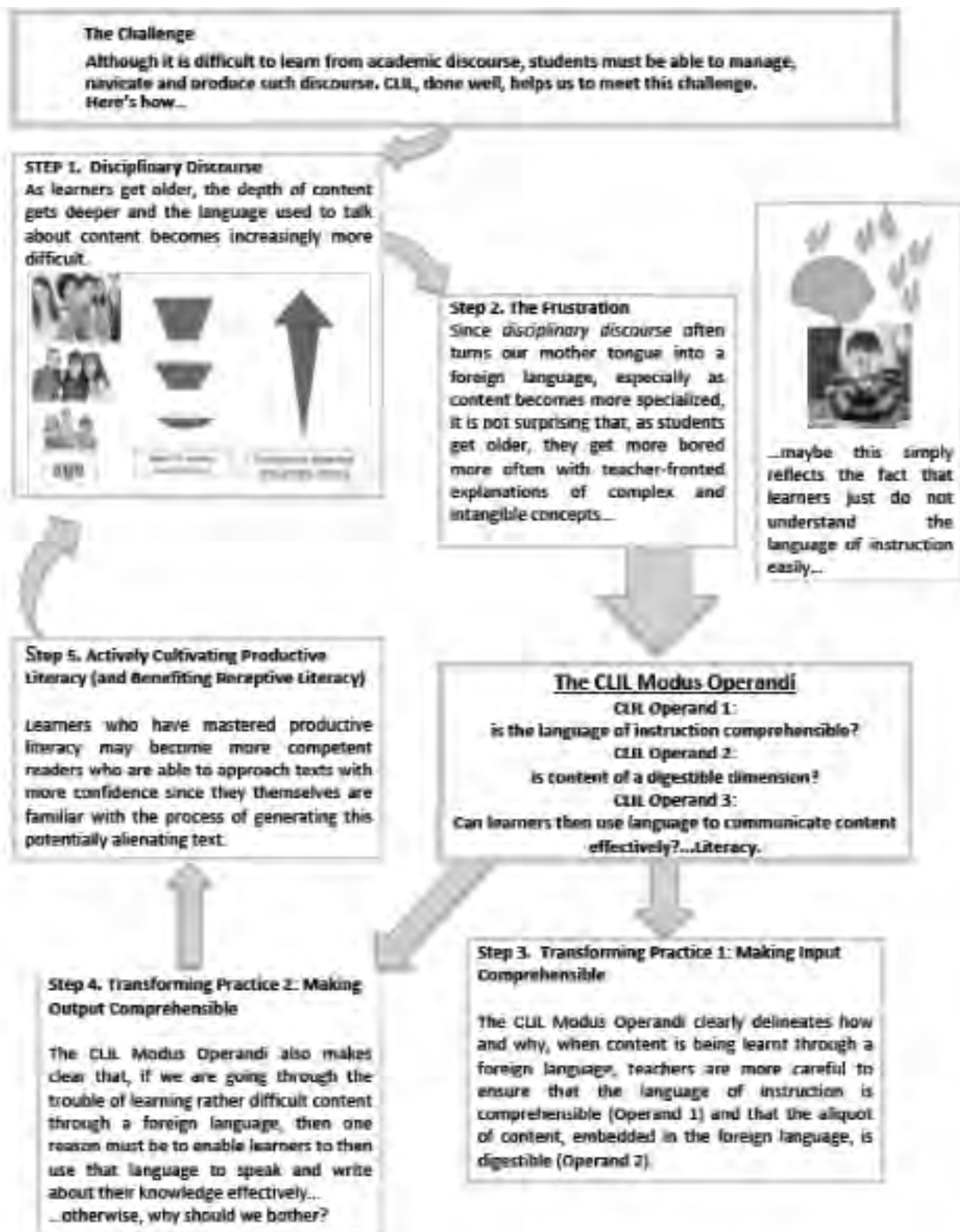
Although CLIL – “Content and Language Integrated Learning” – emerged from foreign language (FL) classrooms as a way to increase FL-learning time, since it debuted as an acronym in the mid-1990s, CLIL is revealing itself to be much more than simply “more foreign language” but is providing pragmatic guidelines for renovating education. On the “input-end” of instruction, CLIL very naturally establishes learner-centred learning environments in which students actively, interactively and collaboratively construct knowledge (see studies reported in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). In addition, at the “output-end” of instruction, CLIL ensures that learners are also equipped with the language they will need to then communicate about their new knowledge appropriately and effectively, thus completing the learning process. In explicitly cultivating productive literacy, CLIL quite automatically reinforces students’ receptive literacy: CLIL thus provides a concrete directive towards literacy.

