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Preface from the guest editor

New Directions in English as a Medium of Instruction in Tertiary Education

This volume contains a collection of articles by researchers and educators using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in tertiary education (Dafouz & Camacho-Miñano, 2016; Dearden, 2016; Dafouz & Smit, 2020; Carrió-Pastor, 2020; Fortanet-Gómez, 2020). The growing literature on EMI, and the related field of CLIL (Ball et al., 2015; Carrió-Pastor & Bellés-Fortuño, 2021), seems to be sprouting rapidly, driven by social and political concerns and not only for professional reasons. The supremacy of English as a lingua franca has not yet been challenged and has apparently no serious contenders. English dominates the web in most fields of knowledge. International instant messaging and other electronic genres are good examples of intercultural communication taking place in English. The academic world has also nestled itself happily in the arms of this language and so has any industrial activity with international ambitions.

The above has had an impact on university education policies to the extent that regulations have been issued to set a minimum number of contact hours of English per week. While some universities have accommodated this requirement by allocating some credits to English language learning, others have opted to provide specialized courses in English. In this volume, scholars examine the current state of the latter option in some Spanish universities in the light of their own evidence and that of some other international studies on the same topic, to assess the current situation from within. The result is a volume that reflects on the theoretical side of EMI, while providing substantial evidence, yet showing an optimistic view with suggestions for the implementation of EMI courses and for further research. The reader will find information on such aspects as competencies, educational prerequisites for an EMI course, communicative strategies in EMI sessions, the role of instructors and the importance of critical thinking, among others.

The first article in this monographic volume of *Language Value* is 'EMI and Intercultural Competence at University of Alcalá: The case of the *Master's Degree in Teacher Training*' coauthored by Isabel de la Cruz-Cabanillas and Cristina Tejedor-Martínez. The University

of Alcalá is not new in using EMI practices in their degrees, as explained in this article, and so lecturers are aware of both the needs and issues in this respect. One of these needs concerns the awareness and implementation of the intercultural competence for both daily and specialized interaction to gear successful communication. The authors report on this aspect from their own research and practice in the University of Alcalá's *Master's Degree in Teacher Training*. Their conclusions reveal the importance of devoting time and practice to enhance intercultural competence to gain proficiency in professional settings along with ethical values that should not be overlooked.

The second article is 'English as a Medium of Instruction in Learning Professional Skills for Engineers' by Adrián Peñate Sánchez revises the notions of EMI and CLIL, among other related concepts. For this, the author focuses on a particular course devoted to the teaching of professional skills to students of engineering to realize that, while the intent is to develop an EMI course, there are certain social, linguistic, pedagogical, and institutional constraints which represent serious drawbacks to develop a truly EMI course. A positive stance emerges in the conclusion section with a set of recommendations to reach the initial governmental requirements of teaching content courses in English without necessarily ignoring the linguistic issues students come across in learning new concepts in English. The author suggests that a more convenient option should be what he labels as Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) to cope with those students with a lower language proficiency level than required. It is clear then that the instructors have a prominent role in the careful design of the syllabus to integrate and adapt language in the enactment of situated communicative events in their sessions.

Precisely, an aspect concerning the role of lecturers in EMI courses is the topic developed in the third article, entitled 'Bilingual resources in English-medium instruction lecturers: the role lecturer's L1 is playing in EMI courses' and written by M^a Ángeles Velilla Sánchez. Her research set at the University of Zaragoza examines the instructors' use of multilingual resources, especially the use of the students' L1, in EMI courses to enhance the students' understanding of the concepts. Her conclusions show that the use of L1 seems to be a pragmatic device to ensure that students really comprehend certain conceptual requirements to move forward on in the course. Alternatively, her

data also makes evident that code-switching from English as a vehicular language to L1 is more likely to occur in undergraduate than postgraduate courses for the reasons she clearly describes in her study. Conclusions also suggest the need to carry out some further research in the matter.

The fourth article written by Francisco J. Álvarez Gil is 'Possible implementation of subjects taught using English as a Medium of Instruction methodology in tourism studies'. The author begins by reviewing and clarifying certain terminology that may not be so clear to newcomers, but which also represents fuzzy boundaries for instructors when it comes to developing real content sessions in English. Álvarez-Gil strongly believes that the use of EMI procedures in some courses is ideally only achievable on paper, as many students do not possess the necessary command of English to understand abstract concepts, let alone to write and discuss complex topics in this foreign language. Adopting a different stance, but coinciding in some assumptions, to that of Peñate Sánchez (this volume), this author believes that a set of ESP courses in the first two years of the degree in tourism may put students in a better position to successfully tackle EMI courses in the other two years of the degree. At present, first-year students have only had courses as part of the secondary school curriculum, fortunately reaching A2/B1 level. It seems unlikely, therefore, that these students will be able to follow instructions in English in the EMI sessions without prior improvement in their levels of English language proficiency.

María José Gómez-Calderón focuses on English cultural studies in her article entitled 'EMI and the Teaching of Cultural Studies in Higher Education: A Study Case'. The author analyzes the students' stance concerning the study of content courses entirely developed in English just after enrolling a university degree. In this case, the use of English seems mandatory as the students belong to a degree in English studies. The alternative to use such strategies as code-switching and translation on a regular basis would negatively affect the number of credits these students may take in their language of specialization. The interest of the author is, however, more concerned with how these students feel taking this EMI courses in their degree in English raising questions related to previous training in the language, the load of individual work, and their self-image

during class performances, among other aspects. The article also considers the role students' anxiety plays in this teaching-learning process.

The last article by Margarita Mele-Marrero and Andrés Rodríguez-Marrero entitled 'Tertiary Education Learning Outcomes, a Case Study: "You want us to think!"' also reflects on perceptions towards students' performance in a degree of English studies. The authors analyze the problems faced by these students during the learning process in content subjects taught in English. To do so, Mele-Marrero and Rodríguez-Marrero consider sociological, technological, linguistic and pedagogical aspects to try to explain the current educational situation in which a lack of skills and personal motivation together with a negative attitude towards the teaching and learning environment are often alleged to justify poor academic performance. The authors want, however, to see the other side of the coin, where higher success rates can be achieved through the use of critical thinking and cooperative work, as these can help students to overcome certain affective barriers during the acquisition of professional competences, while gaining confidence in their language skills. There is no doubt that this approach to teaching is not limited to EMI practices, but it relies on the engagement of learners, who can also feel the instructor's rapport with what they have to say. Another positive aspect is that the use of ICTs in the process is not to be rejected, but that students become a central and active part of their training through appropriate tutoring by critically selecting what leads to better problem solving and professional expertise.

In the book review section, very appropriately, Elena Domínguez Morales offers her consideration of the recently published monograph on CLIL and EMI, entitled *Teaching Language and Content in Multicultural and Multilingual Classrooms CLIL and EMI Approaches* (2021), edited by Carrió-Pastor and Bellés-Fortuño for Palgrave MacMillan. This book brings together a collection of edited works by specialists in EMI and CLIL. The volume represents a good contribution both for those new to the field and for practitioners. According to the reviewer, the editors have shown their concern in trying to present clear definitions to set the scene. This is complemented by further theoretical developments of these approaches in several chapters, and descriptions of actual practice exemplify what CLIL and EMI are all about in others.

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EMI and Intercultural Competence at University of Alcalá: The case of the *Master's Degree in Teacher Training*

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ABSTRACT

The use of English as a Medium of Instruction to teach subjects other than English is widely spread across European higher education institutions. The University of Alcalá has been working on the implementation of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) for decades now. The internationalisation process accounts for the increasing number of studies both at undergraduate and postgraduate levels taught in English. The response of international students has been positive considering the University of Alcalá one of their favourite Spanish destinations. The interaction of local and foreign students evidences the need to raise awareness towards the intercultural competence as part of the *Master's Degree in Teacher Training*, so that learners will feel comfortable in a different language and culture and contribute significantly not only to the labour market but also to dialogue and living together. In this article, the authors report on how this is done in one of the compulsory courses of this specific Master's Degree: *Complementary Training in English Studies*.

Keywords: *EMI; Intercultural Competence; University of Alcalá; Teacher Training for Compulsory and Upper Secondary Education, Vocational Training and Foreign Language Teaching; Complementary Training in English Studies.*

I. INTRODUCTION

I.1. Defining English-Medium Instruction

The concept of *English-Medium Instruction* (henceforth EMI) is relatively recent, juxtaposed with another phenomenon, *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL), and still there is no consensus about its definition, as Kling (2019) points out:

While there is a great deal of debate as to a specific definition, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) typically refers to the use of English as the language of teaching and learning for academic content courses (e.g., chemistry, biochemistry, sociology, political science) in contexts where English is not the natural or standard language of instruction [...]. In most cases, the learning outcomes for EMI courses focus on disciplinary competences; the language itself is not being explicitly taught. (2019, p. 2)

In turn, Macaro (2018, pp. 16-19), after analysing the different notions around the idea of EMI and the observations provided by various scholars, proposes the following definition: "The use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (2018, p. 19). As the author explains, this definition opens several questions: "How much use? What kind of use? Used by whom?" (Macaro, 2018, p. 19). All these three questions relate directly to the core elements involved in the phenomenon of EMI. In the first place, the amount of the use of English in the teaching process: whether English will be used in all the sessions, only in the teacher's presentation, in materials and resources (in all of them or only part), etc. In the second place, the kind of use implies, for example, that explanations are in English, but classroom management is in L1, or part of the contents are explained in English and others in L1, or contents are in English and students' work in L1. Thus, different languages can be used while teaching. Finally, we should consider if both, teachers and students, will be using English and in which situations.

However, we have not addressed several problems that arise such as the language proficiency needed by both groups involved, training to support this way of teaching, the financial resources needed, etc., and some other questions regarding the possibility of separating completely the teaching of content from the teaching of language or the effectiveness in learning English in EMI programmes. Research to identify the difficulties

has been carried out. For instance, Vu and Burns (2014, p. 5) point out some of the fifteen common problems identified by Smith (2004, as cited in Coleman, 2006) in European higher education EMI programmes: the need to improve language skills for local students and staff and the supply of competent English-speaking content lecturers, though these are not the only ones that should be considered.

There has been a significant growth of EMI courses, which is clearly related to the internationalisation strategies in which most universities are involved. Shohamy (2013) states that learning through the widespread EMI approach at universities is:

A reflection of the combination of two power entities: on the one hand, the power of the English language at this day and age, a language that a large number of learners seek to acquire given the belief that it will provide access to central bastions of society and, on the other hand, the power and status associated with the prestige of universities that grant degrees and provide access to the workplace. (2013, p. 201)

All in all, the implementation of EMI should be carefully planned by the institutions in order to get the expected results, because the spread of EMI at higher education does not imply success. In fact, the effectiveness of EMI approaches at universities poses problems about the levels of academic knowledge acquired by students. Several authors (Coleman, 2006; Tamtam et al., 2012; Shohamy, 2013; Macaro, 2018, among others) concentrate not only on the advantages and possibilities of developing EMI programmes, but also on the disadvantages that have been noticed, and point out that the theoretical analysis of the issues involved should continue in order to evaluate its effectiveness.

1.2. Internationalisation at University of Alcalá

The spread of English as the vehicle of communication all over the world is part of the globalisation process that has been taking place since the last quarter of the twentieth century, although, as Kachru explains (1996, p. 2), this global role of English was predicted for over two hundred years ago by John Adams, the second president of the United States. The English language has come to occupy a unique position due to the number of non-native users, that is “English as its *other* tongue” (Kachru, 1996, p. 3), and to its increasing importance in the social, economic, scientific and cultural spheres. In fact, Coleman (2011, p. 18) states that English plays an important role in “increasing

employability, facilitating international mobility (migration, tourism, studying abroad), unlocking development opportunity and accessing crucial information, and acting as an impartial language”.

The status of English as a global language has been reflected in the tendency to offer courses in English at different European universities, that is, the promotion of EMI in higher education. EMI in Europe is seen as a means of boosting intercultural knowledge as well. Subsequently, the participation in foreign exchange programmes within the domain of higher education has been encouraged (Tamtan et al., 2012). The well-known project developed within the European Union, Erasmus (European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) has contributed to the cultural exchange and awareness of other countries which are part of the European Union. The programme has been successful all over Europe, especially in those countries receiving the higher number of exchange students; namely Spain, France, Germany, United Kingdom and Italy, according to the European Commission (2012). As Macaro explains, most Erasmus students in the 1980s and 1990s attended courses taught in the language of the host institution, but “there has been a gradual shift from attending courses in the language of the host country to attending courses taught through the medium of English” (2018, p. 50). Certainly, there has been a shift in the idea of European plurilingualism, because at a certain point English was granted a prominent position as language of instruction. In fact, English, being considered a global language, has become the *lingua franca* of education, also in European higher education, as Ferguson already recognised, when the Erasmus project was starting, claiming that “English is widely used on the European continent as an international language. Frequently conferences are conducted in English (and their proceedings published in English) when only a few of the participants are native speakers” (1981, p. xvii).

One of the first experiences of EMI in European higher education took place in the mid-1980s at Maastricht University, when a first-degree programme in International Management taught mainly in English was implemented (Wilkinson, 2013, p. 4). Many other projects have followed since then, as Coleman contends, in the last fifteen years, “English-medium teaching in Europe universities has shown exponential growth, initially in master's courses but increasingly also in undergraduate degrees” (2006, p. 6).

The desire of internationalisation of universities has triggered the use of English in higher education and in academia (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2021, p. 1) and subsequently, EMI is gaining momentum. Spain is no exception to this, and the University of Alcalá proves to be a good example of the implementation of internationalisation plans which include courses in English, participation in study abroad programmes and the establishment of overseas partnerships in order to achieve international positioning. The mobility of the academic staff and the students is a key element in this process. In fact, the internationalisation plans were part of the strategic schemes of most universities, as the study carried out at seven hundred and forty-five universities confirmed (Egroun-Polak & Ross, 2010). Recently, the University of Alcalá has created the International Summer and Winter School for both national and international university and pre-university students who want to have a multicultural experience.

The University of Alcalá is considered one of the major international destinations among undergraduate and postgraduate students, probably because of the environment where the University is set, the cultural and social activity of the city, its proximity to Madrid, the good reputation of the University, the desire to improve students' level of Spanish, and also thanks to the number of courses that are provided in English. In fact, according to the QS WUR (World University Ranking), the University of Alcalá is the second Spanish public university in the ranking in the attraction of international students. Evidence of its appealing force is the fact that, in the latest three academic years, out of the total number of students at university, nearly one sixth of them was originally from foreign institutions. The difference between the incoming students and the outgoing is also remarkable, since we receive nearly ten times the number of students we send abroad. The distribution can be seen in the following table:

Table 1. *Distribution of incoming and outgoing students*

	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20
Incoming	5,523	4,751	5,184
Outgoing	539	513	547
Total	28,067	29,063	29,015

Out of the forty-four official degrees in the University of Alcalá, twelve offer most of their teaching in English: *Degree in Economics and International Business*, *Degree in English Studies*, *Degree in Modern Languages and Translation*, *Degree in Primary Education*, *Degree in Computer Engineering*, *Degree in Computer Science Engineering*, *Degree in Electronic Communications Engineering*, *Degree in Electronics and Industrial Automation Engineering*, *Degree in Information Systems*, *Degree in Telematics Engineering*, *Degree in Telecommunication Technologies Engineering*, and *Degree in Telecommunications Systems Engineering*. The Polytechnic School is the one which incorporates subjects taught in English in the highest number of degrees, up to eight. In turn, the Faculty of Arts and Humanities participates with three degrees, and the Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism offers another degree, in both cases in the bilingual option, at least half of the credits of students' plan are taught in English.

Regarding the sixty-seven official master's degrees, eight offer part of their teaching in English and this fact is clearly indicated in the specific access conditions for students, where an English level certificate is required: *American Studies*, *Industrial Engineering*, *Photonics Engineering*, *Telecommunication Engineering*, *Finance and Banking*, *International Business Administration*, *Teacher Training for Compulsory and Upper Secondary Education*, *Vocational Training and Foreign Language Teaching (English section)* and *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. The two Faculties and the School mentioned above, which offer the undergraduate degrees in English, are also the ones involved in the use of English-Medium instruction at the master's level.

Several master's degrees in the Health Science area indicate that the teaching languages can be both English and Spanish, although English is not clearly established as a compulsory working language, for example in *Manual Physical Therapy*, *Drug Discovery*, *General Health Psychology*, where English is used in part of the bibliography of the

subjects in this study; also for seminars and for students' papers, whereas in *Microbiology applied to Public Health and Infectious Diseases Research*, *Therapeutic Targets of Cells Signalling: Research and Development*, the English language is occasionally used.

Similarly, in the Social and Legal Sciences field, English is also considered subsidiary working language in some master's degrees, such as *Accounting and Auditing and their Effects on Capital Markets*, *Conference Interpreting for Business*, *International Human Rights Protection*, *Management and Change Management*, since several of the compulsory and optional courses are taught in English. In the Science area, some master's degrees also incorporate the use of English in their teaching, either in several seminars that are taught in English, or in the bibliography used and, therefore, knowledge of English is necessary to follow the courses: *Ecosystem Restoration*, *Chemistry for Sustainability and Energy*, *Geographical Information Technologies*, *Physical Anthropology: Human Evolution and biodiversity*, and *Science and Technology from Space*.

It follows from the above description that the reality regarding EMI in the different undergraduate and masters' degrees in the University of Alcalá is varied and relates directly to the questions suggested by Macaro (2018, p. 19) in his definition of the phenomenon: the amount of the use of English in the teaching process, how the use of English is organised by the participants and who will use English. A range of situations can be encountered, from a full use of English by both participants and in the whole teaching process, to the deployment of English only in the bibliography and materials that are part of the courses. Certainly, teachers play different roles in the EMI education process in this particular context possibly related to their own linguistic competence. In order to promote EMI, the University is taking several measures. Members of the teaching staff can enroll in free English language courses to improve their proficiency and, therefore, encourage them to participate in the EMI programmes. Besides, the University usually rewards these teachers in their course load count. The free English language courses are also open to the administrative staff so that they can communicate with international students.

Regarding national students attending courses at University of Alcalá, the great majority come from the Autonomous Community of Madrid in which a significant number of Primary and High Schools offer bilingual education. In fact, the so-called Bilingual Programme was implemented in the Autonomous Community of Madrid in Primary Education in 2004 and it was made extensive to Secondary Education schools in 2010. Since then, it has been gaining ground steadily. In fact, some students decide to continue their studies at tertiary level also through English and, subsequently, join EMI courses. Therefore, the entry requirements in EMI programmes are established for all students at undergraduate and master's level. The University works in raising EMI at all levels with a twofold purpose: the international promotionⁱ of the institution and the completion of levels of excellence necessary for an adequate academic and professional training of students.

It is a fact that EMI is widely integrated in the undergraduate and masters' degrees. The following table shows the number of incoming international students enrolled in face-to-face undergraduate degrees in all the Faculties and Schools at the University of Alcalá during the latest three academic years:

Table 2. *Incoming international students at UAH*

	2017-2018	2018-2019	2019-2020
School of Architecture	72	43	76
Polytechnic School	28	44	44
Faculty of Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Environmental Sciences)	24	32	30
Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism	163	167	175
Faculty of Law	42	38	36
Faculty of Education	16	13	38
Faculty of Pharmacy	17	18	21
Faculty of Arts and Humanities	287	236	269
Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences	52	45	45

When reading the table, differences in the number of incoming students can be easily observed: the Faculty of Arts and Humanities records the highest number by a wide margin over the next one, the Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism. Both Faculties offer degrees in English or mostly taught in English, but the Faculty of Arts and Humanities also attracts international students that want to learn the Spanish language and culture, being this an essential factor to partially explain the difference in numbers. Although the School of Architecture does not offer degrees in English, it occupies the third position. The reason that explains its success is that a good number of incoming students come from Spanish speaking countries. On the contrary, the Polytechnic School, which teaches several undergraduate degrees and three masters' degrees using English as a language of instruction, does not attract an important number of international students. In fact, it is in a similar range with other Faculties that do not offer English teaching in their degrees. Nevertheless, it can also be pointed out that the number of international students in this School have risen considerably, from 28 to 44. As we have mentioned, the University of Alcalá also attracts international students that come to join the courses offered in Spanish or even combining EMI courses with others taught in Spanish.

Students come from a wide range of countries from different backgrounds and expectations. The number of students joining the University of Alcalá either physically or virtually in master's degrees, PhD programmes and postgraduate courses in general is even higher, which explains why the institution welcomes over five thousand international students every year. As Saarinen and Nikula pointed out, "international programmes usually involve culturally and linguistically heterogeneous student populations, with varying levels of proficiency in English and experience with English-medium instruction (EMI)" (2013, p. 132). The relationship between cultural contents and English as a medium of instruction will be addressed in the next section.

II. INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION

II.1. The significance of Intercultural Competence

Language and culture are intrinsically interwoven. Learners cannot completely master a language if they are unaware of the environment where the language is spoken. Even if there are some aspects shared by all languages, which are often known as linguistic universals, there are traits that are specific of a given speech community. The cultural aspects are reflected through the specialisation in the lexicon, among others. Thus, it is easily understandable why Eskimo languages have various denominations for snow, or why Galician has plenty of words for the different kinds of rain. The acknowledgement of this fact is essential to any person who uses the language if effective communication is pursued. In fact, knowledge of the culture is vital to business, trade and commerce stakeholders, as well as to linguists and translators, among many other users. In this vein, Franco-Aixelá warns that culture-specific items can pose problems to translators since they may not find an equivalent in the target language. He regards a culture-specific item as “the result of a conflict arising from any linguistic represented reference in a source text when, transferred to a target language, poses a translation problem due to the nonexistence or to the different value (whether determined by ideology, usage, frequency, etc.) of the given items in the target language culture” (Franco-Aixelá, 1996, p. 57).

The adoption of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* by the Council of Europe (CEFR, 2001) gave greater importance to cultural aspects in foreign language education. According to Reid, “the aim was to equip learners with the ability to communicate appropriately across linguistic and cultural boundaries in multicultural and multilingual Europe. Even though the CEFR emphasises the importance of developing ICC, it only gives general instruction” (2015, p.940).

In turn, Moran explains that the intercultural competence consists of “developing the ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, regardless of the cultures involved” (2001, p.111). Lussier adds that one of the components of the intercultural competence, what this author names as trans-cultural competence, is about one’s own perspectives, practices and products and those of other sociocultural groups. Thus, it implies “the integration of new values, the respect of other values and

the valorization of otherness which derives from the coexistence of different ethnic groups and cultures evolving in a same society or in distinct societies while advocating the enrichment of identity of each culture in contact” (2007, p. 324).

Scholars now agree on the fact that that knowledge of the culture is a vital element that cannot be overlooked in foreign language teaching in order to promote the intercultural competence. Likewise, it has also been emphasised that it should be integrated in EMI. Furthermore, Aguilar considers that “Intercultural Competence (IC) should become a learning outcome in ESP and EMI courses” (2018, p. 25). Thus, teachers are essential mediators to help students to learn about the language, the beliefs, values and tenets of the culture behind the language and, in getting the knowledge, teachers and students will facilitate intercultural communication.

As seen in the introduction, EMI has been defined in a number of ways. A simple definition is provided by Schmidt-Unterberger: “Teaching non-language subjects through English” (2018, p. 528). The authors are teachers in the *Master’s Degree in Teacher Training*ⁱⁱ in the subject *Complementary Training in English Studies*, where both EMI and the intercultural competence are in action. The subjects taught in this master are not properly about English, but pedagogy on how to approach teaching in general and the English language in particular.