How does this work? The logic lies in the acronym: in delineating that *Learning* involves the Integration of both *Content* and *Language*, CLIL makes explicit the fact that the learning of any content must involve the learning of the *language associated with the content*. If we agree with the common saying that “fuzzy writing reflects fuzzy thinking” then tidy thinking would require “language which is clean, clear and correct”. Therefore, on the specific level of schooling, the first step towards successful education must thus be equipping learners with the *language for thinking about the content*. Only then can learners think through the content correctly and thus comprehend it well. We may consider this ability to comprehend incoming information “*receptive literacy*”. However, on the level of educational outcomes in general, revelations on adult functional illiteracy

(National Literacy Trust) and weak adolescent literacy in developed countries (OECD PISA, 2006) indicate that receptive literacy is not an automatic outcome of schooling. In our “information everywhere society” (Alberts, 2010; Schleicher, 2010), in which not all the text which inundates us after the Googling click has been created for disseminating honest truth (Fairclough, 1991), receptive literacy is becoming the sine qua non of democratic citizenship. Not surprisingly, *productive literacy* is also very problematic, with comments such as “students can’t write” becoming more and more commonplace as students SMS faster and more briefly. Somehow, despite all the schooling we’ve done, exams we’ve passed, text(books) we have pored through and technology we’ve invented, we have come up short on literacy...in our mother tongue(!).

If educating through our mother tongue has failed to produce competent readers and eloquent writers, how can CLIL, in which instruction comes through a foreign language, help cultivate literacy? Figure 1 illustrates the logic of how CLIL provides us a concrete directive towards literacy. First of all, we should realise that, as learners get older, they must master deeper levels of content (Figure 1, Step 1). Deeper content knowledge naturally requires the use of more discipline-specific language. This language is more than simply single-word terminology but involves the way language is woven together so that members of a *community of practice* (Wenger, 1998) share a common way of *linguaging* (Swain, 2006). This allows chemists, physicists, historians, economists, movie-lovers, children playing with Yu-gi-oh cards etc. to communicate efficiently and effectively within their community, with minimal room for misunderstandings. We definitely want our surgeon and his team to share a common discourse.

Figure 1. How CLIL provides a concrete directive towards literacy.



All photos were kindly purchased by Cambridge English Teacher for Webinars by Ting.

Logically, therefore, disciplinary discourse is the most efficient and effective way to explain the knowledge and understandings of a particular disciplinary community. The problem with using such discourse for teaching is that, for those outside the community, e.g. learners, such language often sounds like a foreign language, even in our mother tongue. In fact, the two renowned linguists, Halliday and Martin (1993), open their landmark volume *Writing Science* with an excerpt from a middle-school science textbook to illustrate how “the language of science transforms our mother tongue into a foreign language” (see also Snow, 2010). This is the case with all community discourses. When economists, mathematicians, Yu-gi-oh players, art historians, computer experts and car mechanics talk to their peers, those of us outside the community must make an effort to follow their discussions. Could it be that, as content gets deeper, students are more disinterested simply because the language of instruction is not easily comprehensible? (Step 2 in Figure 1)

Although comprehensible input seems too simplistic a suggestion to even mention, do most instructional processes consider this? All conscientious teachers make an effort to be comprehensible. However, the *language of instruction* must be comprehensible for not only the first five minutes of a lesson, but for the entire duration of instruction. There are very clear indications from neuroscientific and cognitive psychology research that demonstrate how, when input is difficult to process, the brain responds with very predictable electrophysiological signals which correlate with the nature of such “incomprehensibility” (i.e. word level, sentence level, context level etc.; see Kutas and Federmeier, 2011). For example, input such as “the reporter selected to write the story” (Osterhout and Holcomb, 1992, p 7) elicits a so-called P600 which can be considered a neuroelectrophysiological signal of syntactic ambiguity. Imagine then the quantity of “ambiguity signals” in the brain of 12-year-olds when reading the following input from a middle-school textbook: “Diffusion in a liquid consists of a net flux of particles of the solute (the colorant) from an area of higher concentration to that where it is lower... we define osmosis as the passage of solvents across a semipermeable membrane”. If neuroscience research

has also shown that when volunteers have successfully learnt simple laboratory tasks, there is a reduction in the amount of corresponding electrophysiological signals in the brain (Hill and Schneider, 2006; Kelly and Garavan, 2005), then we could hypothesize that the incomprehensible input which elicits numerous “blips” is not conducive to successful learning. This is basically scientific proof of what all good teachers know – input must be comprehensible.

Step 3 in the Figure involves the CLIL *Modus Operandi* (for details see Ting, 2011) which schematically delineates how CLIL can very naturally provide teachers a pragmatic guideline for improving education. Interestingly, this starts with the fact that CLIL involves the use of a foreign language for content instruction. As discussed earlier, although good teachers may be aware of the fact that the language of the discipline, even in our mother tongue, is a foreign language for those outside the disciplinary community, it is not always easy to make sure our language of instruction is comprehensible for the entire lesson. This is especially so with increasingly more specialised content. However, since we are explicitly using a foreign language in CLIL, teachers are clearly aware that the learners may not have the linguistic resources to easily understand the language of instruction, be it teacher-fronted explanations, a video, museum exhibits or even the textbook. Therefore, CLIL makes teachers automatically more “language-aware”. This awareness naturally prompts teachers to constantly make sure that the learners are still on board and have not been knocked off the instruction-wagon by incomprehensible language. When a teacher becomes language-aware, constantly evaluating whether the language of instruction is comprehensible, s/he will automatically start evaluating whether the content is comprehensible. “Is this chunk of content too big to chew? Will it cause information-indigestion?” CLIL-teachers are thus more “content-aware”. Such attention to whether the language is comprehensible and the content digestible is a shift towards learner-centred learning, focusing our attention not on the act of teaching, but on the process of learning. This explains why CLIL teachers seek different and more effective modalities of input and prioritise active, interactive and collaborative learning processes.

Unfortunately, although it is difficult to learn from disciplinary discourse, students must nonetheless be able to engage with and produce this language properly to speak and write about physics, maths, economics etc. correctly – “The Challenge” shown in Figure 1. Thus, an additional important function of the CLIL *Modus Operandi* is that it makes explicit the need to cultivate *productive literacy*, so that learners can use language appropriately so as to communicate effectively (e.g. Osborne, 2010; Figure 1, Step 4). In fact, if the main motivation to learn English is to get a good job, then the motivation to learn physics, maths, economics or history etc. through English would be to get a better job. If science and philosophy are already difficult or boring in our mother tongue, why should we try to learn these through a foreign language if, in the end, our learners are not able to then use English to speak and write about that knowledge, and do so quite well? Otherwise, why should we bother? An Italian engineer will get a job in an International construction firm in Thailand only if, after he says, “my name is Francesco”, he is able to write decent reports in English. Productive literacy is therefore a primary learning objective of CLIL.