II.2. Intercultural Competence in textbooks

Several authors have mentioned that there are different types of culture (Gómez-Rodríguez, 2015; Moran, 2001; Kramsch, 2014). In fact, both Moran and Kramsch distinguish between two kinds: Culture with a big C and culture with small c. According to Kramsch, “the speech habits of native speakers in formal, written, or academic situations were captured by the big C culture of literature and the arts, the speech habits of native speakers in normal conversations were captured by the little c culture of everyday life” (2014, p.403). Kramsch adds that until the 1960s the focus on foreign language learning was placed on big C culture. Thus, textbooks tend to depict this kind of culture and often misrepresent culture with small letters.

Likewise, Bocanegra-Valle (2015) and other scholars agree on this claim, since their studies on the intercultural element in textbooks confirm this idea. Even if textbooks are powerful resources to work on the intercultural competence, publishing houses fail to

help students to achieve it. According to Bocanegra-Valle, it is not a significant aim in English for Specific Purposes textbooks and many of them attempt to give a certain impression of globality by introducing the word *international* in their titles (2015, p. 39). Another issue that needs to be addressed is the type of language variety and associated culture which is selected to be represented in textbooks. The question of which English should be taught is an essential one in EMI programmes too. There are several cultures associated with a particular language. Thus, English is spoken as a first language in United Kingdom, Ireland, United States of America, Canada, New Zealand and Australia. In the concentric circles of English proposed by Kachru (1985, 1996), the choice of countries in textbooks basically corresponds to the Inner Circle:

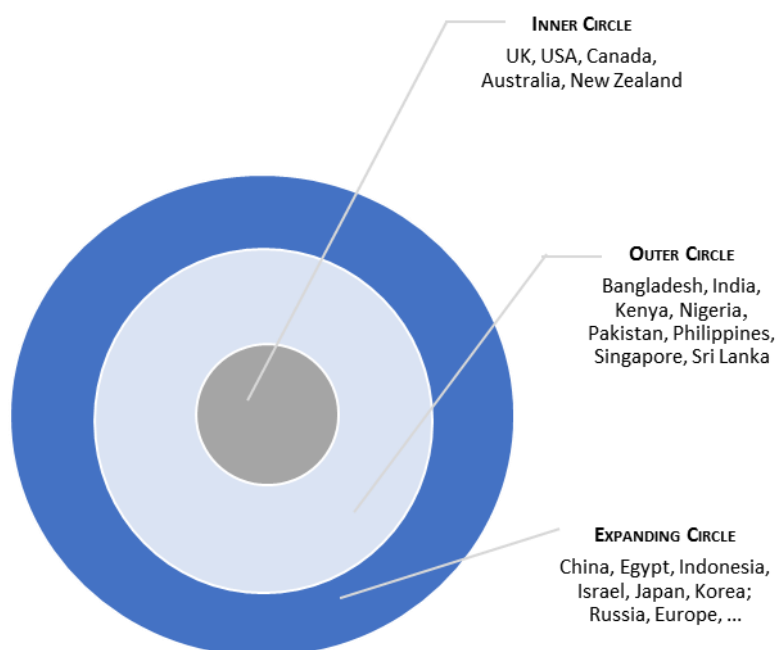


Figure 1. Adaptation of Kachru's circles of English (Kachru, 1996, p.356)

Although Macaro (2018, p. 129) points out the value of Kachru's model, he also explains that the model "has subsequently been critiqued because it is too heavily nation-based (Bruthiaux, 2003) and fails to identify the complex sociolinguistic and policy-driven realities within and between each of the circles". In fact, the countries in the Outer Circle, where English is co-official with other languages and their cultures very rarely occur in textbooks.

Teachers are active ambassadors of the culture lying behind the specific variety they are teaching, since students will see the culture through their eyes. Thus, the function of language teachers is not only the transmission of information about a foreign country, but also the guiding of students through their own exploration of the reality to value and respect other cultures. In this way, according to Byram et al. (2002), the intercultural dimension is concerned with

- helping learners to understand how intercultural interaction takes place,
- how social identities are part of all interaction,
- how their perceptions of other people and others people's perceptions of them influence the success of communication,
- how they can find out for themselves more about the people with whom they are communicating. (2002, p. 10)

III. THE CASE OF COMPLEMENTARY TRAINING IN ENGLISH STUDIES IN THE MASTER'S DEGREE IN TEACHER TRAINING

III.1. *Master's Degree in Teacher Training for Compulsory and Upper Secondary Education, Vocational Training and Foreign Language Teaching*

The desire to be in line with the new demands of the labour market has led the University of Alcalá to the promotion of EMI, a practice that has been going on for decades now in Spanish higher education institutions, "in an attempt to meet the challenges of today's rapidly changing globalised world" (Pavón-Vázquez and Ellison, 2021, p. 193). Following the university commitment to internalisation through EMI courses, the *Degrees in English Studies* and *Modern Languages and Translation* from the Department of Modern Languages have been using English as a medium of instruction in every single subject for decades, except for courses on French, German and Spanish. Likewise, most masters' courses where the staff of the Department participate are taught in English. Thus, since 2010 the authors have been participating in the *Master's Degree in Teacher Training* in the English section. The subjects in this master's degree are not properly about the English language, but pedagogy on how to approach teaching in general, reflecting on all the aspects that need to be taken into account before

planning a lesson to answer questions about the contents, materials, the timing and sequence, the target audience, the setting, the method, the objectives and competences and, once the lesson is designed, the evaluation process. Thus, teachers wonder about these elements represented in Figure 2:

Contents: What am I going to teach? And with what materials?

Timing: When is the teaching taking place and in what order are the contents and materials to be sequenced?

The target audience: Who are my students, what is their age, their level?

The setting: Where am I to teach?

The method: What approach am I going to follow?

Purpose: Which are the aims and competences?



Figure 2. Key elements in teaching planning

These elements surrounding the central idea of teaching planning, as can be seen in Figure 2, are vital to any act of teaching and so is the evaluation process that must take place to make sure the contents are assessed through appropriate instruments and to ponder on ways of improving every element that takes part in the process. Thus, the master covers all the aspects a prospective teacher must bear in mind to plan and carry

out effective teaching. Gradually it will concentrate on issues that apply to any language teaching and, to do so, takes into account the tenets of foreign language teaching, with particular attention to the English language.

III.2. *Complementary Training in English Studies and the Intercultural Competence*

One of the subjects included in the Master's Degree is *Complementary Training in English Studies*. As mentioned above, the course vehicular language is English. The syllabus includes some contents which are compulsory by the standing law, such as *English as a global language*, which is followed by a unit on the cultural component in languages. The main aim of this unit is to make prospective teachers aware of the necessity of teaching culture intertwined with grammar in the more holistic sense. There is no point in teaching lists of words of vegetables and fruits, for example, if we do not pinpoint the usual practice of purchasing fruit by pieces in Britain or letting students know that a pound is also a measure. Thus, great attention is paid to the achievement of the intercultural competence which is worked from a theoretical and practical point of view.

The Council of Europe (2014, p. 28) states that "intercultural competence is a pedagogical goal pursued through deliberate inclusion of specific activities for learning". It is obvious that awareness towards the intercultural competence is a priority in the course and subsequently, a number of activities are aimed at increasing students' awareness of the topic, so that they will introduce the intercultural competence in their learning outcomes once they start their teaching practice. Furthermore, the Council of Europe adds that "because intercultural competence involves not only attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills but also action, equipping learners with intercultural competence through education empowers learners to take action in the world" (2014, pp. 21-22). This action will take place not only in their lives but also in others'. Our students are prospective teachers whose work will impact on the development of the new generations, so they are key participants in preparing their own students for a future professional career in a globalised world, where the intercultural knowledge will enable them to better understand otherness.

The Council of Europe (2014, pp. 20-21) provides an extensive list of items that are part of the different components of intercultural competence (attitudes, knowledge and

understanding, skills and actions). In order to develop students' intercultural competence several techniques are used in the subject *Complementary Training in English Studies*:

1. **Readings** to make students aware of the cultural distance. In pairs, students are assigned the reading of an article on the topic, and they have to present the contents of the article to their partners in the following session. The authors of the articles are Spanish, like Coperías-Aguilar (2010), which allows students to reflect on the intercultural competence in a Spanish setting, but also foreigners, like Wen (2016), whose reading arises students' awareness of other cultures apart from their own.

Similarly, the selected readings have another purpose: to explore their own intercultural identity as prospective foreign language teachers (Fernández-Agüero and Garrote, 2019) and the need for these prospective language teachers "to become aware of the multifaceted English world" (De Bartolo, 2019, p. 611).

2. **Role play.** According to Reid (2015, pp. 942-943) "Role play is a very effective technique practicing sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases, socio-cultural knowledge, but also non-verbal communication". We share this opinion, and subsequently, students are given some situations to practice. For instance, in a restaurant in an English-speaking country, where the food restrictions are more varied because of the existence of a higher number of the population eating kosher, vegetarian, flexitarian, fruitarian or pescatarian. Likewise, both in restaurants and shops, but also in different means of transport, in some English-speaking countries pets are welcomed, especially those considered to be for emotional support. Although this practice is being adopted increasingly in Spain, it is not so common to see dogs, cats, or other pets on buses, planes, restaurants and shops. This is also a good opportunity to explore differences through role play.

3. **The technique of cultural capsule**, which "demonstrates, for example a custom, which is different in two cultures" (Reid, 2015, p. 941). In the class, we discuss, for instance, main meals of the day, their timetable, their ingredients

and methods of preparation. Thus, in the United Kingdom the main meal is in the evening and quite early to Spanish standards. We also deal with the rituals when offered food as a guest: whether you should accept immediately or a negotiation process begins, whereby the guest initially rejects the invitation to stay for dinner or to accept more food when sharing the table with their hosts in Spain, whereas in Britain this ritual does not necessarily take place, since the guest either accepts or rejects the invitation kindly from the very beginning. According to Reid (2015, p. 941), this activity, which “practices socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences”, serves to reflect on differences. Therefore, divergences in table manners in the United States and Spain, for example, and also in some other habits are explored. For instance, sharing a salad, a starter or first course is quite frequent between friends and family in Spain, while in English-speaking countries you should ask first whether they would consider this practice acceptable.

4. The comparison method, which is “one of the most used techniques for teaching cultures. It concentrates on discussing the differences between the native and target cultures” (Reid, 2015, p. 941). We practice this technique dividing the class in groups: some groups are provided with the situations in English and must discuss them in that language. Their partners receive the same situations in Spanish and must discuss them in Spanish. For instance, group A is given the following situation: “You ask your flat mate to clean up the kitchen that is in a mess after he/she used it last night”. In turn, group B gets this: “Tu compañero/a de piso dejó la cocina hecha un asco anoche, así que le pides que la limpie”. This is probably the only instance when Spanish is used as a vehicle of communication in class. Another situation for group A is: “You are wearing a T-shirt. You meet your friend, and she tells you how cool it is, what do you say?”, whereas group B receives this: “Llevas puesta una camiseta. Tu amiga te la ve y te comenta cuánto le gusta, ¿qué dices tú?”. Then, we reflect on the different discourse strategies that are used in both languages to request, demand or thank people. The findings are in line with

previous studies (Cenoz & Valencia, 1996), whereby Spanish makes use of more direct commands, whereas English uses more indirect strategies.

5. Final project. Students must write a final project designing a didactic unit that integrates the intercultural component. Thus, they can prepare their teaching unit with activities on festivities, habits, practices, etc. Very often they choose an environment they are familiar with and make use of their own experience in English-speaking countries. Students tend to design materials based on their stays in Ireland introducing Saint Patrick's Day, Thanksgiving Day for those keen on the United States; the figure of Guy Fawkes with bonfire night is often recalled by students whose main stay was in England, while those staying in Scotland bring up the figure of Robert Burns and talk about Burns' Night with haggis, nippies and tatties, and even a few of them acquainted with Australia culture may design a project on Maori art. Some other students choose other topics for their projects like sports that are rarely practised in Spain, such as baseball, rugby, cricket, curling, hurling, as they are practiced in an English-speaking country.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The desire of internationalisation in higher education linked to the consideration of the English language as a global vehicle of communication has brought about the increase in EMI worldwide. Regarding the European higher education system, "English is clearly the dominant foreign language used in teaching at institutes of higher education in the EU countries. [...] English is generally perceived to be the dominant language of teaching for the future" (Ammon & McConnell, 2002, p. 7).

The University of Alcalá is a good example of this phenomenon with twelve undergraduate degrees offering teaching in English, eight master's degrees also including all or part of their subjects in English and other twelve master's degrees incorporating the use of English in their teaching, either in seminars or in the materials and bibliography. As it has been explained, there is not a single scenario, but different approaches to EMI are being put into practice within the University of Alcalá. All in all,

the implementation of EMI programmes at Alcalá University has proven to be successful, since it has become the second-ranking Spanish public university in attracting international students according to the QS WUR.

The integration of the intercultural competence is necessary in language teaching syllabi. Therefore, contrastive cultural studies, where traditions and culture-bound behaviour is covered, are needed to enable a good understanding. Besides, very often they go along with specific linguistic expressions that are to be uttered under certain circumstances in order to avoid social blunders. In fact, language and cultural practices are intimately connected and, therefore, the language must be learned within the culture where it is spoken.

We have presented the experience in *Complementary Training in English Studies* where the instruction is mediated through English. A relevant issue in the contents of the course is the students' awareness towards the intercultural competence, since they are prospective teachers. As a way of conclusion, one can use the words by Byram et al. (2002, p. 6):

Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching involves recognising that the aims are: to give learners intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence; to prepare them for interaction with people of other cultures; to enable them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours; and to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience (Byram et al., 2002, p. 6).

Indeed, one of the aims in this subject is to promote the knowledge about different cultures through the use of English as a Medium of Instruction. The focus is not on upgrading students' proficiency of English, but on showing sensitivity towards other people's cultures fostering reflection on the importance of acquiring the intercultural competence. Our intention is that these prospective teachers will combine both, intercultural competence and the use of the English language, in their teaching practice. Thus, this training will help the development of future professionals and will contribute to creating democratic citizens within a culturally diverse world.

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Notes

ⁱ This implies not only the attraction of international students, but being listed in the world's three most prestigious university rankings: the QS World University Ranking (QS WUR), the Times Higher Education World University Ranking and the Shanghai Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU).

ⁱⁱ According to the *250 Master's degrees* supplement issued by the newspaper *El Mundo* each year, the *Teacher Training for Compulsory and Upper Secondary Education, Vocational Training and Foreign Language Teaching (Máster Universitario en Formación del Profesorado de Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria, Bachillerato, Formación Profesional y Enseñanza de idiomas)* is among the five best Masters in Spain in its field in its 2020 edition, being the third (out of five) in the Education area. (www.elmundo.es/) (consulted June 25th, 2021).

English as a Medium of Instruction in Learning Professional Skills for Engineers

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ABSTRACT

In this article, we reflect on the variables to be considered when teaching in English a subject of the bachelor's degree of Computer Engineering: "Learning Professional Skills for Engineers". In order to make this study, we start from an analysis of the recent history of teaching in English at university level and the institutional context in which it happens. Three research questions are posed, with the intent to check what minimum conditions must be met to be able to teach this subject in English. The results lead us to conclude that the option of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is not the appropriate one, taking into account both the linguistic and didactic training of the teaching staff and the language accreditation of the students. However, it is feasible to opt for the Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) option.

Keywords: *EMI (English as a Medium of Instruction); ICLHE (Content and Language in Higher Education); Computer Engineering; Linguistic Level*

I. INTRODUCTION

The title of this article focuses on the concept of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). Therefore, it is necessary to analyze two fundamental aspects: firstly, the way in which EMI has been incorporated in different European universities, and secondly, the legislation or recommendations developed for this purpose in Europe, Spain and the Canary Islands.

Based on this reflection, three research questions are posed to verify, in the first place, what response has been given to the Canary Islands government's requirement to teach five percent of the subjects in English. Next, we check whether the minimum conditions required to teach using EMI are met at this university. And finally, we intend to define the fundamental elements that must be taken into account when designing the teaching project of the subject *Learning Professional Skills for Engineers*. '

II. ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

Especially in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) EMI education has become particularly relevant since the end of the 20th century, with an even greater strength at the beginning of this century (Berg et al., 2001). The main reasons that have led these countries to take this decision have been three (Airey, 2004, p. 1): "internationalisation, preparing students for an academic world dominated by English and competitive advantages on the job market". And to these three reasons are added others that refer to the social context of these countries: their small populations and limited internal markets (Airey et al., 2015, p. 9). This trend towards an increase in the implementation of EMI teaching has experienced an exponential growth especially in Masters courses (Coleman, 2006, p. 6).

It could be argued that this is a top-down model in which decisions are made by the academic authorities of each university or even higher levels of local government. At the same time, we could also define that there is another model that we will call bottom-up. These are universities that make decisions based on the bilingual teaching model that students have had at lower, non-university levels. This is the case of some

universities in other parts of Europe, such as some universities in the Basque Country in Spain (Doiz et al., 2011)

The adoption of this type of teaching is not without debate and doubt, doubts that refer to the level of learning of the specific contents of the different subjects, and also to the possible loss in the learning of the some technical terms in the mother tongue.

II.1. The effects on the learning of the content subjects

When teaching different subjects, the first question we all ask ourselves refers to the consequences it has on the learning process of the subject matter. Although it might seem that in the Nordic countries there is no need to raise this point of view, because of the high level of English among students, we do find this issue in the debate in countries such as Sweden. However, “little research has been carried out at university level into the effects of teaching through the medium of English. (Airey, 2004, p. 7; Airey et al., 2015, p. 16)

In order to try to deepen the effects that its teaching in English has on the learning of a subject, numerous studies have been carried out. The experimental study by Airey and Linder (2006) examines the effect on university level learning of Physics in two teaching contexts: in English and in Swedish. The study was conducted with 22 students who were given a series of lessons in English and lessons in Swedish. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews in which the learners first described their experience in both types of class. In this first phase, the students did not see any difference in their experience as students in the two types of classes. Later, students were introduced to some video segments taken in the classes. With this process of stimulated recall, the students’ opinions were again solicited. The results obtained from the second interviews and the video recordings of the classes are summarized in the following quote:

“When taught in English the students in our study asked and answered fewer questions and reported being less able to follow the lecture and take notes at the same time. Students employed a number of strategies to meet the problems by asking questions after the lecture, changing their study habits so that they no longer took notes in class, reading sections of work before class or – in the worst case – by simply using the lecture

for mechanical note taking and then (perhaps?) putting in more work to make sense of these notes later.” (Airey & Linder, 2006, p. 558)

II.2. The effects on the mother tongue

The implementation of university education in English is considered by some as a way of relegating the mother tongue to a second level, leaving English to assume the higher and more scientific role. This leads Coleman (2006) to predict that “ultimately, the world will become diglossic, with one language for local communication, culture and expression of identity, and another - English - for wider and more formal communication, especially in writing.” (p. 11).

This is the fear expressed by the Nordic countries for having minority mother tongues (Airey et al. 2015, p.10). This has led some universities, that are leaders in the mass introduction of English in these countries, to reformulate their educational offerings. Thus, “the recent changes introduced at Uppsala University would appear to be a laudable attempt to shift the balance back towards Swedish, and deal with perceived shortcomings in the Swedish scientific language of students.” (Airey, 2004, p. 8)

III. THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

In this section, we will analyse the decisions related to the Linguistic Policy that have been taken in Europe, Spain and the Canary Islands.

III.1. The European perspective

Since the Bologna Declaration in 1999, the need for European universities to be attractive and competitive at world level has been defined. This approach implies the need, among many other factors, to increase and improve the linguistic competence of students and teachers in order to access the internationalization of our universities.

In subsequent meetings (Lisbon 2000, Barcelona 2002, Bergen 2005) this idea took shape, which led to the approval in 2007 of the following document: *European Higher Education in a Global Setting. A Strategy for the External Dimension of the Bologna*

Process (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2007). Although the topic under discussion here is not explicitly mentioned in this document, it is specified in the annex (Elements for possible future actions): the need of foreign language learning (2007, p. 13)

In 2013, the European Commission sets out a series of key priorities in the document *European Higher Education in the World* (2013). One of these priorities is international mobility. But since only a minority benefits from it, the approach of internationalisation at home must be strengthened “to ensure that the large majority of learners, the 80-90% who are not internationally mobile for either degree or credit mobility, are nonetheless able to acquire the international skills required in a globalised world.” (2013, p. 6). To achieve this goal, the integration of foreign language into curricula and the development of digital competence is recommended. Although only the term foreign language is used in this document, English has in fact been the language chosen almost universally, thus making it a lingua franca (Bjorkman, 2008)

III.2. The Spanish approach

At the beginning of the century, the situation of EMI education in Spain was practically non-existent. Thus, in the study by Ammon and McConnell (2002), cited by Coleman (2006, p.7), in which they analyze the number of programs taught in English in European countries, none of the universities in Spain had a degree in English in the 1999-2000 academic year.

Gradually, different universities began to incorporate the teaching of subjects mainly in English and, in some cases, in other foreign languages. Such is the case of the universities in the Basque Country that in the 2010-2011 academic year already taught more than 100 subjects in a foreign language (Cenoz, 2010, p. 29). A later study that aims to take a snapshot of the level of implementation of bilingual programs in Spain (Ramos García, 2013) presents a scenario in which degrees are gradually emerging that are taught in English, although very slowly. From these results, he highlights that “the most common degrees in English are those related to Business Administration, Economics, Engineering and the like” (p. 109). An example of this trend can be seen in the study by Dafouz &

Smit (2016) carried out at the School of Economics and Business Administration of the Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

Parallel to the steps that have been taken in our country, we find that there is a lack of homogeneous application of the different aspects that are considered fundamental. Such is the case, for example, of the linguistic level required of the students, in each university and even in each degree from the same university, in order to be able to access a bilingual program (Halbach et al, 2013, p. 120)

In Spain, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport published the *Strategy for the Internationalisation of Spanish Universities: 2015-2020*. After a diagnosis of the situation in all the universities, a series of general and specific objectives were defined. In the diagnostic study, the low rate of training given in English and other foreign languages was already detected as a weakness of the Spanish university system (p. 20), and it was therefore recommended that the objective of including bilingual training in the degrees should be pursued (p. 32).

The Spanish universities gave a boost to this project with the publication in 2017 of the *Linguistic Policy for the Internationalisation of the Spanish University System: A framework document* (Bazo & González, 2017). This document defines the courses of action aimed at guaranteeing language accreditation, language training and incentives, for the three groups that make up the university community: students, teaching staff and administration. Of all of them, we would like to highlight those referring to student training (p.17):

- Promote the teaching of courses which develop the ability to understand and express academic content (both oral and written) in a foreign language.
- Provide training in order to develop multilingual and multicultural skills with the aim of heightening awareness of language and communication in different linguistic and cultural contexts, and satisfactorily participating in mobility programmes.
- Focus on developing strategies to help solve potential communication problems and cultural differences which facilitate learning.

- Prepare students to effectively deal with professional situations in multicultural and multilingual contexts.

III.3. The linguistic policy in the Canary Islands

Decree 168/2008, published in the Official Bulletin of the Canary Islands on August 1, 2008, regulates the procedure, requirements and evaluation criteria for the authorization of the implementation of university education leading to the obtaining of an official Degree or Master. Among the requirements, we find the knowledge of a second language, which will preferably be English, with an adequate level and in accordance with the needs that the graduates of each degree will have. This requirement is specified in the obligation to teach at least five percent of the credits in that language. In the case of four-year degrees, this percentage of teaching in a foreign language is set at 12 credits (ECTS). These credits can be taken either in subjects of the English language itself or in different subjects of the degrees, which are taught in English.

IV. OBJECTIVES: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Once the introduction and the institutional policy have given us an overview of the context, through the measures taken by the different institutions at European, Spanish and Canarian level, it is time to list the objectives of our study. We will define the objectives through the following research questions:

- **Research question 1:** How has the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria applied the Decree 168/2008, which requires five percent of the credits to be taught in a foreign language?
- **Research question 2:** Can the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria implement English as a Medium of Instruction and respond favourably to the requirements for such teaching?
- **Research question 3:** What conditions must be met in order to teach the subject Learning Professional Skills for Engineers in English?

V. METHOD OF ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Since the three research questions force us to adopt different methods of analysis, we will jointly present the method of analysis and the results for each of the research questions.

V.1. How has the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria applied the Decree 168/2008 which requires five percent of the credits to be taught in a foreign language?

Since the decree of the government of the Canary Islands can be interpreted in a flexible way, the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria gave the option that the five percent of teaching in English could be covered by: teaching English for Specific Purposes or by teaching in English other subjects that are part of the curriculum of each degree or master's degree.

Obviously, there are a number of degrees where the teaching of English is compulsory by its very nature. We refer to the Degree in Translation and Interpreting, Degree in Modern Languages, and Degree in Tourism. There are others in which the teaching of English is also compulsory because they are regulated by ministerial orders. Such is the case of the Degree in Primary Education and the Degree in Early Childhood Education. In the remaining degrees, one of the two following options has been consistently chosen: teaching English for Specific Purposes (**ESP**) or using English as a Medium of Instruction (**EMI**).

In the table below we present the data obtained from the university's website (https://www2.ulpgc.es/index.php?pagina=plan_estudio&ver=inicio). In the first column, we specify the degrees that are the object of our analysis, organized by areas of knowledge (Arts and Humanities, Health Sciences, Social and Legal Sciences, Engineering and Architecture, and Science). In the second column, we detail the number of degrees that have chosen to incorporate an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) subject into their curriculum. And finally, the third column lists the degrees that teach five percent of their teaching in English (EMI).

Table 1. *The teaching of English in the Degrees of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria University*

Degrees	ESP	EMI
Arts and Humanities	2	0
Health Sciences	2	2
Social and Legal Sciences	4	5
Engineering and Architecture	12	1
Science	0	1
TOTAL	20	9

Of the data provided in the table above, there is one that we would like to highlight. A year ago, the Degree in Computer Engineering carried out a modification of its curriculum and opted to abandon the ESP model and take advantage of the EMI model. This decision has implied a change of subjects that is reflected in the following table.

Table 2. *Subjects of the Degree in Computer Engineering taught in English*

Subjects	ESP	EMI
Communication Techniques for Engineering I (6 ECTS)	√	
Communication Techniques for Engineering II (6 ECTS)	√	
Professional Skills for Engineers (6 ECTS)		√
Software Engineering and Management Projects (6 ECTS)		√

V.2. Can the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria implement English as a Medium of Instruction and respond favourably to the requirements for such teaching?

To answer this question, we will start by defining the conditions that are considered indispensable for the teaching of a subject according to the EMI model. In the study by Morrell Moll et al. (2015) an analysis was made of the reality of EMI teaching at the University of Alicante. In this study, special attention is paid to the training of both

teachers and students, as well as their attitudes. For this study, teacher and student surveys were used. The results of the teacher surveys reflect that most of the respondents believe that they have a B2, that they are in favour of increasing the educational offer in EMI, but that they are not willing to teach their classes in English. There are two reasons for this refusal: their insufficient linguistic and methodological training (p. 2107). For their part, most of the students consider themselves to have a B1 level, but curiously enough they show a positive attitude towards the possibility of being taught in English.

Let us now look more closely at the conditions required for successful EMI teaching.

V.2.1. Language level of students and teachers

Obviously, an inadequate language level of both students and teachers is the main difficulty when implementing teaching in a foreign language (Coleman, 2006, p. 6). In order for **students** to successfully complete a university course in a foreign language they need to have a level of at least B2. In other words, students “are not learners of English, but speakers of it”. (Bjorkman, 2008, p. 36). However, it does not seem that this level of mastery is within the reach of most students, as noted by Gómez López et al. (2014). In this study conducted in the Teacher Training College of Valencia, the level ranges from A2 to B1. The reasons that this study reflects are two: “*The lack of reading habits in English and an insufficient development of reading strategies.*” (p. 155)

As for the **teaching staff**, it is essential that they have an adequate linguistic level in general English and the specific linguistic competence to perform in their area of knowledge (Fortanet-Gómez, 2012, p. 60). In countries where EMI is widely established, the language competence of teachers is sometimes considered to be the only variable to be taken into account. Thus, the title of the paper by Airey (2004), *Can you teach it in English?*, “refers to the experience of many Swedish University lecturers who have been asked this question by their head of department.” (p. 105)

We commented earlier that Spanish universities agreed in Linguistic Policy for the Internationalisation of the Spanish University System (Bazo & González, 2017), the

courses of action aimed at guaranteeing language accreditation and requirements for teachers (p. 16):

- Recommend a CEFR level of C1 with reference to the certifications approved by the Linguistic Boards (and/or ACLES) as an advised minimum level for faculty members involved in the teaching of bilingual / multilingual courses.
- Promote the duly funded procedures so that teaching staff may certify the levels of foreign languages in which they teach.
- Promote the participation of faculty members in training programmes which will prepare them for bilingual teaching, by including such programmes in their planned, subsidised training schemes.
- Offer linguistic support to teachers prior or/and during their teaching

In the above quotation, the need for a C1 level is mentioned. To clarify what this actually means, the Council for Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001, p.24) details the following categories of language use:

Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

However, this set of capacities reflected in level C1 is in some cases not considered sufficient. This is the opinion, for example, of the Delft University of Technology. This university evaluated its teaching staff to determine their level of English, in the 2006/2007 academic year (Klaasgen & Bos, 2010). Specifically, the final purpose was to determine if their staff had a C1 level assessed through IELTS (International English Language Testing System). The results showed that 55% had a C1, but when assessing this result, it was considered necessary for the teaching staff to have a C2, for the following reasons (p. 75):

If we are to prepare our local students for global citizenship we have to offer them the opportunity to listen to lecturers with a C2 level of English and provide the opportunity to acquire the languages at an acceptable level themselves.

V.2.2. Pedagogical training of teachers

Although the didactic training of teachers to teach in a foreign language is a fundamental aspect, we find that it is being implemented in an uneven way. Therefore, it seems necessary to develop a model which takes into account different methodological approaches implemented in other contexts, to focus on the different types of language required in the classroom and to pay special attention to the suggestions and recommendations of studies carried out through systematic observation (Martín del Pozo, M.A., 2013, p. 214).

The importance of this specific pedagogical training, besides being necessary, is valued very positively by university teachers (Fernández, 2015). However, this same study points out the need to increase the training offer, since the teaching staff, when asked, considers that:

The number of courses is insufficient and the training provided has not improved their teaching methodology. Moreover, it is the opinion of lecturers that the training received does not qualify them to teach through English. (p. 103)

The Spanish universities also established the courses of action aimed at training EMI teachers (Bazo and González, 2017, p. 18). One of the proposed courses of action is “Offer initial and continued training, both of a linguistic and methodological nature, for those who teach in a foreign language.”

V.2.3. Current situation in this university

Let us now see what the reality of this university is in the two aspects considered fundamental: the linguistic level of the teaching staff and students, and the pedagogical training of the teaching staff.

It is not an easy task to know the exact linguistic level of the teaching staff. From 2017 onwards, language accreditation has been included in the university admission scale,

but the vast majority of the teaching staff were recruited before that date, so the data we have available have been provided on a voluntary basis. Of the 1648 teachers, we have data from 249 who are distributed by level as follows.

Table 3. *Teacher accreditation by level*

Common European Framework English Level	Total
C2	3
C1	91
B2	107
B1	49
All levels	235

From the above data, we must subtract from the total of 91 teachers with level C1, 37 teachers who are from the area of English Philology. In summary, we have 57 teachers with at least a C1 in English, which allows this university to have a sufficient number of instructors who could start teaching their subjects in English.

As for the student accreditation data, we find a situation similar to that detected in the teaching staff. We refer to the fact that students are not obliged to provide the university with their language certificates. It is basically the students interested in obtaining Erasmus scholarships who have provided this documentation to the university. Below we present the data referring to the Undergraduate and Master's students.

Table 4. *Student language accreditation by level*

Common European Framework English Level	Total
C2	24
C1	304
B2	547
B1	878

All levels	1753
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We can see from the general data that we have almost 900 students with at least a B2 level, which raises the possibility of starting to teach a series of subjects in English. But if we take into account that the total number of students in Bachelor and Master degrees is 18,000, the options for teaching in the EMI format are obviously very limited.

Let us now look at the didactic training received by the teaching staff in the last two years. The Teacher Staff Training Plan focuses on four general training dimensions: 1. Teaching, tutorial action and innovation; 2. Research; 3. Management and quality, and 4. Internationalization. Within the actions focused on internationalization, the following language and pedagogical training courses have been offered in the last two years. The number of times each course has been offered is specified in parentheses.

Table 5. *Training courses and teachers positively evaluated*

Language and pedagogical courses (2017-2019)	Teachers
Communication skills development and preparation for B2 accreditation (3)	29
English for Teaching (C1) (2)	20
Development and improvement of communication skills in English B2+ (1)	7
Teaching in English. Reading and Listening for academic purposes (1)	8
Teaching in English. Speaking and Writing for academic purposes (1)	2

Despite the fact that the number of teachers who register for each course is approximately 20, it can be seen in table 5 that the final results of those who pass the courses are very low. These results are clearly insufficient when compared to the total number of teachers (1648).

V.2.4. What conditions must be met in order to teach the subject Learning Professional Skills for Engineers in English?

Since in research question number 2, it became clear that this university does not have a sufficient number of faculty members and students to opt for teaching based on the EMI model in the degrees, we must discard the EMI option for teaching the subject in question. In view of the difficulties caused by the linguistic level of the students, the option of Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) is beginning to take hold (Wilkinson, 2004; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2008; Costa, 2012; Dafouz & Smit, 2012, 2014; Doiz et al, 2013). It is, in short, an adaptation to the university context of the CLIL (Content and Integrated Language Learning) format widely used in non-university centres.

To implement ICLHE it is necessary to design a teaching project for each subject in which both the academic and the linguistic objectives are specified (Pavón & Gaustad, 2013, p. 85)

That is to say, we must set ourselves the **linguistic objective** of helping our students reach the B2 level. To clarify what this actually means, the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages details the following capacities of language use:

Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options. (2001, p. 24)

In the learning of any university subject, it is presupposed that, in addition to the specific contents of the subject, there should also be linguistic training at the level of the discourse that is proper to that subject. The syllabus must incorporate multiple opportunities for students to become familiar with texts specific to the subject, while at

the same time asking them to produce both oral and written documents of similar characteristics. However, in most cases these aspects are not usually specified in the curricular content, being part of the hidden curriculum. Moreover, we sometimes find that teachers are not very receptive when it comes to incorporating linguistic objectives. This opinion is summarised in the following sentence “I don’t teach language”, title of Airey’s article (2012)

Finally, it is particularly important to check that the application of these linguistic objectives is reflected in observable learning outcomes (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014). The **academic objectives** of each subject should not be affected by its teaching in a foreign language. What is of vital importance is to take into account that in order to achieve them we must facilitate, especially, the oral and written comprehension of the students. In addition to offering models of oral and written expression that enable students to express themselves adequately on the subject matter in question.

From the previous paragraph two aspects can be deduced that we consider very relevant. As our students have B1 language level it is not enough to help them achieve a B2 level in order for them to achieve their academic goals. It will be necessary to help them understand texts, both oral and written, that will obviously be of a higher language level than what Vigotsky defined as “*zone of proximal development*”. To achieve this level of comprehension we will need to include the following strategies:

- The teacher should incorporate in his or her oral discourse, interactive adjustments that will facilitate the overall comprehension: repetitions, comprehension checks, and non-linguistic aspects (Penate & Boylan, 2005)
- To facilitate the understanding of written or audio-visual texts it will be necessary to use compensation strategies such as: skimming, scanning, predicting, guessing the meaning of unknown words, referents, use of the layout, etc. (Huntley & Peñate, 2003)

To facilitate the production of oral and written texts that are related to the subject of the course, we will have to guide the students and for this purpose the scaffolding technique is especially relevant.

VI. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The first research question already provides us with a piece of information that we consider relevant. Only nine of the 29 degrees analysed use EMI, despite the fact that Decree 168/2008 of the Canary Islands Government in its article 4 establishes as a requirement the teaching of at least five percent of the credits in English. The spirit underlying this decree was to teach “in” English and not the teaching “of” English. However, shortcomings that are exposed through our second research question, led to the solution of teaching English for Specific Purposes.

We have 57 teachers with at least a C1 in English, which could allow us to consider the possibility of using the EMI method in some degrees or in different subjects of a degree. The data on the linguistic level of the students could also reinforce this point of view. However, the problem arises when we see that the distribution of the 900 students with at least a B2 level in English, is diluted among the almost 18,000 students of this university. Moreover, the concentration of students with a B2 level is precisely in the two master’s degrees that are taught in English. In other words, the percentage of students with a B2 level for each of the four courses that make up each degree is very low.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The two previous paragraphs present us with a situation in which we have a considerable number of teachers without the necessary language training and a number of students who have not yet reached the B2 level. In other words, we must choose the option of Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE). And to do so, at least three fundamental aspects must be taken into account:

- It is necessary to have teachers trained at least at a linguistic level of (C1)
- Teachers must have the didactic training that will allow them to incorporate the necessary strategic skills to help students overcome the difficulty involved in

understanding and expressing themselves at a higher linguistic level than they possess.

- To incorporate specific objectives of the subject and linguistic objectives in the teaching projects. Language objectives inspired by the competencies of the seven skills of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages specified for level B2.

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Bilingual resources in English-medium instruction lectures: the role lecturer's L1 is playing in EMI courses

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ABSTRACT

English is increasingly used as a lingua franca (ELF) for academic activities in Spanish higher education institutions. The notion of ELF is now being redefined to include in its conceptualization a multilingual nature of communication (Jenkins, 2015). This conception is interesting for researchers in English-medium instruction (EMI). This paper reports on a study that focuses on the multilingual resources most frequently used by higher education lecturers to achieve comprehensibility in EMI courses at the University of Zaragoza, regarding them as part of the pragmatic and strategic behaviour of the participants. The corpus for the study consists of 14 hours of audio-recorded lectures in two different disciplines that have been analysed from a discourse-pragmatic approach, involving both qualitative and quantitative methods. Analysis of the data reveals that lecturers use multilingual resources, mainly their own first language, as a pragmatic strategy to enable them to achieve various conversational goals, such as clarifying meaning.

Keywords: *English as a lingua franca (ELF); English as a medium of instruction (EMI); pragmatic strategies; multilingual resources; communicativeness.*

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper draws attention to academia as an international domain which is currently promoting the use of English as the medium of instruction (henceforth EMI) in different academic subjects. The incorporation of English as the vehicular language for instruction in academia constitutes a challenge to conventional research and teaching traditions. It also represents a challenge for language intervention in many tertiary education institutions. This paper discusses the concept of English as a medium of instruction and its overlap with the English as a lingua franca (henceforth ELF) and explains how the “E” in both is understood in a particular case study, focussing not only on the use of the English language but also on the first language of the participants.

One of the many challenges posed by EMI is the EMI teacher's command of the English language. This is a crucial matter as the vast majority of EMI lecturers in Europe are non-native speakers of English; they tend to be specialists in their field as opposed to language experts. Neglecting the linguistic aspect on EMI courses may eventually negatively affect students' learning outcomes. Therefore, the concept of language proficiency and the role of L1 in the EMI classroom represent important aspects in this regard. The challenge for many observers of and researchers on this phenomenon is that in EMI contexts English is usually spoken by people who learnt English as a foreign language (e.g., in Spain or Portugal) and who not only communicate with native speakers. The richness of the language might be reduced when proficiency levels in English, on the part of both teachers and students, are not particularly high (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 37). Following Macaro (2018), we can think about different hypotheses regarding the language proficiency needed on the part of participants in EMI. One hypothesis could be that teaching in an EMI classroom needs a higher level than teaching in a 'general English' classroom because the nature of the content is likely to be more intellectually demanding and the academic language to communicate that content is likely to be more advanced in terms of vocabulary, genre and complexity of structures. Yet, some subjects may require more language to communicate the content than others. An alternative hypothesis might be that thematic knowledge in an EMI classroom is already shared among teacher and students, and therefore there is no need for a higher level of linguistic proficiency, given this shared prior knowledge. In any case, the

question here is whether teaching using EMI is carried out using less language, meaning that by teaching in a vehicular language that is different from the L1, teachers may reduce the language to the bare essentials. In this regard, a report produced by the British Council/TEPAV (2015) on the general state of language learning and teaching in Turkey, based on teachers' answers, found that teachers believed that they could make their teaching more interesting by teaching through Turkish and that EMI slows down the pace of learning content. Teachers considered that when teaching through EMI they used a more limited vocabulary, were less flexible and employed fewer types of pedagogical activity.

In line with this, another issue which has been the focus of research and interest in the EFL and the EMI spheres is that of 'codeswitching' or the use of the L1 in the EMI classroom as opposed to English-only. In Dearden's (2016) study on *English as a medium of instruction –a growing global phenomenon*, 76% of respondents reported their country as having no written guidelines specifying whether or not English should be the only language used in the EMI classroom, which would seem to show that this question is left in the hands of individual teachers. The EFL field has now come to recognise that classroom codeswitching could be beneficial for L2 learning in a classroom situation where the teacher and students or students and students share an L1, recognising its pedagogical value in facilitating L2 learning more than exclusive L2 use (Hall & Cook, 2012). This perspective has been identified as the 'optimal position' related to the concept of 'optimal use', defined as "codeswitching in broadly communicative classrooms [which] can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusivity" (Macaro, 2009, p. 38).

Particular attention has been paid to code-switching in research on ELF. Research has looked at the strategic interaction in which ELF speakers make use of their multilingual resources in different ways and for various purposes. ELF theory has referred frequently over recent years to the notion of the 'multilingual repertoire', the 'creativity' of the multilingual ELF user or the 'hybridity' of ELF. In fact, the previous focus of most ELF discussion has been on the 'E' of ELF communication but interest is now moving towards the relationship between English and other languages in respect of the multilingualism of most ELF users and the "multi-competence of the community" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 59).

Cogo (2009) pointed out that ELF speakers draw on their multilingual resources by switching into their own first languages as well as into the languages of their interlocutors and even into the languages that are not the mother tongue of any participant in the interaction. Speakers exploit their non-nativeness drawing on convergent accommodation strategies which imply drawing on their shared repertoire (Cogo, 2009, 2010) such as overt code-switching moves, covert transfer phenomena or the use of cognates (Hülmbauer, 2009; Vettorel, 2014). These strategies may be interpreted in English as a Native Language terms as deviance from codified norms or ineffective communication. However, ELF research considers them to be the result of speakers bringing into the communicative act practices from their L1, or from other languages in their repertoires to improve communication effectiveness (Hülmbauer, 2007: 12). This is to say, although in SLA and ELT fields there is a negative attitude towards cross-lingual phenomena, this is not the case in ELF research. From the ELF point of view, cross-lingual phenomena are rather seen as communicative resources (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Consequently, multilingual resources are natural elements in ELF settings, since they are prompted (and supported) by the linguacultural backgrounds of the participants taking part in the interactions.

Current lines of ELF research concentrate on how the users' L1 and other languages influence their use of English or even the mutual flow in two (or more) directions and the "trans-semiotic system" that has been found to characterise 'translanguaging' and 'translingual practices' (García, 2009; Canagarajah, 2011), 'plurilingual English' (Canagarajah, 2011) or 'translingua franca English' (Pennycook, 2010). What is more, some researchers argue that 'Englishisation' (Lanvers & Hultgren, 2018) of education could lead to undermining the status of the home language and particularly to 'domain loss', where a number of lexical items (e.g. technical vocabulary) will fall into disuse.

These strategies are a vital part of the discourse practices of ELF conversations in which interlocutors share their non-nativeness and they tend to exploit all their resources in communication and meaning construction. As such, these findings are interesting for researchers in EMI. However, Jenkins (2014, p. 40) argues that in Higher Education "the linguistic implications of ELF are poorly understood", even though English-mediated

instruction is a powerful driver of ELF interactions and contact among increasing numbers of international students and members of the academic community.

The present paper reports on a study that aims to raise awareness of the complexity and versatility of classroom discourse using English as the medium of instruction among lingua franca speakers in international contexts through the analysis of the pragmatic strategies used by Spanish lecturers and international students in two different disciplinary areas (Social Sciences and Engineering). The study is in line with previous ELF research which approaches *code-switching* from a sociolinguistic interactional perspective, regarding it as part of the pragmatic and strategic behaviour of the participants, looking at its social dynamics at the micro level of the language choices the speakers make during their EMI discourse, the functions it performs in communication and how meaning is generated and co-constructed (Klimpfinger, 2009; Cogo, 2009, 2011; Vettorel, 2014). In other words, this study focuses on how the users' L1 influences and enriches their use of English, rather than on the mutual flow of both languages or the "trans-semiotic system" that has been found to characterise 'translanguaging' as defined by García and Li (2014, p. 42). *Code-switching* and *literal translation* are presented in this study as pragmatic strategies in a list of several strategies that characterise the ELF communication established in a particular set of EMI lectures, and they are presented as being used for a limited number of purposes. In this paper, I attempt to answer the following questions: (i) What functions do code-switching and literal translation fulfil during EMI lectures? (ii) What factors or motivations are involved in their use by EMI lecturers?

II. EMI AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZARAGOZA: A CASE STUDY

The results of the research described in this paper stem from the analysis of a corpus of 12 EMI lectures recorded in the context of two different programs at the University of Zaragoza, specifically, the bachelor's degree in Business Administration and Management in English (henceforth BAM degree), offered at the Economics faculty, and the master's degree in Nanostructured Materials for Nanotechnology Applications, offered at the Science faculty, which are both completely English-mediated courses. They are complemented and supported by semi-structured interviews with the lecturers

and a small-scale corpus of PowerPoint presentation slides that those lecturers used to support teaching. A discourse-pragmatic approach and an ethnographically oriented methodology have been used to analyse these three data sets. Data triangulation and methodological triangulation were applied in the current study, giving rise to both quantitative and qualitative results. The findings of the study show that 13 different pragmatic strategies were used by the lecturers in the different lectures recorded in order to fulfil communicative functions such as enhancing explicitness, clarifying and negotiating meaning and/or acceptable usage of the language.

Table 1 presents a data-driven taxonomy of the pragmatic strategies used by the participants in this specific research scenario. This classification was based on the communicative purposes of these strategies. Strategies were classified into five macro-categories: *Explicitness strategies*, *Repairing strategies*, *Clarification strategies*, *Multilingual resources* and *Focus on form*, respectively, as defined in the table. Table 1 also shows the pragmatic strategies within each of these five macro-categories, the definition of each macro-category, the total number of occurrences of each category and their percentage of occurrence in the whole corpus.