Although writing well is an obvious objective of education, even in our mother tongue, most students’ writing remains rather “fuzzy”, even in their mother tongue. Although students have been instructed through well-written textbooks and well-spoken teachers, this does not automatically enable them to produce well-written essays. However, if we acknowledge that “academic [language] is nobody’s mother tongue” (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977, cited in Jenkins, 2014, p 11), then we realise that productive academic literacy cannot be assimilated through osmosis but is a competence that must be actively cultivated (Wellington and Osborne, 2001). While teachers of very young children are attentive to how well their pupils are using language and provide corrective feedback to “cultivate correct language use”, as learners get older and content gets deeper, their content teachers pay less and less attention to cultivating language. In fact, most science teachers respond to poorly written science reports

with “this is a language problem and thus the problem of the language teacher” (ibid). At the same time, since the disciplinary discourse has become specialised and moved beyond the comfort zone of the L1-language teacher, it becomes difficult to cultivate literacy skills through unfamiliar topics. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008), in writing about adolescent literacy in L1, have shown that chemists, historians and mathematicians have different ways of reading for and writing about their discipline, and suggest that we must explicitly teach disciplinary discourse and academic literacy. Since productive literacy is at the centre of the CLIL learning agenda, CLIL makes it obvious that all teachers are language teachers, a recommendation Sir Alan Bullock et al. (1975) made almost four decades ago: “if the chemistry teacher does not teach his students how to speak and write like a chemist, who will?”

Does it work? Below, I would like to share learning outcomes of students who had learnt through CLIL materials which were designed to explicitly cultivate students’ productive literacy skills. Briefly, the contexts reflect the fact that, in 2010, the Italian Ministry of Education mandated that CLIL be implemented in the final year of upper secondary education, during content learning time and by content teachers who must have C1-level English competence¹. It is not surprising that this decision triggered a series of non-too-happy reactions from content teachers. Like many countries around the world, content experts in Italy are competent in their content, but not in English. Italy is, in fact, one of the least multilingual countries in the EU (Eurobarometer, 2006). Can a content teacher who does not speak the language of instruction move the content curriculum forward? Yes we can. And actually, very well.

This is why. When a content teacher does not have the linguistic resources to actually lecture for 50-plus minutes, s/he can no longer rely on the traditional teacher-fronted information-download way of teaching but must do something else during the lesson. One such “something else” could be the use of learning materials which have been developed beforehand and which

1. “DPR n. 87/2010 e relative linee guida; DPR n. 88/2010 e relative linee guida; DPR n. 89/2010 e indicazioni nazionali per i licei.”

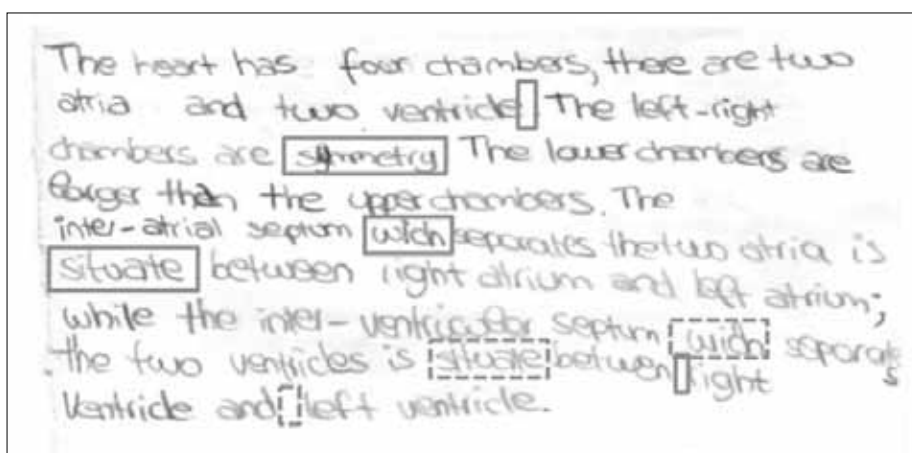
oblige learners to use English to work through tasks, negotiate meaning, discuss concepts and co-construct understanding. Therefore, within these very non-ideal conditions, CLIL has very naturally prompted us into the first steps of good education, reducing teacher-talk-time and increasing active, interactive, learner-centred collaborative learning.