Table 1. *Macro-categories of pragmatic strategies.*

Macro-categories	Pragmatic strategies	Definition	Occurrences	%
Explicitness strategies	Reformulation	Clarifying a specific idea by using the same words or different structures from the original message when meaning making.	350	47.5%
	Defining			
	Self-repetition			
	Other-repetition			
Repairing strategies	Self-repair	Using discourse to repair what has been previously said	230	31.25%
	Other-repair			
Multilingual resources	Code switching	Switching the language used in the speech from English to the participants' L1 and vice versa for communicative purposes	79	10.7%
	Literal translation			
Clarification strategies	Comprehension check	Requesting the interlocutor's feedback, clarification or help	56	7.6%

	Asking for repetition	to keep communication flowing		
	Indirect appeal for help			
	Clarification request			
Focus-on-form strategy	Focus on form	Commenting on specific terminology/structures to help students develop linguistic competence	21	2.9%

Table 1 shows that *Explicitness, Repairing and Multilingual strategies* have the highest number of occurrences and therefore weight in the lecturers' usage of pragmatic strategies. 'Multilingual resources' has been given this name as, in addition to English, Spanish is also used by the participants, since the lecturers tend to code-switch or translate things literally from one code to the other to create and negotiate meaning in interaction. It is one of the most relevant categories of pragmatic strategies in the study reported here. As Table 2 shows, this category comprises two types of strategies: *code-switching* and *literal translation*.

Table 2. Multilingual Resources

Macro-category	Pragmatic strategies	Occurrences		%
Multilingual resources	Code switching	59	79	10.7%
	Literal translation	20		

II.1. Code-switching

Code-switching is a particularly frequent communicative strategy observed in the corpus of the research reported in this article, with a total number of 59 occurrences (8%). This is a quantitatively significant result when compared with other EMI teaching-learning scenarios in different countries where oral speech has been analysed and no *code-switching* was present (Björkman, 2011b; Smit, 2010). Yet it does not constitute systematic *code-switching* between the participants' L1 and L2, or as previous research has coined it, a 'simultaneous parallel code use' in which "the choice of the language

depends on what is deemed most appropriate and efficient in a specific situation" (Centre for Internationalisation and Parallel Language Use, 2014), neither is it used by all the lecturers (it was used by 4 of the 6 lecturers). In other words, *code-switching* in this corpus is limited to isolated words or utterances and there are no long stretches of it. *Code-switching* in the data analysed for this study is used as a scaffolding device to negotiate meaning and to support the lecturer-student's process of successful communication (and learning).

As the lecturers participating in the study stated during the interviews, they tend to use only the English language, the vehicular language for communication and instruction, during these EMI sessions. Nonetheless, the BAM degree lecturers in particular recognise that they are happy to code-switch to Spanish if they feel that this could be the way of ensuring understanding, and, therefore, learning. This positive attitude towards switching the language of instruction is reflected in the quantitative data, since *code-switching* is used in all the lectures recorded in the BAM degree. This can be accounted for by the high number of Spanish students who share their L1 with the teachers and the lecturers' assumption that the international students, although not native Spanish speakers, do have a certain command of the language, since the faculty establishes this as a requirement to study subjects in English integrated in the BAM degree.

As can be observed in the examples below and in line with the findings in previous research (Hülmbauer, 2007; Klimpfinguer, 2009; Rogerson-Revel, 2008; Cogo, 2009, 2012), *code-switching* is a tool that these multilingual speakers have at their disposal, enabling them to achieve various conversational goals in communication, including asking for assistance, introducing another idea, filling gaps in ELF speakers' linguistic knowledge, negotiating meaning, signalling cultural identity and often serving more than one function at the same time. Besides, what distinguishes this strategy from the others studied in this case study is that it provides nuances of expression that would be unavailable using only the English language, thereby enriching the message conveyed. In addition, it serves to construct solidarity and group cohesion (Cogo, 2009) signalling membership of the same multilingual ELF community, projecting participants' social and cultural identities and providing nuances of acceptance.

There are several factors that lead the lecturers to code-switch during their explanations. Firstly, the fact that the BAM degree is taught simultaneously by the same lecturers in a Spanish-medium group has an impact on the language they use in the English-medium group, particularly, but not exclusively, when it comes to discipline-specific vocabulary. In other words, some of the words that lecturers use in the Spanish-medium group are also used in the English-medium group. For instance, in *Excerpt 1* the lecturer is explaining how to ask questions in a Marketing research questionnaire. He/she mentioned the words used to refer to 'gender' in Spanish to illustrate his/her point and he/she lists these words.

- 1) L2: Questions? This is just a reminder of Unit 6. Be careful when asking about, for example, gender. You have to use very concrete words, very un-ambiguous words. **In Spanish, we have all these kinds of questions to ask about gender, you can say <L1sp> hombre, mujer, varón, hembra, femenina, masculino, varón, mujer </L1sp>. Sometimes people confuse these kinds of terms so why not just put <L1sp> hombre, mujer </L1sp> or male, female for gender.**

This type of *code-switching* is a win-win pragmatic strategy; firstly, because lecturers feel comfortable with the Spanish terminology they are used to working with, and secondly, because in general terms their audience shares that vocabulary, since most of them are Spanish speakers. Therefore, he uses both languages so that the students are aware of the correct terminology both in English and in Spanish. Nonetheless, he/she subsequently also uses the English terms, as this lecturer made it clear during the interview that he/she is aware that not all students present in the class master the Spanish language (13% of the students present in the class were international students rather than Spanish) and so he/she is aware that only using Spanish is not enough to scaffold meaning.

This simultaneous use of both languages is also reflected in *Excerpt 2* in which the lecturer uses a Spanish term and he/she translates it into English, establishing his own version of the translation. He/she even acknowledges the fact that lecturers in the BAM degree have to replicate the Spanish contents in English. This lecturer most probably

uses the Spanish term to help the students understand and remember the concept and because he thinks that, in this context, it is also important for students to learn such specific terminology in Spanish.

- 2) L2: You have already seen projecting tech (2) projecting techniques ok? in order to know the subconscious of consumers (.) the hidden attitudes ok? (.) the intrinsic motivations of certain behavior and then **we have this kind of objective task performance technique** or <L1sp>Técnica del desempeño de la tarea objetiva</L1sp> (.) **Why I put the translation? because I didn't find it e:h in English ok? But as we have to exactly replicate the Spanish contents into English I had to put this** ok? But (.) well (.) this kind of technique is when for example (.) we ask some consumers to recall an event.

Participants also switch code when they are talking about something they feel close to in an affective way, or something that is common in their daily lives, as in *Excerpt 3* ('faculty'). They similarly change their code unconsciously when they are talking about something related exclusively with the Spanish and local culture, as in *Excerpt 4* ('fiestas del Pilar'), thereby signalling their own cultural and multilingual identity (Klimpfinger, 2009). As Mauranen (2006a, p. 143) pointed out in a previous study, "it is virtually impossible to separate academic culture from local culture".

- 3) L1: So, it's much easier to read this graph, it's much more easier, because the more to the left is my library the better, the more to the rig- to the right the worse, ok? So, my aim, the aim of my library is to go (.) to stay as close to the left as possible and for example the library of ehh <L1sp> **facultad** </L1sp> is the less comfortable.

- 4) L1: But for example (.) sh- should we offer this wine <LNfr> Château </LNfr> glamorous in this cup, glass shiny and this in a typical plastic glass of <L1sp> **fiestas del Pilar** </L1sp>? what should we do? Different glasses or the same glasses?

Moreover, one lecturer said that Spanish is also used when he/she is explaining or discussing something that was not prepared for the purpose of that particular lesson, namely terminology or exemplification that was not prepared in advance (i.e., a gap in the language), in order to maintain flow or to ask for assistance. In fact, in the corpus analysed, *code-switching* and *literal translation* were mainly used during lecturers' digressions when dealing with side-topics, given the need for explicitness or linguistic economy. This is the case in *Excerpt 5*, which shows how a lecturer verbalised a lexical gap in the course of his speech. The lecturer was explaining the concept of 'pressure groups', an important factor in competitive marketing and he/she provided different examples, some of which appear to have been improvised in the course of the discussion. This digression leads the lecturer to seek the help of the students in order to recall the translation of the word 'tarifa' into English ('fare'), which he/she immediately integrates into his/her discourse. The speaker relies on his/her interlocutors' linguistic repertoires as well as on the certainty that a paraphrasing strategy ("a price, a package, you see a product for people that don't have much money") for it will ensure shared meaning. Therefore, the lecturer is appealing for help in the shape of *code-switching* since he/she is trying to retrieve the correct translation from Spanish to English and, in so doing, he defines the term to make himself understood and to prompt listeners to co-create shared meaning. Ultimately *code-switching* is used in this case to ensure conversational fluency (Prodromou, 2008).

5) L2: But people argue against these companies, and they got that the price was not so highly increased. So, a medium. Okay? **And they also launch a a <L1sp> tarifa </L1sp>, how do you say <L1sp> tarifa? </L1sp> a price, a package, you see a product for people that don't have much money. Right? So, how is <L1de> tarifa </L1sp> by the way? <L1sp> tarifa </L1sp> in English?**

S3: **The fare**, meaning something...

L2: **Ah the fare. Of course, the fare, the price anyway.** Okay, the price of the electricity. The fare, very good.

This excerpt clearly exemplifies how ELF interactants co-construct meaning when one of them so requires, even when the boundaries between lecturers' and students' roles are

clearly delimited. The interesting aspect of these results is the fact that when lecturers need to fill in a linguistic gap, they do not tend to use their creativity by means of coining words as previous research on lingua franca interactions has shown (e.g., Pitzl, 2005, 2010). They use code-switching to make sure that meaning is correctly conveyed.

Code-switching is also triggered in this corpus by the classroom materials that lecturers use in order to scaffold students' knowledge. As stated above, more occurrences of *code-switching* have been found in the BAM degree as a result of the use of some teaching materials used by the same lecturers to teach the same subject to a Spanish-medium taught group. Therefore, the use of *code-switching* is also determined by the language used in the different types of materials. This includes some of the slides of the PowerPoint presentations that the lecturers projected to help make the lectures easier to follow or some printed materials that the lecturers shared with the students.

As can be observed in *Excerpt 6*, the use of the Spanish language on a PowerPoint presentation slide may lead the lectures to verbalise those contents in Spanish even if English is the vehicular language for instruction. That is, the language of the materials that support the lecturing practice has an impact on the language used by the lecturers. This mainly happens when the lecturer reads something written in Spanish when providing examples or presenting exercises. Surprisingly, the lecturer does not translate the written content into English after reading it in Spanish, but just reads the content in the language in which it is written and then moves back to English.

6) L2: we ask at the point of sale (2) eeh identification data, there is identification data, you can see here at the top of the page there is <L1sp> **cuestionario número, día, hora** </L1sp> Ok? so this is the code that the interviewers have to use, need to use in order to identify eh which questionnaire they are dealing with ok?

Therefore, *code-switching* here seems to be an efficient and time-saving strategy that is useful in a predominantly monolingual context. By means of *code-switching* lecturers overcome their linguistic/content difficulties by resorting to relevant items of

vocabulary in their L1, in order to ensure their interlocutors' understanding. In the contexts analysed *code-switching* is seen as a contextualisation cue for the participants' social identity to emerge and at the same time as an organisational we-code aimed at creating in-group solidarity (Cogo, 2011, p. 119). As Hyland (2002a, p. 1091) states, "academic writing is not just about conveying an ideational 'content', it is also about the representation of self". In this case, the academic practice of the lecturers code-switching between their L1 and their vehicular language for instruction in different genres (oral and written), i.e., the inclusion of other languages in their presentations, reveals their view of languages as vehicles to achieve communicative purposes, and therefore the intrinsic ELF character of these lectures. It has been shown that in these particular academic settings small-scale bi/multilingualism has become a resource rather than a problem, as Jenkins (2015) puts it. *Code-switching* is therefore used to achieve successful communication and local accommodation, providing an alignment component among lecturers and students.

II.2. Literal translation

Literal translation is the second most frequently-used multilingual resource observed in the recordings of the study. It involves the literal translation of a lexical item, an idiom or a structure from the vehicular language to the L1 and vice versa. In this case, Spanish and English are the main codes. This strategy occurs only 20 times in the whole corpus, representing only 2.7% of the total number of occurrences found. Nevertheless, these occurrences are worth exploring and illustrating. As Cogo has observed in previous studies (2009, 2010), ELF speakers engage in sophisticated strategic behaviour to enhance understanding, create supportive and cooperative communication and display community membership in discourse, and these are precisely the functions of this strategy in this study.

In the corpus, the participants' awareness of their use of culturally sensitive expressions motivates the pre-empting strategy of translation, which is usually combined with other strategies such as the use of definitions, intended to ensure understanding. Effective interactional work is supported by the combinations of these strategies, so that meaning is explored, clarified and eventually understanding is promoted. The translated elements are normally relevant items of vocabulary, often disciplinary-related terms or

vocabulary that arises when the lecturers are providing examples. There are also humorous expressions that lecturers translate as they are aware of the potential for misunderstandings and that, as such, particular attention has to be paid to them. The examples here are mainly single words (content words) or short idiomatic phrases that are easily employed in the lecturers' speech without apparently causing problems of intelligibility, but in order to prevent any of such problems, as previous studies have observed (Klimpfinger, 2007), lecturers use more than one language to establish successful interactions.

In *Excerpts 7 and 8* lecturers translate specific terminology from the different subjects such as 'outlayer/valor extremo o extraño' and 'optical tweezers/pinzas ópticas'. In all the excerpts lecturers mention the concept in English and then give the Spanish translation. *Excerpt 8* is particularly interesting since the English term seem to be used both when speaking in Spanish and in English. Hence, the lecturer does not translate it for them to learn the term in English, but rather to explain its meaning.

7) L2: I'm losing information but most of the people moves from here to here you are the only outlayers ok? **Do you understand 'outlayer'? Have you ever used (.)? Ah well sorry you always speak English @@ in econometrics we also use the word outlayer, ok? For an extreme value, in a series an extreme value, it is an outlayer, in English and in Spanish ok? In Spanish, we can also say <L1sp> un valor extremo, un valor extraño </L1sp> but we usually say <L1sp> un outlayer <L1sp> ok?**

8) L5: There are two main techniques that can be used for single molecule study in biology, one is the is the AFM, Atomic force Microscopy that you probably are familiar with, because eeh this is a technique that is used in the institute of nanoscience here in Zaragoza. There are several instruments able to measure this, and the second is called **optical tweezers <L1sp> pinzas ópticas </L1sp> tweezers in case you don't know the translation of that <L1sp> pinzas ópticas </L1sp>** These are, this is a technique that it is not ee:h available here in Zaragoza.

These excerpts shed light on the linguistic difficulties that EMI may pose both to the lecturers and the students involved. From an EMI perspective these excerpts reveal that lecturers are aware of possible breakdowns in communication due to a lack of shared terminology in English. When faced with this, they make use of their shared terminology in Spanish to ensure their interlocutors' understanding. Using the L1 of most of the participants can be useful in these cases, especially when tackling a new topic for the first time in the subject. L1 could have a supportive function for meaning making, together with an explanation, but it could also have a learning function, as it can help to build up the lexicon both in English and in the L1 and to foster students' metalinguistic awareness (Ball et. al., 2015); or, in Gibbons' words, the lecturers can use L1 to provide students with opportunities to build on the resources of their mother tongue, using L1 strategically (Gibbons, 2015, p. 24). This is again a way of saving time since lectures are time constrained. From an ELF perspective, it is a way of accommodating linguistic differences and difficulties. Lecturers believe that learning through understanding is the most important objective in any lecture and therefore they do not hesitate to ensure understanding by means of shared multilingual resources if that may help their students in accomplishing the specific learning task.

However, it is not only subject-related terminology that is translated by the lecturers. Different English terms emerging from the lecture materials are also translated when an idea is explored. The lecturers interviewed argued that although they are not language teachers, they shared their knowledge with their students and they use all their resources to try to clarify concepts and ideas. To illustrate this pragmatic behaviour *Excerpt 9* shows how a lecturer teaching Marketing in the Business Administration Degree, translates the English term "AIDS" literally as the Spanish term "SIDA" while explaining different aspects concerning questionnaires. The translation occurs preemptively before any student asked for any kind of clarification. In this example, literal translation is used as a pragmatic strategy in order to ensure interlocutors' understanding and, in this context, it seems to be a successful strategy by which the lecturer efficiently conveys meaning and saves time, maintaining his flow while students easily process the information.

- 9) L3: Then we have the loss of status error or biases, which is very related to the threatening questions, threatening topics, socially desirable topics and undesirable topics. **"Do you care about AIDS?" AIDS is the English term for <L1sp> SIDA </L1sp>.**

The results also show that lecturers rely on semi-preconstructed phrases in their L1 coined as idioms, during these EMI sessions. Seidlhofer argues that "[t]he idiom principle can be seen as a means whereby users of a language accommodate to each other by conforming to shared conventions of established phraseology" (Seidlhofer, 2009a, p. 197), as they are part of the interlocutors' commonly shared knowledge. Among members of the same lingua-culture, idiomatic expressions function as "territorial markers" of social identity and group membership" (Seidlhofer, 2009a, p. 198). In ELF settings, however, the use of idioms is radically different since usually not all the participants will normally belong to the same lingua-culture, as is the case here, and they may not share the culturally-dependent knowledge implied in this phraseological expression. Yet idiomatic expressions have been observed as used by ELF speakers and even constituting an integral part of the linguistic resources speakers can draw upon to achieve effective communication (Cogo, 2012a, p. 103). This is precisely the case in *Excerpt 10*.

- 10) L1: **mm I don't know an expression similar in English to the Spanish one that (.) what's the relation between the speed and the pork (.) <L1sp> ¿cuál es la relación entre el tocino y la velocidad? </L1sp> ok?** So we must try to avoid that our relations are like this, because our **we say this expression is because we find that there is no a relationship between the two elements**, the two variables, so we must try to avoid that we establish a relationship between two variables that have no relation at all.

Excerpt 10 presents an example of the problematic issue of phraseological competence and social/contextual integration in ELF contexts (Cogo, 2010). The use of idioms requires the ability to create and draw on 'deep commonality' which characterises first language users (Prodromou, 2008), but at the same time the capacity to try not to

exclude the international students that might not have the necessary command of Spanish to understand the idiomatic expression. In this case the lecturer firstly uses the literal translation of a Spanish idiom in English (“what’s the relation between the speed and the pork?”), because this is an English-medium lecture and the idiom may also make sense when translated into English; then he uses the Spanish idiom (“¿Cuál es la relación entre el tocino y la velocidad?”) and then, he reformulates the meaning of this figurative expression to ensure understanding. The relevant aspect here is the lecturer’s translation of the idiomatic expression into English and the explanation that follows to help the international students interpret the idiom and place it into context.

According to Seidlhofer (2009, 2015), idiomatic expressions can be used as means for users of a language to accommodate to each other adjusting language in compliance with the cooperative and the territorial imperatives. The “territorial imperative” is used by ELF speakers “to secure and protect [their] own space and sustain and reinforce [their] separate social identity, either as an individual or as a group” (Seidlhofer, 2009b, p. 196). On the other hand, the cooperative imperative is implicit, since this requires the speakers to engage in “procedures for making their communicative intention accessible” (p. 196). In other words, both imperatives are needed in this case to make what is said acceptable to others. In this case they are fine-tuned, since the use of an idiomatic expression in Spanish serves to establish rapport among the Spanish audience and to identify them as “members of the here-and-now group, as insiders in the conversation and [...] makers of a shared territory expressive of common understanding and attitude”, as well as creating a “shared affective space” (Seidlhofer, 2009a, p. 206). On the other hand, the reformulation strategy fosters the cooperative function of communication, contributing to a commonly constructed (pragmatic) meaning among all the participants in the lecture (not only the Spanish speakers). Besides, the use of this idiom in both languages may provide an alignment component among the participants, since they either share the lingua-cultural knowledge or the explanation enables the interlocutors to understand the idiomatic construct in that context. Translating it into English and explaining its meaning the lecturer ensures that it does not lead to any potential non- or misunderstanding among the non-native Spanish speakers, but rather it reinforces a successful negotiation of meaning.

These extracts help to demonstrate the multilingual nature of ELF, especially in an EMI context where the lecturer and most of the students share a common language, and secondly, the way speakers can draw on partially or completely shared languages (as is the case of Spanish in this context) when they need to negotiate meaning in interaction. As Jenkins (2015, p. 61) points out, at this point in ELF research, more emphasis should be placed on the multilingual nature of ELF as “English is only one language among others present or latent in any interaction”.

III. CONCLUSIONS

Lecturers in this Spanish context make use of multilingual resources to convey their messages more effectively during lectures. They are aware of their condition as ELF speakers and make use of their own L1 as an effective interactional mechanism. In this sense, this study understands *code-switching* as an additional tool that multilingual speakers have at their disposal, enabling them to achieve various conversational goals such as to signal culture and multilingual identity, to maintain one's flow or to ask for assistance.

Code-switching has been frequently found in formal and informal ELF conversations (Cogo, 2009), business meetings (Pitzl, 2005) or as part of the virtual speech community in informal blogs (Vettorel, 2014; Luzón, 2016). However, the frequency of occurrences of multilingual resources in the lectures analysed is more than expected if we take into account previous studies in different university contexts where no code-switching or literal translation was found (Björkman, 2011a; Smit, 2010), or where the incidence reported was lower (Gotti, 2014). Therefore, the use of Spanish in these lectures is a distinctive feature, resulting from the situational context of the ELF interactions analysed for this study. Yet, the number of occurrences found in each of the sub-corpus is not equal. More occurrences of these two strategies are found in the bachelor's degree than in the master's degree.

There are several reasons for this difference in the frequency of occurrences of these strategies in the two sub-corpora. First, the bachelor's degree may require more negotiation of meaning to overcome the diverse first-language backgrounds of the participants and their varying levels of English proficiency, as acknowledged by the

lecturers during the interviews. Secondly, the lecturers' attitudes towards the change in the vehicular language were different. The data from the interviews show that the master's degree lecturers were more reluctant to use Spanish during EMI lectures than the lecturers in the bachelor's degree. Thirdly, the frequent alternation of English and Spanish in the bachelor's degree lectures is also due to the fact that most of the materials in this degree were adapted by the same lecturers from the materials they use in their Spanish-medium classes. This characteristic feature of the bachelor's degree makes it relevant to analyse how the languages in the lectures and the written materials interacted and to what extent language alternation in those materials was used as a pragmatic strategy to facilitate comprehension.

The participants' use of their multilingual resources reveals that, although English is unequivocally the vehicular language or the lingua franca in both degrees, Spanish, that is, the L1 of the majority of the participants, is also present and used as a pragmatic resource in the context under analysis. The use of different languages, mainly by means of code-switching and translating from English to Spanish and vice versa, reveals how lecturers make use of all the resources available to convey meaning and most often to ensure conversational fluency. Communication has proved to rely sometimes on partially or completely shared Spanish-cultural and linguistic awareness to succeed in understanding certain notions and/or referents. In the settings where the EMI lecturers were recorded, where the majority of speakers have the same lingua-cultural background (i.e., all the lecturers and a high number of students were Spanish, especially in the bachelor's degree) and the interaction was carried out in their home territory, it was expected that the shared linguistic and cultural background affected the speakers' use of the English language. As Blommaert et al. (2005, p. 198) suggest, the environment can affect the participants' capacity to make use of their linguistic resources and skills. This strategic use of the languages and the background shared among the participants signals the participants' membership to the same lingua-cultural community of speakers and a local-contextual in-group solidarity (Cogo, 2011, p. 119). This cultural impact is more noticeable in this study than in similar studies in other universities in which English is a dominant official language (See Smit, 2010; Björkman, 2011a).