The CLIL materials used were about the anatomy of the human heart and were designed to fulfil the upper-secondary Italian science curriculum for 16-year-olds through 24 tasks and a total of 140 min learning time (Grandinetti et al., 2013)². Excerpt 1A shows the learning outcome of a student 20 minutes into the CLIL lesson, after having completed four of the 24 tasks. The solid rectangles indicate mistakes in the spelling or choice of word (wich, symetry, situate etc.) and the dotted rectangles indicate repetitions of the same mistakes. What is most striking is that the rest of the text is totally correct, from the point of view of both content and language. The underlining in Excerpt 1B highlights the learner's ability to produce compound adjectives using hyphens, a feature which does not exist in the mother tongue. The student also successfully used new content-specific terms which had been introduced in the learning tasks through a single sentence "...atrium singular and atria plural" and which had been recycled throughout the CLIL learning process.

One could argue that such positive outcomes should be expected during any learning process and that effective learning can only be verified if learning is sustainable in time. Sustainable learning is presented in Excerpt 2 which was obtained when, two months following the use of the same CLIL materials (another group of learners), the science teacher asked the students to "write what you remember about the human heart". Of particular note is that this excerpt was written by a very weak and normally very disaffected learner. In Calabria, southern Italy, where unemployment is very high, non-compulsory upper secondary schooling has the important socio-political purpose of keeping young people "off the streets". This student, SV, has thus proceeded through school despite unabashedly turning in blank exam papers. What is noteworthy of SV's essay two months following the CLIL lessons was that it was not blank: although SV had written in Italian, he had written (handwritten insert in Excerpt 2).

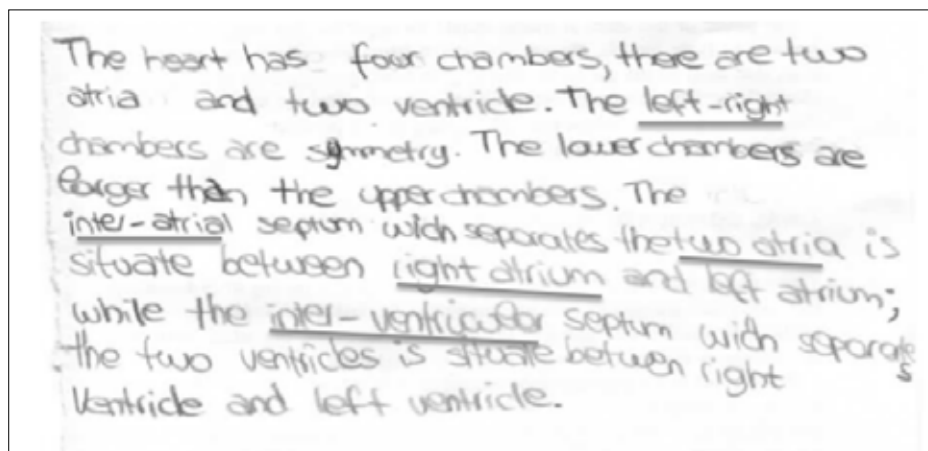
What is even more important is that SV demonstrated explicit awareness of how to make his writing more academic. As shown in Excerpt 2A, which presents the English translation of what SV had written, the student had first written '*Il cuore è costituito da 4 camere muscolari: atrio destro e atrio sinistro, ventricolo destro e ventricolo sinistro*'. However, realizing that his essay lacked a topic sentence, SV added, "the circulatory

EXCERPT 1A



2. These CLIL materials have received an award (<http://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/eltons>) and are currently under publication and will soon be accessible to the international market.

EXCERPT 1B



system is the transport of blood and is composed of..." ('il sistema circolatorio è il trasporto di sangue ed è costituito dal') and indicated, by using the curved arrow on the left, that this should be moved up and placed before the original sentence so to introduce the topic.

As all good writers know, when we change one part of a text, we must revise what we already have. SV thus indicated that "in turn" (che a sua volta) be added so that the final text would be coherent, as shown in Excerpt 2B.

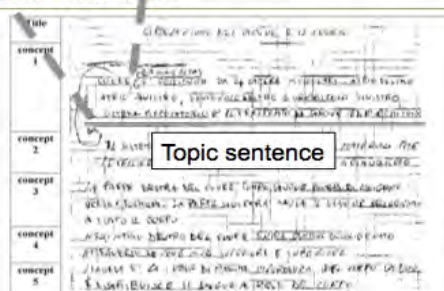
EXCERPT 2A. First he wrote this:

First, he wrote this...

The heart. Is composed of four muscular chambers: the right atrium, the left atrium, the right ventricle and the left ventricle. The right side of the heart pumps de-oxygenated blood towards the lungs and the left side of heart pumps oxygenated blood to the entire body. Deoxygenated blood enters the right atrium of the heart, via the superior and inferior vena cava.

EXCERPT 2B. Final self-corrected text:

The circulatory system is responsible for transporting blood and is composed of the heart and lungs. The heart, in turn, is composed of four muscular chambers: the right atrium, the left atrium, the right ventricle and the left ventricle. The right side of the heart pumps de-oxygenated blood towards the lungs and the left side of the heart pumps oxygenated blood to the entire body. Deoxygenated blood enters the right atrium of the heart, via the superior and inferior vena cava.



Effective learning was also seen in the fact that SV had added information which was not provided in the CLIL learning materials. The materials had not mentioned that the heart is a muscle; there was no reference to the right heart and the left heart, which is conventionally found in textbooks; and SV mentioned both the superior and inferior “vena cava”, even if the CLIL materials only mentioned the “superior vena cava”. I would like to suggest that SV had understood enough through the CLIL lessons and found the topic interesting enough to have then studied it(!) The essay is certainly not perfect since the aorta is not a vein but an artery (concept 4) and the phrase ‘the circulatory system is the transport of blood’ is imprecise. However, rather than referring to the transported nutrients and metabolites as ‘stuff’ (cose), SV referred to them as ‘all those substances’ (*tutti quei materiali*: concept 2). For a student who usually produces nothing, this output is pretty good stuff.

It should be noted that, although SV learnt the tricks of good writing in English, he was able to apply these academic literacy skills to write more effectively in Italian, his mother tongue. These results clearly illustrate that academic literacy is a competence *sans frontières*. In addition, although we definitely need to cultivate receptive literacy and enable learners to approach text critically, this can be complemented through the cultivation of productive *literacy skills*, a prime objective of CLIL. I suggest that, when learners become familiar with the mechanisms for *producing* academic writing, they probably become more confident and competent readers of academic writing, as shown in Step 5 of Figure 1.

In conclusion, the process of learning otherwise difficult content through a foreign language raises a series of considerations which then provide teachers with concrete guidelines for improving content instruction

in significant ways. When teachers become aware of the need to modulate the language of instruction and ensure the digestibility of content so that learners can attain content knowledge despite their limited linguistic resources, they design learning paths that are both language-aware and content-aware. CLIL thus facilitates learning at the “input end” of instruction. At the “output end” of instruction, CLIL positions academic literacy at the centre of the learning agenda since, if we are going to go through the trouble of presenting challenging content through a foreign language, it becomes obvious that students must then be able to use that foreign language effectively to speak and write about their content knowledge correctly, otherwise, why do we bother?³ I hope that this brief summary, accompanied by the drop of data in the ocean of research on successful CLIL classrooms, has demonstrated how CLIL offers us concrete ways to renovate education. The world does need to learn a *lingua franca* such as English, but we also need doctors and engineers who know their content well and can use language, be it their mother tongue, English, or both, appropriately, to communicate effectively.

3. This is one of the principles driving the *CLIL and Literacies* Project financed by the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) that has the purpose of producing a model for CLIL and Pluriliteracies Development which will help teachers map their students’ literacy progression (http://issuu.com/teresating/docs/pluriliteracies_nov_2013_flyer; see also the ECML site).