The results obtained in this research show that using the multilingual resources of the lecturers and, most importantly, the shared languages among the participants in an EMI lecture, may contribute to gaining more lexical richness and discourse flexibility when explaining concepts and to creating a good rapport among lecturers and the students. In turn, it promotes intercultural engagement and effective intercultural relations. Yet, lecturers need to be cautious about when and how to use other languages different from the vehicular one. They should take into account the academic and linguistic backgrounds of the students, since it may be important to comprehend students' reactions, misunderstandings and lack of knowledge about certain culturally dependent allusions and terminology. To avoid this kind of issues more than one pragmatic strategy can be used, such as code-switching, reformulation or defining, in order to ensure the understanding of every participant in the lecture regardless of their linguistic backgrounds. Nevertheless, further research could assess the effectiveness of these pragmatic strategies used by the lecturers by eliciting the students' feedback and perceptions using ethnographically designed methods.

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Possible implementation of subjects taught using English as a Medium of Instruction methodology in tourism studies

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ABSTRACT

The present study analyses which conditions would be necessary to implement subjects taught using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) methodology in the undergraduate degree in tourism studies at the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC). In the literature review, some of the concepts related to this method are examined to clarify diverse methodological approaches that are frequently confused, namely Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), EMI, and English for Specific Purposes. With the objective of finding out the specific conditions necessary for implementing EMI subjects in the Degree in Tourism at the ULPGC, a revision of EMI subjects that have been already implemented at this institution would be made. Then a proposal indicating the conditions that are regarded as vital for implementing EMI subjects in this degree would be presented.

Keywords: *English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI); tourism; English for Specific Purposes (ESP); Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria; language teaching.*

I. INTRODUCTION

In the increasingly globalised world in which we live, there is a clear need to be able to communicate, make ourselves understood and transmit knowledge, and the academic sphere is no exception. The vast majority of higher education institutions in Spain are carrying out intense internationalisation work through collaboration agreements with foreign institutions and student exchange programmes, such as Erasmus, Erasmus Mundus and Fulbright scholarships. To participate in these exchanges, many higher education institutions require students to have a B1 level (CEFR) of the language spoken in the host country, which is normally the language used for the teaching sessions that the student will receive in that country during the exchange period. However, some studies have shown that this level of language proficiency is insufficient to follow the teaching sessions of subjects with very specific content, such as those taught at both undergraduate and postgraduate level.

Within the framework of this process of internationalisation, English is used as a lingua franca and has become increasingly important in university studies for the teaching of subjects within the curricula of official undergraduate programmes, for the teaching of short courses and for master's degrees, doctoral courses, etc. Moreover, higher education institutions have seen in the delivery of content in English an opportunity to attract international students, whose presence on campus provides multicultural enrichment and is also a factor that has a positive impact on their position in some international rankings measuring the quality of higher education institutions. As pointed out by Mendoza Domínguez (2017), there are several reasons why some universities add English-medium courses to the curricula of the degrees they offer:

The reasons why universities are willing to face EMI are numerous and complex: to attract international students, to be better positioned in the university rankings, to increase revenue, to give our students the possibility to study abroad, to further student and staff career possibilities, to modernize universities or even to follow global trends of how universities are supposed to become more international ("everybody is doing EMI now, so we should too").

As a result of globalisation, the importance of foreign languages, especially English as a lingua franca, has increased exponentially over the last few decades. This relevance of the English language has led to an immense proliferation of bilingual schools and to governments implementing bilingual education programmes at practically all educational levels. In the case of higher education, various subjects under the umbrella of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) have been introduced in the different syllabuses, especially at undergraduate levels.

Similarly, other methodologies, such as English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), have been implemented but are not so widespread; as seen in section two of this paper, its implementation in some institutions is not yet at the same level of popularity as ESP subjects. The number of studies on EMI is steadily increasing and scholars are still exploring diverse dimensions of this methodological approach. Some relevant studies on this topic published over the last decade include Smit and Dafouz (2012), Doiz et al. (2013), Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016), Breeze and Dafouz (2017), Macaro (2018), Dafouz and Smit (2020), Carrió-Pastor (2020), Fortanet-Gómez (2020) and Carrió-Pastor and Bellés-Fortuño (2021).

The recognition that this methodology has acquired and its implementation in education systems around the world has resulted in a proliferation of studies analysing multiple aspects of this methodological approach in each country, for example, the study by Macaro et al. (2019) on *The Importance of Certification of English Medium Instruction Teachers in Higher Education in Spain*, Tsou and Kao's (2017) analysis of the implementation and classroom practices of EMI in Taiwan and Tejada-Sanchez and Molina-Naar's (2020) analysis of the relationship between EMI and the internationalisation of higher education in Latin America using the case of a Colombian university as an example. Wilkinson (2012) conducted a review of the challenges and pitfalls of teaching EMI at a Dutch university while Furtado-Guimarães and Martins Kremer (2020) carried out a comparative study on the adoption of EMI in Brazil and Belgium.

The main objective of this study is to determine what the necessary conditions would be for the implementation of subjects taught using EMI methodology in the undergraduate degree in tourism studies at the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC). To achieve this objective, some of the concepts related to this methodological approach will be provided in the literature review in the next section so as to clarify three methodologies that are often confused – Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), EMI and ESP. The current level of implementation of these methodologies in the ULPGC is also shown. The subsequent section provides a detailed analysis of the conditions necessary for implementing EMI subjects in the Degree in Tourism at the ULPGC, through the examination of the subjects already implemented in other degrees at this university. Following this, a proposal for the implementation of this methodology in the aforementioned degree is put forward, and the final section presents the conclusions of the study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW, THE CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY AND THE CASE OF THE ULPGC

The main aim of this section is to clarify a series of methodological concepts that often lead to confusion, not only among students and society in general but also among teachers and lecturers. In Spain, the confusion lies in the fact that there has been a lot of talk regarding CLIL but very little talk regarding EMI; therefore, many people are still unfamiliar with the term and there is a tendency to think that these two methodologies are the same or that the boundary between the two is blurred. This section also provides a concise literature review of the ESP methodology. To sum up, this section defines the concepts and discusses the scope of and main differences between ESP, CLIL and EMI.

In the ULPGC, the current range of subjects on offer includes some that fall within the categories of ESP and EMI. Although CLIL methodology is not employed within the subjects currently taught, this methodology is included within the description of the current literature on the topic in this work due to the frequent confusion regarding the distinction between EMI and CLIL; therefore, it is relevant to highlight what each of these methodologies consists of and the main differences between them.

II.1. Definition of ESP and its current presence at ULPGC

Relatively often, although to a lesser extent than with CLIL, there is a tendency to confuse the EMI methodological approach with that of ESP. As Dearden (2014, p. 4) notes, EMI is confused “with ESP...in which courses involve English for journalism or business studies for example, specifically designed to enable a student to undertake that profession in an English-speaking context”. Currently, within the syllabus of the undergraduate degree in tourism, three subjects are taught in English, namely English for tourism I, II and III. They fall into the category of ESP, as they offer:

English language instruction that aims to serve learners’ communication needs in English in a certain domain. In fact, addressing learners’ specific goals to use English in a specific area is what distinguishes ESP from English for General Purposes teaching (Hyland, 2002). While in the 1960s, it emerged as a response to communication needs in English mainly in commerce, science, and technology (Swales, 1988), today, ESP encompasses a wide range of areas including English Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Legal Purposes (ELP), and English for Sociocultural Purposes (ESCP) (Belcher, 2009) (Isik-Tas and Kenny, 2020, p. 1).

The ULPGC provides ESP subjects in numerous undergraduate degrees, not only in tourism studies, as can be seen in Table 1, which shows the high number of ESP subjects currently taught at the ULPGC at undergraduate level, especially in the field of engineering and architecture.

Table 1. *ESP subjects taught in undergraduate degrees at the ULPGC.*

FIELD OF KNOWLEDGE	UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE	SUBJECT(S)
Arts and Humanities	Degree in History	Inglés científico para la historia
Engineering and Architecture	Degree in Computer Engineering Degree in Data Engineering	Habilidades profesionales para ingenieros
	Degree in Architecture	English for architects
	Degree in Civil Engineering	Inglés técnico
	Degree in Industrial Design and Product Development Engineering	Inglés técnico Inglés técnico para IDIDP
	Degree in Mechanical Engineering	Inglés técnico I Inglés técnico II
	Degree in Industrial Chemical Engineering	Inglés técnico I Inglés técnico II
	Degree in Telecommunications Technologies Engineering	Inglés Competencias comunicativas en inglés
	Health Sciences	Degree in Nursing
Degree in Physiotherapy		Inglés científico-técnico I
Social Sciences	Degree in Tourism Dual degree program: Business Management and Administration & Tourism	Inglés turístico I Inglés turístico II Inglés turístico III
	Degree in Social Work	Inglés aplicado al trabajo social
	Degree in Geography and Land-use Planning	Inglés aplicado a la comunicación científica

III. CLIL versus EMI: an examination of their differences

At this point, the differences between EMI and CLIL methodologies should be noted. CLIL methodology is not part of this study, but it might be useful, as mentioned previously, to clarify some of the differences between the two methodologies since there is a tendency to mistakenly

think that they are the same. The main difference is that “CLIL programmes explicitly promote both content and language learning, unlike EMI programmes that focus only on content. When EMI is implemented in higher education, it is assumed that attention to language is not required because students presumably possess adequate proficiency in English” (Querol-Julián & Crawford Camiciottoli, 2019, p. 10).

Some scholars, such as Dearden (2014), have discussed the differences between CLIL and EMI. She notes the following differences:

Whereas CLIL is contextually situated (with its origins in the European ideal of plurilingual competence for EU citizens), EMI has no specific contextual origin.

Whereas CLIL does not mention which second, additional or foreign language (L2) academic subjects are to be studied in, EMI makes it quite clear that the language of education is English, with all the geopolitical and sociocultural implications that this may entail.

Whereas CLIL has a clear objective of furthering both content and language as declared in its title, EMI does not (necessarily) have that objective (Dearden, 2014, p. 4).

Carrió-Pastor (2021, p. 24) also analysed the methodological differences between CLIL and EMI. In general terms, whereas CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which the language is an instrument of instruction to teach a determined set of contents, in EMI methodology, “language acquisition is not a priority but a consequence of using English as the language of instruction” (Carrió-Pastor, 2021, p. 22). Table 2 provides a clear and concise summary of the most relevant differences and similarities between these two methodologies, as noted in Carrió-Pastor (2021, p. 24).

Table 2. *Differences and similarities between CLIL and EMI. Source: Carrió-Pastor (2021, p. 24).*

CLIL	EMI
It considers content and language learning	It considers only content learning; the language proficiency of students is taken for granted
Students enrolled in CLIL subjects do not need to be highly proficient in a foreign language	Students enrolled in EMI subjects should be highly proficient in English
Taught in primary school (reinforces language acquisition and proficiency)	Taught in bilingual secondary schools (for students with high language proficiency)
Taught in secondary school (reinforces language acquisition and proficiency)	Taught in universities (for students with high language proficiency or international students)

Content teachers trained in foreign language methodology teach the subjects	Content teachers or language teachers trained in content teach the subjects
Content teachers and language teachers should work together	Materials are designed by content teachers
Materials should be designed by both content and language teachers	Methodology designed by content teachers as language is not considered a priority
Methodology should be designed by both content and language teachers	Methodology follows communicative approach and content-based approach
Methodology follows the communicative approach and content-based approach	Assessment of only content acquisition
Assessment of content and language acquisition	

II.2. EMI methodology and its implementation at the ULPGC

This paper uses the definition of EMI offered by Dearden (2014, p. 4), which states that EMI consists of “The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English”. As the author points out, studies dealing with EMI are pertinent because “We do not know enough with regard to the consequences of using English rather than the first language (L1) on teaching, learning, assessing, and teacher professional development” (Dearden, 2014, p. 4). In institutions such as the ULPGC, the integration of these EMI subjects in the curricula of a variety of degrees is still very recent, and even today, the teaching advisory committees of many degrees are still considering the desirability of including subjects taught using EMI methodology. For this reason, this paper does not focus on the analysis of the consequences of doing this, which will need to be conducted in a few years’ time, rather it focuses on the conditions that must be met for the possible integration of these subjects in the ULPGC degrees in which they do not yet exist, specifically, the degree in tourism.

Subjects taught using EMI have been incorporated into numerous undergraduate degrees throughout Spain. However, as previously mentioned, this methodology is much less widespread among the degrees at the ULPGC than is ESP. One of the main reasons for this is that, as numerous specialists state, the level required for students to be able to follow the teaching sessions of a subject entirely in English should be at least B2 or C1 of the CEFRL; however, according to Mendoza Domínguez (2017), “a significant amount of our undergraduate students start their different degrees having an intermediate level of English (B1). This level would be insufficient to start an EMI program”. This applies not only to the ULPGC but probably to most Spanish universities as well. Furthermore, the institution should have teaching staff with a good command of the English language (C1 or C2 level) as well as didactic training to ensure

that students who are non-native English speakers are able to understand the content taught and that the lecturer is efficient in communicating this content. For this reason, the aim of this article is to analyse the conditions that should be in place for the future implementation of subjects taught using EMI methodology.

In the ULPGC, the number of subjects currently taught following EMI methodology is quite small and the degrees in which complete subjects are taught in English are even less numerous, but there are some, for instance, in the last year of the degree in economics. In other degrees, such as the degree in veterinary medicine, some credits are taught in English; for example, of the six European Credits (ECTS) assigned for a subject, five are taught in Spanish and one in English. However, what all the degrees in which there are credits taught through EMI at the ULPGC have in common is that they do not have ESP subjects for students to acquire the necessary level of competence to enable them to successfully follow and participate in specific and specialised content sessions taught in English.

One aspect to be taken into account when implementing subjects of this type is teacher training. As Carrió-Pastor (2021, p. 24) points out, these subjects are usually taught by “content teachers or language teachers trained in content”. What it is necessary to be aware of is that it is not just a matter of explaining content and assuming that the students understand it; it is necessary to apply a methodology in which there is a higher level of interaction in order to be able to effectively monitor the students’ level of understanding. It is also advisable to provide a high level of language feedback to the students enrolled in the subjects to help them become aware of areas they need to work on.

As shown in Table 2, EMI subjects do not include the teaching of general English language content but presuppose a high level of language proficiency on the part of the students, which should enable them to follow the teaching sessions and understand the content. This is important when considering the implementation of EMI subjects, as students who want to enrol in the subjects must be made aware of the minimum level of English proficiency they must have in order to be able to take the subjects. However, a review of syllabi for some of the current EMI subjects at the ULPGC shows that there is no reference to this in the prerequisites.

In addition to these issues, with the implementation of this methodology in Spanish higher education institutions, the belief has arisen that ESP or general English subjects can be removed from degrees and replaced by EMI, as many faculties believe that students will acquire a good level of English simply through EMI subjects. However, as Mendoza Domínguez (2017) points out, “There is no proof yet of the fact that students improve their English skills by studying the

content of their degrees' subjects through English. We all should ensure priority of learning over innovation".

This issue is particularly relevant in degrees such as tourism, since a very high percentage of graduates of this degree will frequently carry out work tasks that require the use of foreign languages and which, in general, will not be directly related to the specialised subjects of their degrees; therefore, in many cases the concepts and terminology acquired during EMI sessions will not be put into practice so frequently when carrying out some of the functions these sessions feature. In fact, as indicated on the website of the Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism of the ULPGC, the following are among the professional opportunities for the degree:

holding positions of management and responsibility in the different areas of tourism: accommodation, catering, intermediation, transport and logistics, planning and management of tourist destinations, products and activities, alluding to what is usually called complementary offer and the different types of tourism. In addition, the Graduate in Tourism also qualifies students to occupy other positions of responsibility in sectors directly or indirectly related to tourism activity.

Looking at the possible employment opportunities for the graduates of this undergraduate program, it becomes clear that the need for general English subjects to form part of the syllabus of the degree is of vital importance as these courses are necessary to complete the tasks related to the positions mentioned above and are even more relevant in a socio-economic environment such as that of the Canary Islands, in which the ULPGC is integrated, whose tourism sector offers services to millions of foreign tourists every year.

IV. PROPOSAL OF CONDITIONS FOR THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF EMI SUBJECTS IN THE DEGREE IN TOURISM AT THE ULPGC

IV.1. Language proficiency level as a prerequisite for EMI subjects

Based on the aforementioned theoretical issues related to EMI methodology as well as the analysis of the current application of EMI in diverse universities, some recommendations can be made regarding the requirements for the implementation of EMI in any degree programme, and in particular, in the ULPGC's bachelor's degree in tourism. First of all, it is essential that a series of conditions are met in various dimensions of the teaching and learning process so that students can get the most out of EMI subjects. The most obvious is that, as a prerequisite for taking the subjects, students must have a good command of the English language; at least B2, or even C1,

of the CEFR is recommended, depending on the degree of specialisation of the subject. Furthermore, this requirement must be indicated among the prerequisites in the syllabus for the subjects.

In order to meet this requirement, the university has two options. One is to request the minimum level of English language proficiency on entry to the degree. However, this could be seen as an inequitable measure, since not all students have the means to pay for this kind of preparation and a public university should not discriminate in this respect. The second option is to have some courses of general English so that, once the students have acquired the required linguistic competences in both comprehension and expression, they can subsequently take subjects taught in English and follow the teaching sessions correctly.

As indicated above, some ULPGC degrees include EMI subjects but do not include any instrumental English subjects prior to the EMI subjects. Likewise, the syllabuses of these subjects do not state that students are required to have a specific level of English, so it can be assumed that the level required is the entrance level. It should be remembered that the level of access to university in Spain is generally between A2 and B1 of the CEFR although this is obviously a general requirement because it depends on the academic background of the students prior to entering university. In addition, by the time students take EMI subjects in advanced degree courses (third, fourth years or even higher in the case of degrees lasting more than 4 years), they have spent 2–3 years without having taken any English language subjects. It is assumed that they will be able to follow the foreign language sessions without difficulty without having been offered any subjects preparing them for those subjects in which specialised content is taught.

Introducing EMI subjects without taking into account the students' level of language usually results in the sacrifice of part of the content because the pace of work cannot be as it should due to the lack of language skills necessary to follow the sessions, and the participation in the sessions is reduced. This issue is not new and has been discussed in the context of other methodologies, such as CLIL. For instance, during the last decade the rector at the *Politecnico di Milano* University, Giovanni Azzone, claimed “[we] strongly believe our classes should be international classes – and the only way to have international classes is to use the English language” (Coughlan, 2012). However, there was a critical movement against the implementation of EMI at the institution, as had already happened at other higher education institutions. Professor Matricciani of the same University argued that “Speaking Italian to our countrymen is like watching a movie in colour, high definition, very clear pictures. On the contrary, speaking English to them, even with our best effort, is, on the average, like watching a movie in black and white, with very poor definition, with blurred pictures” (Coughlan, 2012).

What must be understood is that institutions should not put students in the position of having to seek additional training outside the institution itself in order to be able to follow the sessions of the degree in which they are enrolled, as not everyone has that option due to, for example, economic, family or time constraints. A public university should guarantee equal opportunity. However, in the case of these mentioned degrees, ULPGC does not offer (a) the option of taking the same compulsory subjects in the official language of the country, in this case, Spanish, or (b) the option of taking ESP subjects within the degree itself to provide students with the necessary tools to follow the EMI subjects. In other countries, such as Turkey, some higher education institutions offering degrees with EMI subjects include a preparatory year so that students can acquire the necessary language level to be able to follow the sessions in the degree itself. However, this would mean adding an extra year to the duration of university studies.

Certainly, incorporating EMI subjects within the curricula of degree programmes without taking into account the need for a minimum level of English proficiency has consequences; the main one being that students do not make the most of these subjects and that problems are frequently detected in the understanding of the content taught. The latter issue has been demonstrated in studies carried out in various countries, as reported by Querol-Julián and Crawford Camiciottoli (2019). In their work, the following studies, among others, are cited as examples demonstrating this issue:

Table 3. Results obtained in studies on students' comprehension of EMI lectures. Source: Querol-Julián and Crawford Camiciottoli (2019).

Study	Country	Students	Lecture Comprehension
Hellekjær (2010)	Norway	346 undergraduates and 45 graduates	A large number had comprehension problems
Belhiah and Elhami (2015)	United Arab Emirates	500 undergraduates	17% had comprehension problems
Macaro and Akincioglu (2018)	Turkey	472 undergraduates	Students responded with a mean of 3.71 (on a Likert scale from 1 [low] to 5 [high]) to having comprehension problems
Soruç and Griffiths (2018)	Turkey	39 undergraduates	Most had comprehension problems
Wang et al. (2018)	China	undergraduates	Most had comprehension problems

IV.1.1. Teaching groups distribution and materials

Dividing students into small groups for teaching ESP or EMI subjects allows for more individualised attention and facilitates interaction, enabling students to develop their oral expression. However, in a large number of institutions and degrees this practice is complicated and does not usually happen due to organisational and economic constraints. A review of syllabi of some of the subjects currently taught using EMI methodology at the ULPGC shows that some of them do not include activities that promote the development of the different language skills, and so in no case can it be concluded that by taking these subjects students acquire a specific level of language in all the dimensions of expression, interaction and comprehension. Even if it could be considered that students acquire a certain level of foreign language competence in terms of, for example, written comprehension skills, the level of development of the skills of expression in particular is not clear. A similar level of proficiency within a specific group of students can facilitate the development of the teaching sessions, so offering instrumental English language subjects early on in the degree could help in homogenising the language level of the group, thus assisting the subsequent teaching of the EMI subjects.

Another issue to be taken into account when implementing an EMI subject is the design of materials and their potential to facilitate understanding. In Spanish universities, the lecture is still the predominant methodology. Yet, although it should not be considered a wrong tool, it is true that some aspects must be adapted:

[Lecturers] would need to know how to modify their input, assure comprehension via student-initiated interactional modifications and create an atmosphere where students operating in an L2 are not afraid to speak; all this whilst taking into account the many cultural differences present in the room and the potentially different language levels of individuals (Dearden, 2014, p. 23).

When teaching sessions through EMI, it is necessary to consider that students must be provided with various types of support to facilitate their understanding of the content. In other words, it should not simply be a session in which the teacher transmits the information orally, but other types of resources and support should be used to facilitate communication, such as, for example, the use of presentations. The reason for this is not only the fact that a foreign language is being used to transmit the information, but also the fact that since it is content that many of the students are hearing for the first time, their level of comprehension is likely to be lower than expected. Furthermore, intonation, articulation and the speed at which the information is conveyed must also be adapted to the learners' ability to follow.

As an additional resource, materials for self-study outside the classroom can be considered an effective tool to help learners experiencing difficulties keep up with the pace of the teaching sessions as well as broaden their knowledge. As far as language learning is concerned, some years ago, the UPLGC set up the *Centro de Recursos para el Aprendizaje Autónomo de Lenguas*, a platform where students can access resources to develop their language skills in a variety of languages, including English, in an autonomous manner.

IV.1.2. Lecturers' training and complementarity of EMI subjects with ESP subjects within the degree in tourism

In a study conducted by Dearden (2014) in 55 countries, to the question 'Are there enough qualified teachers in your country to teach through EMI?', the answer was a resounding 'No', with 83 per cent of countries responding in this way (2014, p. 24), and

Spain is no exception in this respect. The issue is that in Spain, there is a lack of teacher training at the methodological level with regard to EMI. This lack of training leads to terminological confusion, the erroneous design of materials and teaching sessions, resulting in the poor development of students' knowledge and the low number of the subjects taught using this methodology. It can be said that the vision of many of the teachers who teach subjects in university education using EMI methodology is overly simplistic and lacks a theoretical basis. They need to be aware that, among other things, "EMI involves changing from a teacher-led style to a more interactive dynamic" (Dearden, 2014, p. 23).