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Step by Step ... How to Implement CLIL and More

Andreas Baernthaler



CLILing Colleges

The Austrian upper-secondary technical and vocational colleges of engineering, arts and crafts, commonly known as “HTLs”, are regarded as educational institutions of highest reputation. Close connections to local and regional businesses and industries have always been of major importance; about 5000 full-time and part-time teachers in 76 colleges provide comprehensive general education and the latest technical know-how to train up to 45,000 students with excellent qualifications and state-of-the-art engineering skills ready to meet future challenges. Meant to prepare students for real-life job situations, the use of English as a medium of instruction in vocational colleges has been well established for about 15 years. Following the initiatives of head teachers and staff in vocational colleges, CLIL, which is seen as an innovative approach for learning and teaching by using a foreign language as a working language with genuine language learning elements embedded, has become increasingly widespread there. The above-mentioned technical colleges, one of the flagships of Austrian VET (Vocational Education and Training), have implemented CLIL as obligatory components in their teaching and learning by introducing a new generation of national curricula in 2011.

CLILing Aims

Promoting the language skills of students, anticipating job lives in a globalised economy and fostering employability and active citizenship are commonly regarded as the prime aims of Austrian CLIL policies,

particularly in vocational education and training. CLIL is thus providing a valuable contribution to an export-oriented economy.

CLILing Rules

The basic laws for using a foreign language as a working language (or medium of instruction) apply to all levels within the Austrian educational system. In 2011 additional regulations for CLIL in technical colleges (HTLs) were introduced. Basically, students in secondary schools and colleges can opt to take (written and/or oral) exams in the CLIL languages being used. A general agreement between students and their teachers is necessary, though, and the choice of exam language is always the individual student's choice. Still, it is the content that is being assessed here, never the language as such.

Since the implementation of CLIL in the national curricula of 2011, a minimum of two hours a week has been taught through CLIL in grades 3-5, i.e. for 16-19 year old students, of these technical colleges. All the other grades follow more flexible and/or individual arrangements.

CLILing Subjects

Especially in years 1 and 2, the most popular CLIL subjects are history, geography and some science, based on the double qualification required for Austrian teachers. This provides for a careful entry into the world of CLIL for both students and teachers. In years 3-5

these subjects are complemented by further job- and employability-related subjects preferably in the fields of science and engineering, in both theoretical and practical lessons. The subjects chosen for CLIL have to be approved by the “PTSA” (Parent-Teacher-Student Association) of every single college in advance. Dividing up the total amount of CLIL lessons, i.e. 72 hours/year, in no more than four different subjects is recommended, though, to guarantee consistency and continuity in the learning and teaching processes.

CLILing Support

The Austrian Federal Ministry of Education and Women’s Affairs has initiated a thoroughly planned and designed training programme for teachers at technical colleges which is currently run by four Universities of Teacher Education nationwide. To date, about 250 teachers have attended these courses.

This national training programme lasts 12 days and is complemented by online modules for lesson planning and materials design. The curriculum was originally developed by Christiane Dalton-Puffer from the University of Vienna and has later been adapted by Eva Poisel, an experienced CLIL trainer from the University of Teacher Education in Vienna. Andreas Bärnthaler, head of the CLIL department in CEBS (Center für berufsbezogene Sprachen), a national in-service teacher training centre specialising in vocationally-oriented language education and a think-tank and advisory board affiliated to the VET section of the Ministry of Education, has been involved in all the stages of this development to provide a direct link to teachers and students in vocational schools and colleges.

The curriculum covers the foundations of CLIL, didactic principles, the language of thinking, CLIL methodology and hands-on experience to provide teachers with all the relevant knowledge and know-how necessary to follow the CLIL approach, develop their own materials, and reflect on and evaluate the learning and teaching processes in their own classrooms. For pre-service and newly employed teachers, short-term training programmes are offered in various university courses.