ULPGC's degree in tourism currently includes three ESP subjects. Ideally, EMI subjects in this degree would be included in the third and fourth years, once the students have completed the ESP subjects in which English language content is taught, which are instrumental for the development of the students' communicative competences. Moreover, in a degree containing both types of subjects, cooperation between the ESP and EMI teachers should be promoted.

In a degree programme such as the bachelor's degree in tourism, it is essential to have subjects that help students achieve a high level of linguistic proficiency. However, as indicated in the theoretical framework, there is no evidence that this level is achieved through EMI subjects, as, according to Airey (2012, p. 11), teachers of EMI subjects "perceived teaching duties are content specific and language free"; therefore, in general, teachers do not correct language use; the important thing is that students are able to convey the content and not how they express it. In addition, this would be very specific content relating to very specific specialised subjects, and, depending on the work students carry out at the end of their studies, it would be unlikely for them to need such specialised concepts to carry out their tasks in the majority of jobs.

However, the way of expressing oneself and the correct use of the language is fundamental to the effective performance of the jobs to which they can gain access once they have finished their studies, especially jobs in which they have to deal with the public. This is evident in almost all job offers to tourism graduates, which require the ability to speak one or more foreign languages at an intermediate-advanced level. Companies cannot afford to hire someone who has not mastered at least the current

lingua franca and who is not capable of interacting in specific communicative situations – skills best developed through ESP sessions and by putting them into practice through the internships offered by the Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Having reviewed the literature and determined the current situation regarding ESP and EMI subjects at the ULPGC, it can be concluded that one of the conditions required to implement subjects taught with EMI in the degree in tourism is the need for students to have an upper intermediate or advanced level of English. To meet this language prerequisite while ensuring equal opportunities among the enrolled students, the most coherent and efficient way forward would be to maintain the three current ESP subjects that cover levels B1 and B2 of the CEFR and that are provided in the first two years of the degree. It would also be advisable to introduce a fourth ESP subject so that the language level of the students is as close as possible to C1 of the CEFR, thus facilitating the development of the possible EMI subjects that are to be introduced. The EMI subjects should be included in the third and fourth years of the degree, after the students have completed the ESP subjects. In addition, the teaching projects for EMI subjects should state the language level needed as a prerequisite for taking the subjects, as is already done with ESP subjects, as this could be useful as an orientation for students.

Another conclusion drawn is that the teaching groups formed for the delivery of these sessions should be small in order to provide a controlled learning environment in which students feel comfortable communicating in the foreign language. Moreover, a small number of students allows for a higher level of student interaction with the teacher as well as with their peers. This could also be applied to existing ESP subjects, as it has been noted that the progress of some groups is slower precisely because they have a larger number of students than other groups.

Finally, some requirements should be established for teachers of EMI subjects to ensure that, in addition to a language level that allows them to teach these subjects, they have training in EMI methodology so that they understand that it does not mean translating content from Spanish into English. They should be aware that teaching specialised content, about which the audience usually has no prior knowledge, in a language that is not the students' mother tongue is not the same as teaching said content in the students' mother tongue. Thus, the materials used, support for these materials, possible reinforcements, work dynamics, etc. should be adapted to complement the master classes that may be given.

The implementation of the recommendations listed here will result in an improvement in student outcomes as well as in the coherent implementation of a methodology that can have a very positive impact both on students' university training and on their subsequent professional development. If implemented correctly, the combination of ESP and EMI subjects within the same degree will not only help the development of students' language skills but will most likely have a positive effect on their confidence and fluency in using the English language in different academic and professional environments.

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EMI and the Teaching of Cultural Studies in Higher Education: A Study Case

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines students' perspectives on the challenges raised by their first encounter with EMI pedagogy in higher education. The research was conducted with a group of beginner students with no previous experience in monolingual instruction in English. The case studied is based on two English Cultural Studies subject courses of the English Studies Program at a Spanish university and taught in a learning environment of total linguistic immersion. By activating their metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness, students were encouraged to take ownership of the stages of their learning process and assess it critically. Set at the intersection of EFL, ESP, and EAP, the specificities of these courses comprising linguistic and non-linguistic contents shed light on the teaching procedures employed in English Departments training programs, whose goals are to turn undergraduates into expert linguists and philologists and maximise their communicative proficiency in academic English.

Keywords: *EMI; Cultural Studies; Higher Education; EFL; methodology*

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper offers an overview of students' appraisal of the problems they confronted with English as Medium of Instruction (henceforth EMI) for the learning of two English Cultural Studies courses in the context of the English Studies Program at Universidad de Sevilla. The methodology implemented to improve language proficiency at expert level and help them master disciplinary knowledge received a mixed response on the learners' part, particularly during the initial stages. The results of the project identify Spanish newcomer students' learning needs and the challenges perceived within the frame of EMI didactics. The courses selected for this study case are sequential, Estudios Culturales en Lengua Inglesa I and II; they cover core matters in the curriculum of the English Studies degree program and are mandatory for the first year of training. Both courses are fully English-taught, and deal with British and American cultural history contents. They offer trainees the necessary contextual background on different aspects of English-speaking nations' cultural history and prepare them for the study of the specific English and American literature subject courses they will later take in the next three years to complete the program. The learning goals of this introduction to Cultural Studies are triple: on the one hand, to acquire the pertinent content-based disciplinary knowledge; secondly, to develop analytical skills to reflect on the construction of the discourses shaping the anglophone cultural tradition in different historical periods; lastly, to familiarize learners with the mechanics of academic writing in English. The classes are based on the analysis of a wide variety of key historical, legal, political, scientific and literary texts that have contributed to build and express the idiosyncratic aspects of the Anglo-American cultural heritage. This involves the upgrading of students' hermeneutic skills, the employment of metacognitive strategies for the mastering of the categories of cultural analysis, as well as the increasing of linguistic proficiency.

All the class material (anthology of texts, class presentations, recommended bibliography, support documentation like charts, timelines, glossaries, questionnaires, tests, how-to guides, etc.) is provided in English. Likewise, all forms of instruction, explanations and learning procedures, as well as the in-class interaction with and among students are conducted in L2 in an integrative way. This way, EMI and Content and Language Integrated Learning (henceforth CLIL) teaching strategies are combined in order to create a learning environment of full immersion in academic English. Since the

experience is set in the frame of the discipline of English Studies, the methodology puts to work the trainees' metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness simultaneously, prompting them to fully engage with their education and to take responsibility for their own progression. In this sense, the course design was carefully planned to detect which EMI and CLIL resources were suitable to help first-year students adjust themselves better and faster to the higher education scenario. Further, it was essential for these beginner undergraduates to identify the possible gaps in their individual pre-college academic background so that they could receive specific guidance to bridge the deficiencies detected.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

EMI has become the object of systematic research in the context of Spanish higher education relatively late in comparison with neighboring nations. Until quite recently, Spanish tertiary education has been predominantly monolingual, except for those areas in which Basque, Catalan/Valencian and Galician are co-official languages at all educational levels. Until the last decade of the 20th c., there were no special plans for introducing English-taught courses in the university curricula beyond those of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and most often these were initially restricted to the context of private universities. Usually, they focused on the areas of economics and business administration studies or on very specific branches of STEM and medical schools postgraduate programs. As a rule, the humanities and the arts came late to the incorporation of English courses to their curricula. In any case, the courses were mainly designed to prepare Spanish-speaking students for future career opportunities abroad rather than to attract international students to Spanish colleges. Besides, the presence of international faculty members and teaching staff was also scarce in all the levels of the Spanish educational system. In parallel to this, once it was clear that English had become the lingua franca for global communication and scientific research, universities started to offer optional courses in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Habitually EAP classes were intended for faculty and doctoral candidates so that Spanish research could gain transnational visibility with publications in the most prestigious scientific journals. EAP training was only later introduced in undergraduate curricula.

In general, until very recently the language policy of Spanish universities did not pursue the internationalization agenda of other European countries' tertiary education, which have for long resorted to EMI courses to widen their pools of prospective students. Even though the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) has been mandatory in primary and secondary education in Spain since the 1980's, and despite of the mixed success of the various bilingualism plans fostered by the regional governments, universities did not endorse bilingual undergraduate programs until 2002 (Dafouz & Nuñez, 2009). As of today, still many Spanish universities do not contemplate full instruction in English as a real possibility for all their degrees (Bazo et al., 2017).

In relation to this, we cannot forget the historical circumstances hindering the internationalization of Spanish tertiary education in the 20th century. The context of academic isolationism in the pre-democratic period caused that few foreign students considered joining Spanish universities before the 1960s, and those who did tended to be largely native Spanish speakers coming from Latin American countries, thus requiring no specific language policies to meet their formative needs. By the 1990s, however, the situation changed and progressively departments started to offer some English-taught courses in parallel to their regular Spanish-taught curricula. It is in the context of the application of the Bologna Process for the standardization of Higher Education in the European Union (EHEA) that since 1999 Spanish universities have been more consistent with the question of implementing EMI. To achieve the desirable balance of the subject content and language learning goals, lecturers resorted to CLIL methodologies, providing interesting insight on how to teach the many matters of scientific specialization in L2. In this vein, the stress fell first on producing tools and resources to teach English to a community of predominantly native Spanish-speaker students. Applied Linguistics and, in special, Functional Systemic Linguistics (SFL) approaches provided the main framework for the ensuing pedagogical investigation. With the application of the Common European Frame of References for Languages (CEFR) in 2011, EMI became central to assess Spanish universities' chances to further their internationalization, so that they could take part in the competitive market of tertiary education. As a consequence, the methodological effort hitherto devoted to the teaching of EFL, ESP and EAP to Spanish speakers now concentrated on reconceptualizing EMI as the vehicular language to open the Spanish universities'

classrooms to the new international winds. Similarly, the implementation of EMI programs would attract more talented faculty members to their ranks.

Nevertheless, the problem at stake was that in order to integrate EMI into Spain's higher education efficiently, it was necessary to start by addressing the challenges emerging from the low proficiency levels in English most Spanish undergraduates have when starting college. As stated above, the study of a foreign language is mandatory in the Spanish secondary education training curricula, with most students taking English as their first FL option (Eurydice, 2017). But experience shows that, unfortunately, despite the time and economic resources invested, Spanish average students can complete this stage without really reaching the desirable B1 level of proficiency marked by the legislation. The analysis of the reasons for the systemic failure of the teaching of EFL in secondary education, as well as the shortcomings of the equally flawed bilingual education programs, lie beyond the scope of this essay, but at the end of the day the deficiencies in pre-college training hinder their possibilities of success in EMI university programs.

One of the main issues is that, in general terms, students have had very few hours of exposure to real English, even though it has been proved it has a significant impact on any FL acquisition process (Muñoz, 2006). Likewise, we must also take into account that often the English class in high school is based on the explanation of grammatical and syntactical aspects, and that frequently this is conducted in Spanish or at least bilingually. In fact, learners rarely interact among themselves in English during the class sessions, limiting the use of the FL to the completion of language exercises. There is also a pronounced unbalance between input and output in English: the production of independent thinking-based oral and written pieces is very limited, and so for example, second-year baccalaureate students are not used to write compositions longer than one page, that is, just what they are required to do for the English language section of the university access exams. Since non-guided production, either oral or written, is not trained on a regular basis, it is not surprising that students' fluency is underdeveloped, and this hurts their confidence to use English in out-of-school contexts. Additionally, although it is common for Spanish teenagers to take English classes as part of their extra-curricular activities, once again, they are trained to pass the official exams with the

practice of standardized procedures. This enables them to answer language tests and produce very repetitive pieces of writing, but trainees are little encouraged to use English for communicating creatively. Thus, beginner students arrive at the university stage with a weak EFL background; those joining EMI and English-medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS) programs are prone to feel they are at disadvantage when comparing themselves both to their peer students following similar Spanish-taught programs and to international students, who are often equipped with more solid EFL/bilingual skills.

Another crucial factor at play is the absence or paucity of specific training for lecturers in charge of EMI courses in Spain (Muñoz, 2001; Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013; Fortanet-Gómez, 2013; Martín del Pozo, 2015; Jiménez-Muñoz, 2016; Dafouz & Camacho-Miñano, 2016; Sancho-Esper et al., 2016; Carrió-Pastor, 2020). Instructors are certainly fully competent in their area of scientific expertise and are normally required to certify a C1 level of proficiency in English; nevertheless, they are not always properly trained for teaching in English. Thus, they frequently lack the methodological qualification to use EMI efficiently, this being one of the main obstacles for faculty professional development.

In this context, the use of EMI within the academic area of English Studies is peculiar. To begin with, English Studies lecturers fulfill the requirements to teach in English as they are experts in language themselves and have received methodological training as well. In fact, English departments pioneered in the use of EMI; since the foundation of the academic area as *Estudios de Filología Inglesa* or *Filología Anglogermánica* in the late 1950's, the language policy followed by English departments was that of implementing full instruction in the target language already in the earliest instances of the formative program. This marked a departure from the standard didactics of other modern languages/ modern philology departments (Santoyo & Guardia, 1982; Monterrey, 2003). Additionally, English faculty stressed the metalinguistic character of the training they offered, making undergraduates aware of the pedagogical strategies involved in the learning of the language-based and the non language-based contents. When considering the applicability of EMI in the frame of English Studies degrees, it is therefore important to have in mind Carrió-Pastor's (2021) clarification:

CLIL and EMI approaches are similar in the sense that they are both forms of bilingual education but CLIL means teaching content through any foreign language while EMI means teaching content to students who are proficient in English (at least C1 proficiency level). Another difference is the perception of teachers' role in both approaches. In both approaches, teachers know they are using a foreign language and thus they practice English while they teach content, but they differ in the aims of the class they deliver. On the one hand, in CLIL, teachers have a dual objective, that is, teaching both language and the subject content. On the other hand, in EMI, the content teachers do not think of themselves as language teachers; they only teach content speaking a foreign language (p.23).

In the practice, the courses taught by English Departments are at the intersection of these categories. For a start, lecturers are concerned with the teaching of specific contents on English Studies –linguistic and non-linguistic– at the very same time they must endow their students with the academic English skills necessary to access this knowledge. The non linguistics-based subject courses offered are intellectually challenging and encompass subjects matters like literature, history, art, science, economy, thus demanding the engagement of sophisticated cognitive procedures that should also find their expression in L2. Most frequently, beginner students realize that they do not possess the necessary communicative skills as yet. In fact, English Studies undergraduates' achievement level of academic accomplishment is assessed on the two criteria of the assimilation of content-based knowledge, both linguistic and non-linguistic, and language correctness in the rendering of their newly acquired scientific expertise. From first-year students' perspective, this is challenging, and their inexperience with EMI may bring about frustration and anxiety about the quality and future of their academic performance. The current research paper examines these issues and aims at offering some orientation to overcome the problems detected.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study case presented analyses students' perceptions on the difficulties faced in their first educational experience with EMI in two courses on Cultural Studies taught by the Department of English and American Literature of the Facultad de Filología at Universidad de Sevilla. The language policy in this study area establishes that all courses

be fully taught in English during the four years of the training program; even for newcomer undergraduates, all forms of interaction with their instructor as well as students' work is developed in L2 regardless of the shortcomings of the trainees' performance during the first weeks of the school year. The learners' production –class work, assignments, exams, tests, papers, projects, etc., both individual and collaborative— is to be submitted and revised in this language. It is then essential for beginner students to familiarize themselves with the EMI didactics as soon as possible so that they can meet the courses' specific learning objectives. It is expected that, at the end of the academic term, they have acquired an advanced B2 level of English proficiency leading to the bilingual status they should reach throughout the next years. The close examination of the data collected in this research details first-years' responses to these curricular requirements, and evidences their self-awareness on the developmental needs raised by EMI didactics.

The group of stakeholders selected took two sequential four-month courses, *Estudios Culturales en Lengua Inglesa I* (September-January) and *Estudios Culturales en Lengua Inglesa II* (February-June) in the 2020-2021 academic year, with a workload of 6 ECTS credits each one. The courses cover British and American cultural history contents and offer background knowledge in the field as well as training in textual analysis techniques and cultural critique. The students learn contents of a double nature: conceptual, consisting in the acquisition of fundamental background knowledge on the cultural history of English-speaking nations, and procedural, dealing with the interiorizing of the textual analysis skills necessary to identify and critically assess the discourses constructing this cultural tradition. Thus, *Estudios Culturales I* and *II* provide first-year undergraduates with the basis for the study of English and American literature subject courses they will take in the next three years leading to the obtention of their degree. Their understanding of the idiosyncratic traits of the culture of anglophone nations prepares them to develop future careers in the different contexts of intercultural communication too. The pedagogical approach adopted promotes students' engagement and critical awareness, giving them the tools to describe and evaluate the discourses defining the Anglo-American cultural heritage. As Duraisingh (2021) points out, we cannot forget that “theories which seek to account for the increasing sophistication by which individuals make meaning of the world, such as the potential

move from passively accept information from sources of authority to taking the responsibility of making meaning for oneself, embrace a constructivist as well as cognitive developmental stance” (p. 126). EMI didactics allow therefore to integrate the language and conceptual contents of these courses in an effective way. In the frame of this case study, the combined difficulty of working in a non-native language to make sense of its cultural milieu is perceived as doubly challenging by the trainees. It forces them to observe, contrast, compare and relate the native and the target cultural traditions, in whose languages – both in the literal and metaphorical senses of the term – they are conversant.

There are 4 hours of classes per week, and the sessions are designed to completely immerse students in an integrative learning environment that replicates the one they could have in any monolingual English-speaking academic institution. The methodological approach adopted is that of learning-by-doing and the pedagogy is student-centered, resorting to EMI and CLIL teaching strategies to enhance students’ analytical skills as well as to help them to develop their key linguistic competences in academic English. As Aguilar and Rodríguez put it, CLIL “plays a crucial role in acculturating university students into the language in which their discipline knowledge is embedded, constructed or evaluated” (2012, p. 184). The expertise learners acquire in the discipline of English Cultural Studies must be demonstrated by being able to carry out task-based activities in the form of textual analysis, group discussion of the topics proposed, and the elaboration of short critical essays (1500-2000 words) articulated as text commentaries. The learning objectives “are transformed into the ability to understand and produce literary texts thanks to the mastery of comprehension and production skills, which allow for the development of the ability to analyze works at a semantic and formal level as well as to carry out creative activities involving written production” (Ballester-Roca & Spaliviero, 2021, p. 230).

The study material comprises an anthology of texts, 31 for Estudios Culturales I and 28 for Estudios Culturales II. The selection was done by the teaching team of lecturers in charge of the courses, and the excerpts included illustrate the cultural history of English-speaking nations since the 1st century to present day. The texts chosen belong to different genres, ranging from historical chronicles to legal documents, pamphlets,

speeches, poems, novels, plays, or film scripts, and all of them are presented in their original language version. Except for the Latin text on the Roman conquest of Britain, all the works were written by British or American authors, and are chronologically arranged from the 1st to the 21st century. The second type of study material provided to complement the text anthologies consists in the scientific bibliographical and reference material necessary for the study of each historical period, available through the University Library.

Working on English and American cultural contents in English turns out stressful for first-year undergraduates, specially during the earlier stages of the term. When the course starts, they are used to the teaching practices of secondary education, where classes were not completely English-taught and the material in English is often adapted, abridged, or has been especially created for the purpose of language teaching. As said above, higher education EMI courses are not focused on teaching the language, but in the case of English Studies boundaries are naturally much flexible and so the Estudios Culturales training program deliberately stimulates metalinguistic awareness in order to facilitate first-year students' introduction to the EMI model. To this end, some teaching strategies inspired on the CLIL toolkit (Doyle, 2010) are employed, in special those of scaffolding and sequencing. As the cognitive skills engaged must operate twofold in the scientific as well as in the linguistic field, it is relevant that the stages of learning be arranged gradually so that the less cognitively demanding tasks precede the more complex ones (Bloom et al., 1956). Helping first-year students to cope with the difficulties of combining the different thinking styles required is, then, crucial. As Álvarez-Gil (2021) highlights, in tertiary education contexts,

the ability to process the thinking about the learning process can motivate students that are frustrated because they are not able to acquire the adequate competences they need in order to evolve as well as bridge the gap some students have in their learning process since they can become aware of them and employ the appropriate tools to solve them (p. 324).

For this reason, Estudios Culturales learners receive constant orientation to solve both the content-related and language-related problems, especially at entrance level.

In this sense, English is always taught on practical, not theoretical bases. The different topics of cultural history are presented in class in English, and on the other, to ensure the complete understanding of the texts in the anthology illustrating these topics, their grammatical, syntactical and semantical complexities are carefully addressed during the lectures through close reading techniques. Likewise, glossaries and vocabulary lists are provided, and literary and cultural allusions clarified with the aid of reference material. Strictly speaking, these are not literature courses and the literary excerpts are studied as pieces of cultural history, yet the group receives basic information on the rhetorical and stylistic peculiarities of their artistic trends and period for those texts requiring it. Lessons are fully delivered in academic English, but the pace of explanations for new learners is slow: there is much repetition and glossing, written and visual support material is used to complement the oral input, students' understanding is constantly checked, etc. The same philosophy applies to the monitoring of students' textual production, both oral and written; they have practical class sessions in the form of writing workshops where they can have immediate feedback on errors, templates and style-sheets samples are supplied, etc. Similarly, a list of specific language aid on-line resources is published in the course digital platform. The study of the curricular matters of cultural history in English is facilitated with plenty of written and audiovisual materials like slideshow presentations on the syllabi topics, videos, audios, film clips, chronologies, royal genealogies, links to course-related digitalized manuscripts and historical documents, maps, and links to specialized websites for the study of British and American history, open access bibliographical repositories, as well as to sites of different libraries, museums and academic institutions' resources where they could further investigate on the topics of their interest.

Students can always have individual consultation sessions with the lecturer so that they receive personalized feedback and supervision to solve the specific problems impeding their learning progression. Apart from this, they are strongly advised to make the most of the mandatory subject course of Lengua Inglesa I, taught by the English Language Department, whose contents are of a purely linguistic character.

III.1. Participants

Of the 46 and 40 students registered for Estudios Culturales I and Estudios Culturales II respectively, only 22 qualified as stakeholders for the purposes of this research. The selection criteria intervening were two: i) they took the two courses for the first time and therefore had no previous experience with EMI at higher education level, and none of them was a native speaker of English or bilingual; and ii) they took the courses with the same lecturer and they sat the final exams for both courses. These conditions were deemed necessary so that the impact of EMI methodology on them could be evaluated. It was also crucial that the participants' increasing interiorization of the EMI class procedures could be monitored through the whole academic term, and so the informants' learning progression was fully assessed by means of the summative and formative assessment of their academic performance. Even though the number of stakeholders for this research project may seem limited, we consider that the information presented is valuable and representative, as it replicates the beliefs former students shared with the lecturer in some more informal ways over the last years. It is also worth noting that the 2020-21 term was marked by the COVID-19 pandemic, and so the teaching modality has been hybrid, with onsite class rotations for one third of the students every two weeks whereas the other two thirds followed the session online via Blackboard Collaborate Ultra. Although these circumstances might have influenced some students' attitude towards EMI pedagogy, the evidence gathered from the courses results and final grades presents no substantial variances with those of the past 5 years.

III.2. Method and instruments

Stakeholders were consulted only after they took the two courses in Estudios Culturales consecutively so that they could have a complete perspective on their exposure to EMI classes. Besides, the survey was conducted anonymously four weeks after the official publication of the final course grades of Estudios Culturales II so that students felt completely free to answer. The information was gathered from two sources: the first one was the online questionnaire with 14 items (22); the second source of data were informal personal interviews students had with the lecturer, in which the participants volunteered to comment on their experience with EMI training (6). These learners were inquired about their own perception of the challenges EMI classes posited for them in the first year of their college studies by being asked to score the level of difficulty of the

different types of activities and tasks they performed for the courses. The scoring possibilities were *easy*, *moderately complex*, *complex*, and *extremely complex*. Students' comments extracted from item fourteen in the questionnaire in answer to the question "what was the most challenging aspect of the courses for you?," as well as the opinions expressed in the course of the interviews offer interesting insight for this study too; their words appear verbatim in the sections below, enclosed in quotation marks.

III.3. Data analysis

The first three items in the questionnaire dealt with the textual comprehension of the 59 excerpts included in the course anthology. Regarding their conceptual complexity, 14% stakeholders estimated that they could understand them easily; 32% said they had confronted some difficulty; 36% thought the task complex; and 18% found it extremely complex. This indicates that almost half of the group felt relatively confident with texts of an ample variety of genres –historical chronicles, essays, medieval romance, drama, novels, poems, film scripts, legal documents, manifestos and political speeches. For the rest of the group, the texts proved challenging mostly because they were not used to the genre conventions featured; the trainees claimed they had had no previous experience working with non-adapted texts in English other than short excerpts from narrative works, popular song lyrics, news reports, or advertisements in their secondary education textbooks. Very few participants had read literary works in their full English versions before. Some informants also pointed out at the fact that, in general, the poetic texts included in the course anthologies turned out more difficult to understand than prose texts, either literary or documentary. They also declared that the excerpts included in the course-pack for Estudios Culturales I were more complex because they had very little knowledge of British civilization prior to the 16th century; in contrast, they stated that were more familiar with the modern and contemporary periods and it was therefore easier for them to contextualize the information.

Students were also asked about the linguistic complexity they met in the reading of the texts; in the opinion of 18% these were easy; 32% regarded them as moderately complex; 36% defined them as complex; and 14% as very complex. It is important to notice that the Estudios Culturales I anthology included works in Latin and Old English, but their Present-Day English translations were provided on the facing page;

nevertheless, the texts in Late Middle English and Early Modern English were presented in their original version, requiring further philological explanation to familiarize students with their linguistic and stylistic features. In the comments sections of the survey, some students remarked that the texts of the Estudios Culturales II coursepack were in general much enjoyable to read as they were written in “modern English.” It is also relevant to consider that, in any case, by the second semester the consistency, duration, and quality of the stakeholders’ exposure to EMI was already considerable, resulting in that their average reading skills have improved greatly.

The third question of the survey was concerned the learners’ self-perception of the challenges related to their understanding of the texts’ discourse on the given cultural topics addressed. 14% considered they could do it with no difficulty; 45% declared it moderately complex; 23% found it complex; and 18% reported they had met serious obstacles with the conceptual analysis of the works, judging it as extremely complex. Actually, this kind of activity puts students’ analysis skills in English at play and was completely new for them. In the first weeks of Estudios Culturales I, some members of the group complained that they could hardly identify the author’s ideological stance on the historical topic approached in the texts unless it was explicitly stated, and that this was particularly difficult with literary texts. In contrast, they deemed this task as easier in the second semester. Therefore, the results of the survey point towards the positive effect of the EMI methodologies employed in the training, since students’ comprehension skills and cultural awareness improved through the academic year.

Questions four and five interrogated stakeholders about their capacity to produce independent critique in the frame of Cultural Studies in the form of short original critical essays, based on their analysis of the given texts. They were required to do this with expository clarity and pertinence, using the appropriate terminology, and in academic English. This task was perceived as easy by 9%; or moderately complex by 23%; however, it was regarded as complex by 45% and as extremely challenging by 23%. This evidences that curriculum-associated tasks involving independent thinking and the elaboration of original written works was one of the most demanding activities. This kind of exercises is cognitively challenging since it requires the activation of what authors define as higher-order thinking skills (Anderson & Krathwohl 2001; Álvarez-Gil, 2021). In order to

articulate their individual appraisal of the cultural studies contents as part of the critical debate, learners must have assimilated the categories of cultural analysis and be able to produce academic pieces themselves, thus combining scientific content-knowledge and procedural skills of different cognitive order. The development of these professional abilities is achieved through intense practice, and since there are not two identical interpretations of one text, there are not two identical commentaries; subsequently, students need continuous, individualized feedback on their academic performance. Learning and teaching the mechanics of critical writing is one of the most time-consuming tasks in these courses' programs. With this purpose, students are trained in commentary composition in class, and must also submit one mandatory essay as their mid-term assignment both in Estudios Culturales I & II. They have also the chance to turn in more pieces of works for extra assessment. The critical commentary activity is a powerful and valuable tool to check learners' progression in the acquisition of academic competences, and it scores the 55% of the grade in the final exam. In connection with this, the interviews revealed that several students reckoned they felt "overwhelmed" during the first semester when it came to written assignments, and that their self-confidence was hindered as they deemed their language skills "insufficient to get good grades."

The same self-doubt feeling applies to students' perception of their writing abilities to structure their writing logically according to the stylistic rules of essay writing. In response to question five in the survey, only 9% found it easy to do; 23% admitted to having some difficulties; 45% considered it complex; and 23% considered it extremely complex. The most pessimistic students reported that they felt poorly prepared to advance a thesis statement and defend their claims convincingly in terms of logic, concision, accuracy, and pertinence, and not only in English but also in Spanish. These responses demonstrate flaws in the students' educational background beyond the specific field of EFL/L2, yet they are also a good indication of first-year's increasing ownership of their own development.

The sixth question was directly connected with the last two; concerning the mechanics of writing, students regarded producing grammatically and syntactically correct texts in

academic English as easy 14%; moderately complex 32%; complex 36%; and as very complex 18%.

Items seven to ten surveyed the challenges met with EMI class procedures. In relation to issues with oral instruction in English, in item seven, learners rated the understanding of the oral input offered (class explanations, procedural information, debates, etc.) as easy 36%; moderately complex 32%; complex 27%; and 5% considered the classes very complex. As for the assessment of the difficulty in the understanding and assimilation of the written material used in the course (other than the anthology of texts), item eight indicates that 64% considered it easy; 23% regarded it moderately complex; and only 17% reported difficulties in working with it, with no student disapproving the task as extremely complex.

Questions nine and ten covered students' views on their own communicative abilities to engage in EMI class dynamics. In regard of stakeholders' perception of the complexity of carrying out oral interaction with peer students and the lecturer during the class sessions and consultation hours, 33% considered it was easy to express their ideas, present their points of view in the class debates, contribute information, ask questions and offer comments; 43% could do it with moderate difficulty; 10% found it complex; and 14% considered it extremely complex, to the point that in some cases they were reluctant to participate as they lacked the confidence to speak English in public because of their individual language issues (fluency and accent problems, etc.). Item ten assessed the written version of these interaction procedures; it is important to notice that due to the repeated malfunctioning of Collaborate Ultra and the large number of people in the hybrid class (with approximately 30 online assistants), many students often resorted to writing in the class chat when they could not use the micro/audio devices, this increasing somehow artificially the average frequency of in-class written communication in comparison with past terms. Although some students acknowledged their anxiety about their oral performance in class interaction, the results about indicate that they were less hesitant to write in English, and so 45% of stakeholders answered that they had no problems with written participation, 36% found it moderately complex; 18% saw it as complex; and 5% indicated it was extremely complicated for them.

Items eleven to thirteen focused on individual study dynamics in these EMI courses. Stakeholders' opinions regarding the complexity of working in English show that 9% considered it easy; 41% moderately complex; 23% complex; and 27% saw it as extremely complex. In the comments sections, informants expressed their concerns about not having received consistent training to study intellectually demanding matters in English on their own, as they had no previous experience with not being assigned homework or short task-based projects to be presented in the class immediate revision. For 50% of the group, their independent study hours presented them with problems because, contrarily to expectations based on their former educational experience, there was no single manual or textbook for the whole course. Even though three fundamental cultural history manuals are recommended, the course resorts to a wide variety of information and reference sources, and likewise memorizing data was important but obviously not the only goal in a subject course promoting independent, critical thinking. Therefore, students claimed that their learning progression was conducted at a slow pace. Some of them also stated that they felt uneasy about using the appropriate the content-specific and professional terminology of cultural studies and historiography when elaborating summaries, study notes, concept maps, etc. in English on their own. Once more, they declared this had been hard on them especially in the earlier stages of the first semester, but that they were more at ease in *Estudios Culturales II*.

In response to the twelfth question, informants reported that the consultation of the recommended course bibliography in English had been easy in 32% of the cases; moderately complex in 41%; complex in 27%; and no informant qualified it as extremely complex.

Item thirteen interrogated learners on their skills to do autonomous research in English to seek information and reference bibliography other than that offered as course material in the courses' digital platform: 32% deemed this as easy; 55% as moderately complex; 14% as complex; and no one considered it extremely complex.

The last item of the survey asked the participants directly about the learning aspects of the course they considered most complex. There were 20 answers, out of which 90% stressed that mastering critical writing in academic English had been the most challenging one. 70% of these recognized they had not been trained to assess texts

critically on their own before, since the model of text commentary they had practiced in secondary education differed greatly from the one used in Estudios Culturales. For some learners, this was the first time they were required to put critical abilities and independent thinking skills at work for the interpretation of primary sources. They reported having issues with the identification of the texts' discursive strategies and the logical arrangement of the essays they wrote on them. Also, 30% declared to possess poor knowledge of universal history, and remarked that they had to invest much time in studying history contents that were already familiar for their peer students.

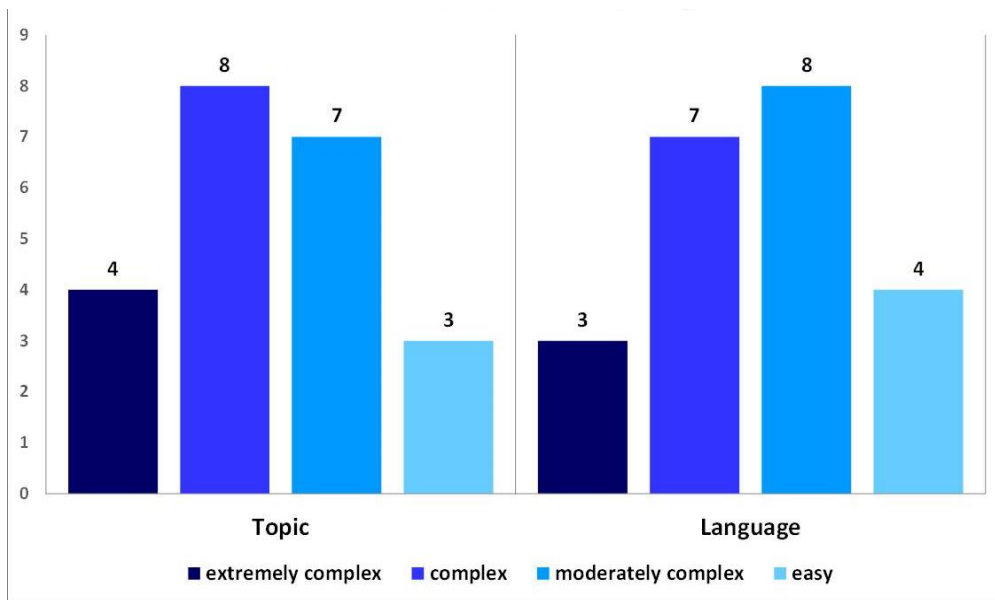


Figure 1. Textual understanding

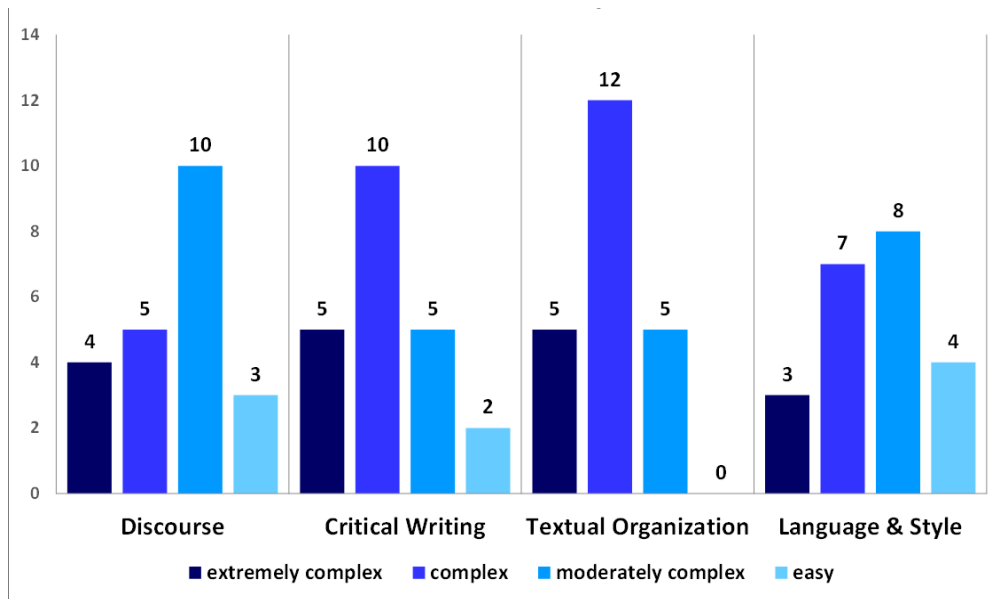


Figure 2. Text analysis

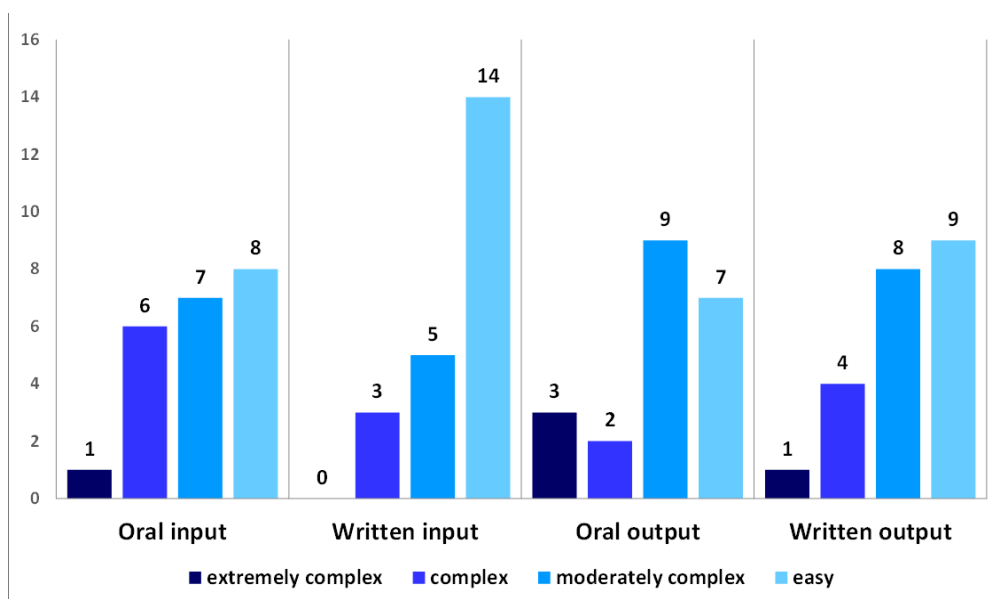


Figure 3. Class procedures

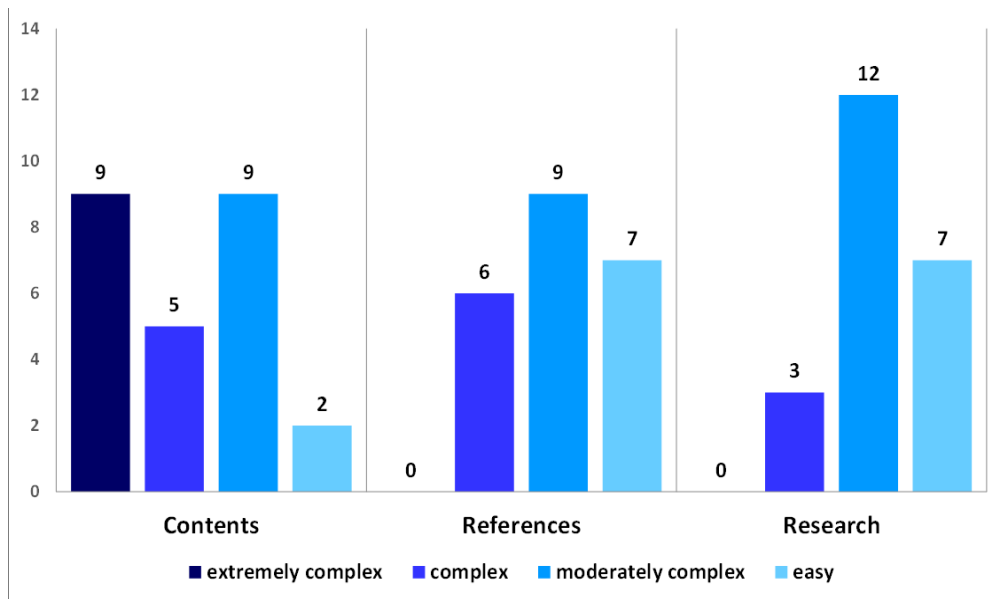


Figure 4. Independent study procedures

III.4. Discussion

The findings presented above are consistent with studies conducted internationally indicating that the students of tertiary education EMI courses share the impression that they are not fully competent for these programs. This belief affects undergraduates even in places where bilingual education has a solid tradition and EMI has been established for long (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 53). In the case study presented, the fact that practically 50% of the informants declared that they felt not fully prepared to study the cultural history of English-speaking societies in English reveals the shortcomings of the pre-college training received. This perception is coincidental with lecturers' appraisal of the situation of higher education EMI programs in Spain, as they consider that the linguistic barriers typical of this learning environment are difficult to overcome (Doiz et al., 2013). In fact, our informants perceived these Estudios Culturales courses as "quite demanding" because there was "too much material to study in English," and suggested reducing the number of texts included in the course anthologies for the future. In this regard, it is also worth noticing that a large number of the stakeholders admitted that they had not read the courses descriptions (available through the university website and the course digital platform) before choosing to join the English Studies program, only to find out that EMI was in full operation from the very start.

These participants had erroneously assumed that the instruction would be “at least partially delivered in Spanish.”

EMI in English Studies programs requires total linguistic immersion and a high-level degree of language awareness that is not required in other scientific areas, which is hard on first-year undergraduates. Our students informed that the estimated home workload dedicated to the Estudios Culturales courses oscillated between 4-10 hours per week, and half of this time was devoted to work on language issues. In order to help trainees adapt to the courses' EMI didactics, the less proficient ones were especially encouraged to compensate for their educational deficits and bridge this gap in different ways. The records of this research indicate that stakeholders met no significant challenge in the understanding of the class input, as they could follow the oral explanations and in-class activities, and read the bibliographical material with low or moderate difficulty, as the answers to items seven and eight show. The survey also reveals an acceptably positive self-image concerning their in-class performance both oral and written; students considered that they could interact fluently both by speaking and writing during the sessions, as stated in items nine and ten. This has to do with the fact that learners counted on that the standards of correction and accuracy were more relaxed during class sessions than for more formal written assignments. They regarded receiving immediate oral feedback on errors during their class performance as helpful and encouraging. It is also worth noting that this more individualized monitoring of students' in-class performance was possible because of the limited number of people in the classroom (6-14) in this academic year; the average pre-COVID class groups numbers of 40-50 people would not allow for it.

Regarding the development of analytical skills, students' self-perception was less positive. According to the data gathered, they considered they may possess the hermeneutic basis and know how to use the suitable interpretive strategies for the task, but found it hard to express the results of the analysis in the required format of the critical essay. Stakeholders expressed their disappointment with their pre-college experience in critical writing: some of them admitted that either in English or Spanish, they felt capacitated to summarize and paraphrase texts, but could not discuss them in their cultural and historical contexts. This level of philological expertise was one of the

key learning goals of the courses, and it had to be gradually achieved as it requires the consistent practice for the interiorization of essay writing strategies. In this sense, it is understandable that some stakeholders experienced frustration during the first months. They observed that the refining of their analytical reading skills took place much sooner than the improvement of their production skills, and this unbalance unsettled them. In the course of 3 of the 6 personal interviews conducted, 4 participants declared that they were now aware that the secondary education training in English “had failed them.” Also, 5 of them added that they did not feel confident at all they could produce solid written academic essays until the end of the first semester, and that the essay section included in the final exam of Estudios Culturales I had taken them twice as long as the completion of the other half of the test, consisting in elaborating short definition entries for several cultural history topics studied. This was particularly problematic in the case of Estudios Culturales I, when some learners felt so insecure about their EMI academic capabilities that relied too much on the bibliography consulted, sometimes verging on flagrant plagiarism. Rather than submitting their own essays, they preferred to replicate literally what they thought to be the opinions of authoritative sources -- even though sometimes these sources might be not very academically commendable, as is the case of Wikipedia, amateur and personal websites, essay-writing aid service websites, blogs, etc. Actually, it has been one of the most recurrent complaints among newcomer students over the years that there are no textbooks for these courses. They claim they cannot find suitable essays and commentaries on the specific excerpts included in the course anthologies that they could in turn use as models to memorize and reproduce. This is a sad consequence of their lack of training in the production of independent thinking-based text in English, and so it takes time to orient them towards developing their English writing skills and trusting their own critical aptitudes to produce academic material of their own authorship.

Although, in most cases, negative beliefs about their critical writing skills changed gradually through the term, the process of adaptation involved a substantial effort on the students' part, and this no doubt affected their perspectives on English Studies as an academic area. On a positive note, answers to item 14 of the questionnaire, where stakeholders could add opinions freely, stressed that even though developing critical skills in academic English was the most arduous part of the training, they felt the global

experience of the courses had endowed them with new metacognitive abilities, and that by the second term of Estudios Culturales their anxiety levels had decreased. Finally, the analysis of students' responses to the dynamics and procedures of individual study expresses that they did not confront significant difficulties with independent learning in English once they got used to EMI. The results demonstrate that they could manage both contents and language-related issues.

This relates to the students' own sense of accomplishment concerning the learning goals set for the Estudios Culturales courses: to gain the background knowledge to address complex contents in their original language, being attentive to the nuances of cultural analysis, and to be able to engage with them critically. In this regard, 1 of the interviewed remarked that taking the two Estudios Culturales courses had made her aware that "there are no neutral texts" in the rendering of history, and that therefore "one must be careful when assessing those texts in the present." A second participant informed she felt now comfortable with her language and critical skills to "make sense of the texts in their context," as she had found out that being trained in the techniques of close reading had "helped her detect that the authors' approaches could be biased by their political, religious, class or gender prejudices." The comments volunteered by students in response to item 14 of the questionnaire also stressed that at the end of the school year they felt intellectually equipped to assess the texts' discourses on controversial topics such as nationalism, colonialism, imperialism, ethnocentrism, racism, migration, and other cultural constructions.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

From the very start, the students taking the two Estudios Culturales courses were well aware that the teaching of the English language was not the proper objective of these classes, but they were all the same conscious of the advanced level of proficiency in English necessary for attaining the learning goals. In the first two weeks of the Estudios Culturales I, first-years reported they had detected a considerable gap between the language competences they had acquired at their secondary education stage and what they understood was the adequate background to specialize in English Studies. The results of the research conducted show that after two semesters of consistently

resorting to EMI teaching strategies, both face-to-face and online, and thanks to the use of course materials in the target language, the group's average academic skills advanced considerably. The comparison of the final grades reports that 72% passed Estudios Culturales I, whereas 86% completed Estudios Culturales II successfully. This corroborates the widely spread idea that success in EMI programs largely depends on the accumulative effect of the individual's exposure to the instruction in the foreign language. It is observable that in the study case presented, reading comprehension skills develop less in comparison to writing abilities, but the massive reading had a very positive impact on students' own writing, as they learnt appropriate vocabulary and interiorized the formal structure of expository texts. Consequently, the quality of the essays they submitted for Estudios Culturales II was noticeably better than their first attempts in Estudios Culturales I. Actually, some of the informants interviewed declared that they had mixed feelings on this question; for 3 of them the experience had been "rewarding in the end," even though during the first semester of Estudios Culturales they had doubts about the effectiveness of the methodology; on the contrary, the other 3 informants declared that from the beginning they understood that although EMI total immersion was demanding for them, it was the only way to "not repeat the failed methodology of the English classes in secondary education." This confirms that newcomer undergraduates trained with EMI pedagogy develop metacognitive skills and gain ownership on their own education process.