All the CLIL training programmes run closed communities, often based on Moodle, for networking and the exchange of experiences as well as materials design, etc. Nationwide open and closed communities are run on Google and Facebook, e.g. <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!forum/htl-clil> (11/04/2014). The Ministry of Education’s official website for CLIL at technical colleges serves as a rich source of information on various issues, e.g. a collection of sample tasks from different fields of engineering and science to illustrate the wide range of possible CLIL activities. All the sample tasks consist of a template (giving basic information on the task types, classroom format, resources, and content-related and language-related learning outcomes) and both a student’s and a teacher’s version. Teachers should thus be enabled to customise similar CLIL tasks suitable for the subjects they teach, their specific needs and classroom conditions. A sample template for an interim task for students of electronics can be seen below (by courtesy of Peter Auer / HTL Leonding).

For further information, the above mentioned website can be visited: http://www.htl.at/de/htlat/schwerpunktportale/clil_content_and_language_integrated_learning.html (11/04/2014)

Linguistic training is included in all CLIL training programmes as such and constantly adapted according to course participants’ specific needs. Official requirements for language levels have not been set so far and most teachers involved regard B2+/C1 levels as appropriate.

The above-mentioned national training programme is supplemented by numerous INSET training schemes run in individual colleges with a focus on the specific needs on site, i.e. language development, materials design, micro teaching, etc.

Additionally, the Ministry of Education’s department for technical colleges has initiated a national work group of representatives from every single province to support and develop the implementation process. The official CLIL logo for technical colleges (see below) serves as a sign of quality and approval for all the publications of this work group - be it in print or online.

This CLIL infrastructure is complemented by the network of CLIL coordinators who have been nominated in every single college. These CLIL coordinators are meant to assist school management on site when introducing a local CLIL policy which is thought to be consensus-oriented, i.e. involving all the stakeholders, and sustainable in terms of student and staff development.


CLILing Obstacles

The ever increasing demand for CLIL teachers is considered to be a major challenge. This is why the Federal Ministry and the provincial Boards of Education guarantee ongoing financial and organisational support for CLIL training programmes. Generally said, a lack of fully qualified and/or trained CLIL teachers as well as

a certain reluctance to make the extra effort without additional pay and/or time given, have been the main obstacles in the implementation process so far. Besides that, many teachers of science and engineering are still sceptical about the reduction in content they have to make when introducing CLIL components in their own teaching and some students might be afraid of increased complexities of content (presumably) caused by the use of a foreign language. While the benefits for language learning have been widely acknowledged, benefits like intensified negotiation of meaning when learning and teaching content through CLIL still have to be fully proven in many engineering and science classrooms. However, it is students and teachers alike who see CLIL both as an invaluable element of student empowerment and a welcome challenge and personal gain for teachers.

Figure 1. Template for CLIL tasks

Schule, Abteilung: HTL Leonding, Elektronik und Technische Informatik
Jahrgang: 4. Jahrgang
Lehrer/in: Dipl.-Ing. Peter Auer
Schuljahr: 2011/2012



Gegenstand: Hochfrequenztechnik

Thema: Wireless Microphone Unit

Activity type/s	1. Reading for gist ("skimming") and creating an English-German glossary 2. Reading for detail ("scanning") and writing answers 3. Doing a role play
Classroom format	1. Individual work 2. Individual and pair work 3. Individual and pair work
Time	50 minutes
Procedure	1. Students read the handout and create their own glossaries by matching the English and German words given and by adding three words of their own. 2. Students read the input texts (<i>General information</i> , <i>Operating instructions</i>) once more. Then they get in pairs and answer a set of questions by writing down one sentence for each question. 3. Students role-play a job-related troubleshooting situation. They simulate a phone call by sitting back to back so that they cannot see each other.
Resources	Handout: <i>Wireless Microphone Unit</i>
Content-related learning outcome	Students can name specific parts and components of a wireless microphone unit. Students know how to operate a wireless microphone unit. Students know what to do when certain technical problems occur.
Language-related learning outcome	Students can read for gist and for detail. Students can answer input-related questions in writing. Students can deal with troubleshooting situations on the phone.
Source/s	Bogen UHF wireless microphone www.bogen.com (11.10.2012)

Figure 2. Official CLIL logo for technical colleges



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BUCHAREST
COMO
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SEGOVIA
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