First-year undergraduates in English Studies are unsure of their proficiency with EMI, and so motivating and triggering learners to use the language creatively is crucial. As this study case shows, and due to the special metalinguistic nature of the English Studies program, enhancing their written production skills is considered by students as the most challenging aspect of their training. A widely spread feeling of insecurity emerges from being compelled to perform learning tasks in a language they do not master yet. In the case of English Cultural Studies, learners can be quite reluctant to depart from the authoritative interpretation of literary and historical works they can consult in manuals because they do not trust their own hermeneutic skills, which in turn are impeded by the trainees' self-perceived limited proficiency in academic English. Some suggestions for improvement can be made in this respect. Thus, it would be advisable to offer beginners more hours of total language immersion. Further, these learners would also

greatly benefit from the implementation of academic writing workshops and seminars in the earliest stages of English Studies programs. These could give the less proficient students a much-needed language support by working in parallel to the core content-specific subject courses. For instance, by taking advantage of the ICT it would be possible to offer them tutorials and webinars that could be taken at one's own pace; additionally, receiving aid from the so-called "writing labs" consulting services for academic writing, after the fashion of the ones functioning in foreign campuses, could be an advantageous resource to upgrade their academic communicative competences.

The feedback this study case provided will no doubt contribute to reorient those EMI class strategies that proved insufficient to meet beginner students' learning challenges and educational needs in the future. The information gathered has been very valuable to understand the learning scenario of Spanish universities, and to detect the flaws in the training programs that, despite the long tradition of using EMI for English Studies, still need to be addressed.

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Tertiary Education Learning Outcomes, a Case Study: “You want us to think!”

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ABSTRACT

Present perceptions about the poor production of university students in the last decades might be the same other professors had in previous centuries. Nonetheless, more corseting forms of assessment and the irruption of new technologies can establish a difference. These factors serve the controversy when blamed for preventing intellectual development, or when also considering that ICTs are the personal mark of new generations of youths who face their outdated dinosaur teachers. The purpose of this paper is to provide a tentative case analysis of the situation to validate what seems a generalized perception of the decay of tertiary education. Our data will be obtained from answers that students of the third year of a Humanities English degree could not provide. In our approach we will consider the difficulties students have in reaching the highest levels of taxonomies like Bloom’s (1956) or Dreyfus & Dreyfus (1980) with their further modifications. Collaterally we will tackle key competences and forms of assessment. Results induce us to the dichotomy of maintaining the present progression or, alternatively, encouraging all to *think* again and take some action.

Keywords: *Students’ production; ICTs; learning taxonomies; competences; education.*

I. INTRODUCTION

The generation gap has often been used to justify the adverse perception many educators have about their students, especially in higher educational levels. Opinions about youths' lack of values, laziness or reduced intellectual capacities are recurrent since ancient times. But new technologies have actually altered the scenario with their controverted use: some consider them the cause of all harms and others, instead, see them as the representative skills of new generations opposed to outdated teachers who need to be retired, or rather removed from the educational field. Converting these opinions in facts is the first obstacle to provide solutions when needed.

The purpose of this paper is to tentatively initiate an analysis from the areas of Humanities and show with data the difficulties students have in their learning process. Most of the taxonomies of skill acquisition, learning outcomes, from Bloom's (1956), Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1980), and Miller's (1990) to their consequent emendations and additions, have been further applied to hard sciences and their experimental application, not usually extrapolated to other areas like History or Linguistics. Possibly, it is assumed that soft sciences/Humanities deal with "facts" learnt by heart and which now can be found on the internet. Nevertheless, the exclusion of Humanities from taxonomies was not intended in their initial proposals, nor the limitation of the steps reached in these fields of knowledge. For our cause, these taxonomies might help precisely to determine the level reached by learners involved in these areas of knowledge.

Discourse analysis can also be of assistance when discussing the assessment questions that students have to face, considering the possibility of misunderstandings, or complete lack of understanding, in questions that try to measure the higher levels of the taxonomies. Recently, articles like Breeze and Dafouz's (2017) have studied discourse functions and students' answers in the final exams of a compulsory course in "Consumer Behaviour" within a Business Administration (BA) degree. In this case the course had been taught both in English and Spanish what allowed for further comparison. It seems plausible that the use of English as medium of instruction could be a determinant factor for the success or failure of students and that is something we will also contemplate in this article.

In the following sections we will approach the consideration taxonomies, competences and subject matter have in higher education. Next, we will provide the results obtained from students' assessment, discuss them in the light of the second section to finally conclude with possible proposals for improvement if they are deemed necessary.

II. TAXONOMIES

Several taxonomies to measure skills development and learning outcomes (Bloom, 1956; Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1980; Miller, 1990) have been developed, reviewed, adapted, mixed (Basu, 2020) with the aim of making them more specific. These, together with the competences assessment, form part not only of the Primary and Secondary education but also of its Tertiary level. Nevertheless, the fact that they appear in the programmes and evaluation systems does not mean that they are fully accepted or completely integrated in the Superior education.

Taxonomies are used more frequently in hard sciences and clinical studies, some universities indicate on their websites the one they use more widely (Karolinska Institutet, University at Buffalo, Vanderbilt University), but as it occurs with other "education frames" there seems to be an underlying assumption that certain disciplines have more applicability than others and frames function better on them. In the conclusions to their article on Community of Inquiry framework Arbaugh, et al. (2010) state:

The Col's assumption of a constructivist approach to teaching and learning may not align with **the cumulative, instructor oriented approaches** particularly associated with hard, pure disciplines [...] the framework may be more appropriate for disciplines such as education, health care, and business (p. 43, our emphasis).

In our opinion, if a Community of Inquiry is defined as "a group of individuals who collaboratively engage in purposeful critical discourse and reflection to construct personal meaning and confirm mutual understanding" (*Col Framework*) no discipline should be excludedⁱ. Within the Humanities, some areas of expertise are seen, from an external and internal point of view, as "cumulative, instructor oriented". Many lecturers assume their work is precisely that, to lecture, while learners also assume a passive role and they only receive processed information. Bloom's initial taxonomy (1956, p. 18)

based on the six categories: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation, was not limited to specific areas of learning, using for exemplification subjects like history, literature and music. On the other hand, while more than fifty years ago Bloom devoted pages to explain what "knowledge" could mean in his taxonomy it appears that in Humanities some still understand it as accumulating information. Thus, when in taxonomies or assessment by competences applied to Humanities the verbs "know" and "comprehend" are deployed, these are wrongly interpreted as storage of facts. As a consequence, some fields of learning (History, Philosophy, Literature...) are devaluated because storage is certainly better done by the web. Something different is the ability to search for the right content, select the adequate information, comprehend, apply, analyse...

The revision of Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) renamed the categories using verbs with the intention of making it more dynamic and therefore more representative of the cognitive process: remember, understand, apply, analyse, evaluate and create. Here, the knowledge dimension would vertebrate the cognitive process dimension (Krathwohl, 2002, p. 215). The pyramid appears to be basically the same but the question is in which level of it our students should stop. Do we see it really as a dynamic progression, or is it the case that depending on the field of study or the student itself we should be satisfied with the results of cramming and regurgitating information? As Tabrizi and Rideout (2017) recall:

The level of expertise is organized in terms of increasing complexity, such that higher levels of expertise involve more sophisticated measurement of student outcomes. For example, the low-level of 'remembering' can be measured through a simple multiple-choice test, but the higher-level of 'evaluating' would require longer written responses, presentations, or oral discussions in order to measure the outcomes (p. 3204)

Of course, this implies not only fostering active learning, as the authors indicate, but also providing adequate feedback. In the case of subjects which use EMI (English as a Medium of Instruction), this feedback should apprehend the use of English as it should do with any other means of expression that intervenes in the student's production. The results obtained from an enquiry made to a large sample of Spanish and Italian students by Doiz et al. (2020, p. 76 and p. 82) revealed how a 59.3% disengage content-matter

from EMI and consider use of English should not form part of evaluation, an opinion that seems to be shared by lecturers. Nonetheless, the authors believe:

it is critical that decision-makers at the university establish and define language-learning objectives as part of the goals of EMI. Moreover, it is also their responsibility to provide the blueprint with the advice of experts on the field, and to allocate the means to allow the fulfilment of the objectives (Doiz et al. 2020, p. 82).

Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1980) taxonomy was devised primarily for flight instruction, but again the authors used also examples of language learning or chess. They consider five mental stages that lead to skill acquisition, stages of: novice, competence, proficiency, expertise and mastery. For them practice and experience are the only paths to achieve mastery:

Rather than adopting the currently accepted Piagetian view that proficiency increases as one moves from the concrete to the abstract, we argue that skill in its minimal form is produced by following abstract formal rules, but that only experience with concrete cases can account for higher levels of performance (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1980, p. 5).

As in the case of Bloom, this taxonomy has been reconsidered by their authors (Dreyfus, SE., 2014), combined between them (Christie, 2012) or somehow become the base of other taxonomies. Miller's taxonomy (1990) relates the different levels of knowledge with mental stages and forms of assessment adequate in each case; Biggs and Collins' SOLO, Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome, (1982), proposes a similar development verbalizing the possible performance of learners as their outcomes become more complex.

More taxonomies have been developed trying to adjust to outcomes, competences, standards, and all the pedagogical terminology that tries to describe the main objective any committed teacher has: to ensure students make the most of their learning.

III. CASE STUDY

For our objective we have considered questions posed in final exams of different callsⁱⁱ regarding the compulsory subject "History of the English Language" taught in the third year of English Studies, a degree of four years at a public university Humanities. All the

subjects in this degree are taught in English with the exception of some subjects in the first year. The data have been obtained from online exercises in the years of the pandemic (SARS-CoV-2, 2020-2021) but also compared with results/pass rates of previous years. The number of students per call could vary so percentages will be offered, though bearing in mind that the subject has more than one hundred students enrolled and more than ninety took the first call. In the online exams, students were explicitly allowed to consult notes, and it was assumed that they also had at their disposal the use of internet. Time to provide the answers, short answers between fifty and one hundred words, was restricted from ten to fifteen minutes to prevent cheating as far as possible. All this had been explained to the students before the date of the exams, indicating that they would be assessed through questions that concerned the understanding of the general theory and linguistic changes applied to words different from the ones used for practise in class though with the same type of exercise structure.

Another exercise considered, was one posed during the course and consisting in the collaborative compilation of a glossary. This would constitute a resource for all students since it would include terms related to the subject, mentioned in class or not, necessitating further reading to improve their knowledge. Each student was assigned a different term and had a week time to complete the task. The definition had to be uploaded to a glossary activity in the virtual classroom so that it would be accessible to all those enrolled. Precise instructions were provided and a first example already given to show not only format but also the type of source expected to be used. Adequate acknowledgment of the sources was a specific requirement and resources to produce them also facilitatedⁱⁱⁱ. At the end of each week the teacher provided feedback for each entry introducing commentaries for amendments, if necessary, with an extra week for the student to edit. Comments about the entries were also made in class.

Both, exam questions and glossary task, had the objective of evaluating the degree of evolution in the knowledge acquired by the student, from simply *remembering* to a maximum of *evaluating*, that is, from 1 to 5 in Bloom's taxonomy. Create was not expected in these particular tasks but could be assessed in the subject by other means such as textual commentaries.

For our analysis, we have concentrated in the questions where a high percentage of students failed to provide an adequate answer or any answer at all, that is, the mark obtained for the answer was zero on a scale from zero to ten.

The three different final exams students could take had the same structure, questions that aimed at showing medium-high levels in Bloom’s taxonomy and others that could prove the understanding of the subject matter. In relation to the degree, these students could not be considered absolute novices, but regarding the subject, although they had received in previous years instruction about English literature, phonetics and grammar, the point of view of Historical Linguistics was new for them.

Table 1 shows examples of the questions posed and the Cognitive Process Dimension/-s in Bloom’s taxonomy students were expected to reach to provide an adequate answer. In this column we also include the most relevant descriptors of each process as they appear in Krathwohl’s table of “Structure of the Cognitive Process Dimension of the Revised Taxonomy” (2002, p. 215).

Table 1. Exam questions and Cognitive Process implied.

Exam question	Cognitive Process
<p>1. Considering the adjectives and determinant, used in the second case, what do these Old English examples below illustrate? Justify your answer.</p> <p>O.E. Eald blind biscop (‘an old blind bishop’) // Se ealda blinda biscop (‘the old blind biscop’)</p> <p>In both examples “bishop” is in Nom. sg. and it is a masc. noun.</p>	<p>Apply</p> <p>Implementing</p> <p>Analyse</p> <p>Differentiating</p> <p>Organizing</p> <p>Attributing</p> <p>Evaluate</p>
<p>2. Describe the graphic and phonetic evolution of the following word from its O.E. period till Mod. English.</p> <p>O.E. <i>nacod</i> (adj.) > Mod. E. <i>naked</i> (adj.)</p>	<p>Understand</p> <p>Comparing</p> <p>Explaining</p> <p>Apply</p> <p>Implementing</p>
<p>3. Explain briefly two factors you consider contributed the most to the reestablishment of English as official language after the Norman Conquest.</p>	<p>Understand</p> <p>Recalling</p>

Question 1 expects the student to be capable of comparing the two sentences given both in O.E. and the Mod. E. translation; focus has already been established in the instruction: "considering adjectives and determinant". Factual knowledge learnt or the search for adjectives and determinant behaviour in O.E. with their declensions, (students were allowed to use their notes and documents provided in class) should permit them to implement the information and realize the examples illustrate the forms of definite and indefinite declensions of adjectives, differentiating their use when they appear with a determinant or not. Further evaluation could have led them to say this is a typical example but exceptions might be contemplated.

Question 2 requires the application of the most relevant graphic and phonetic changes, identify them in the words by means of comparison, describing/explaining the graphic processes (Norman spelling conventions) and implementing the phonetic rules learnt (e.g.: weakening of flexions, lengthening, Great Vowel Shift).

Question 3, responds to the base process of the taxonomy, recalling information, except that they are asked to select the information they want to provide: "two factors".

Figure 1 presents the results obtained in percentages for each of the three exams used in our analysis. Columns indicate failure (mark obtained = zero) in answering questions where the Cognitive Process Dimensions, apply-analyse, understand-apply and understand have more relevance.

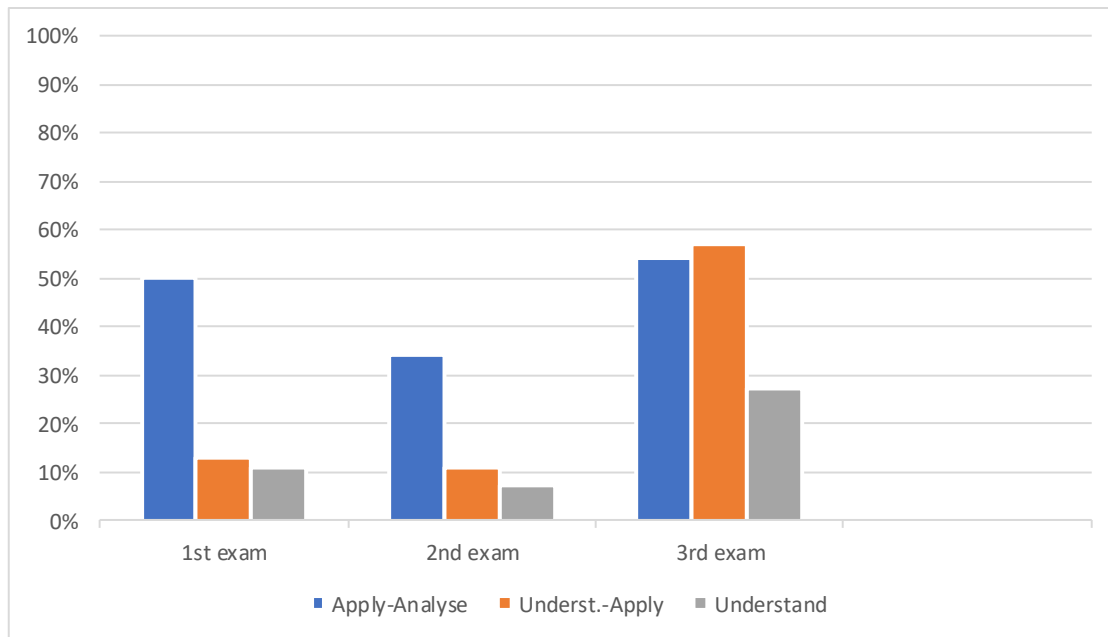


Figure 1: Rates of completely inadequate answer or no answer

As it can be appreciated, students present more problems to answer those questions which involve higher cognitive processes. Solving tasks where they are required to apply a previous acquired knowledge to analyse a case given, was in the first exam an impossible achievement for half of the students who took the exam; this percentage diminishes in the second exam taken by a different group of students, but it is still quite high. Finally, the third exam was taken by students who did not take or failed the previous exams. Rather than an expected improvement, after the possibility of specific feedback for the exam, attending office hours, etc, it can be noticed how the rates increase (dramatically, for a concerned teacher) in the three types of questions. Obviously, students who seat for the July's exam are those with previous problems but also with more experience when facing the subject matter and the exam's questions. Because *History of the English Language* is taught during the first semester, they have had the opportunity of attending office hours to ask for doubts or clarification, particularly, when due to COVID-19 restrictions these were arranged online and adapted to their individual timetable and personal needs; only up to a five per cent may have used this individualized service.

To have more even results, we also contemplated the case of the whole classroom doing the same tasks (same exercise, same question). Figures 2 and 3 present the

achievements of the Glossary compiled as a continuous evaluation exercise, taking into account only those students who did both tasks, the entry for the glossary and the question about that assigned entry.

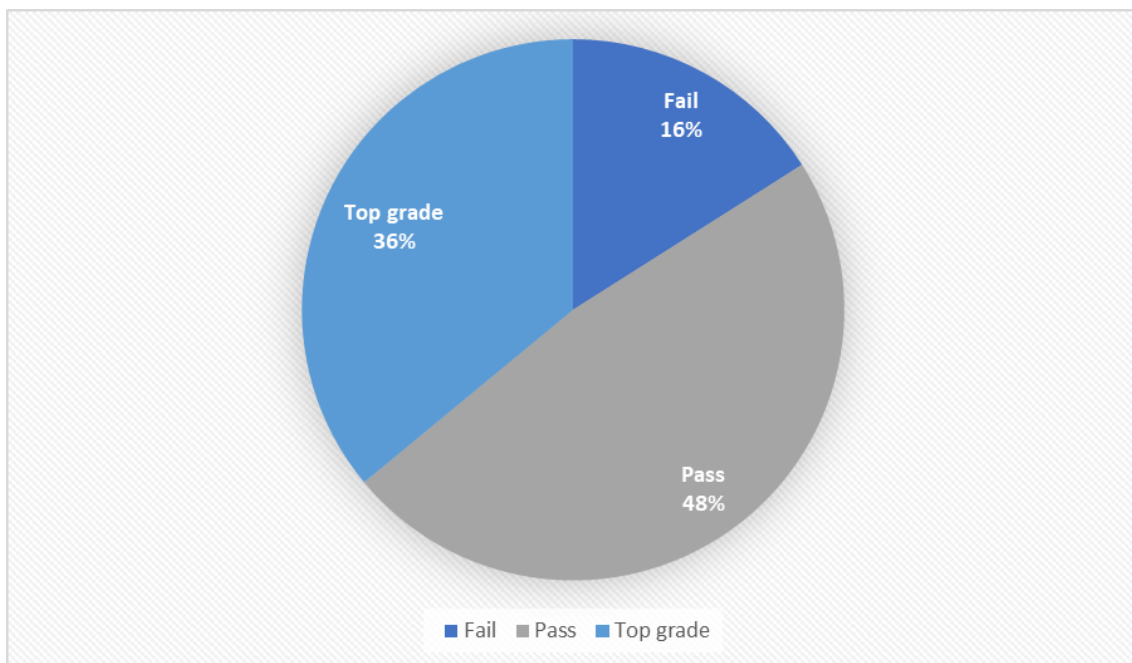


Figure 2: *Grades for glossary compilation*

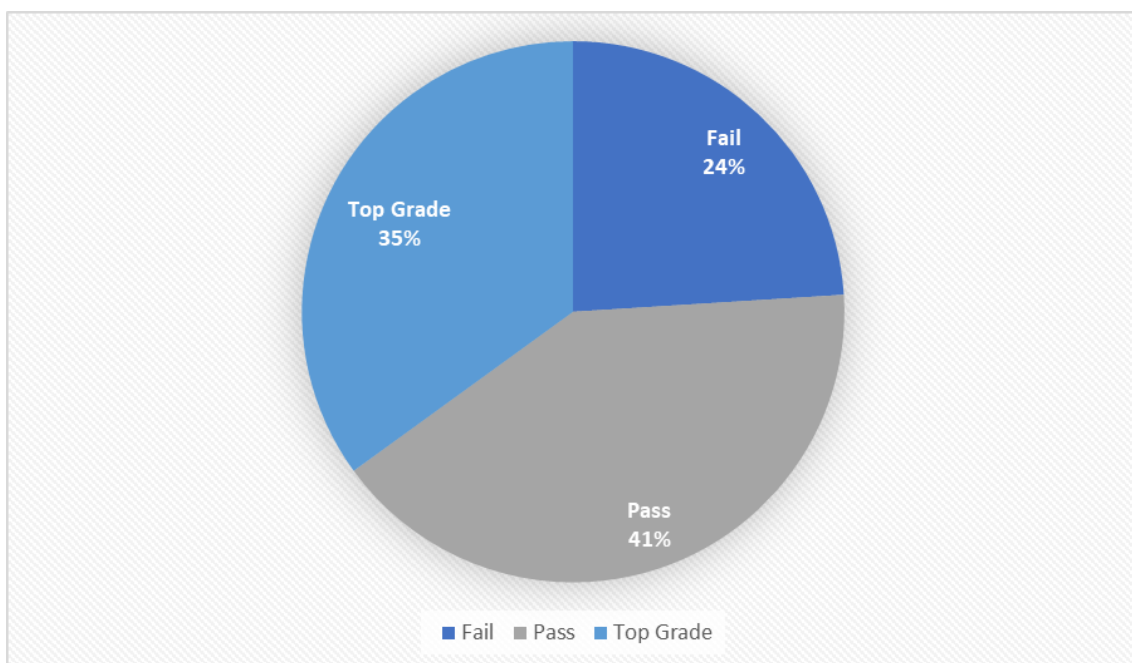


Figure 3: *Grades for glossary question.*

Figure 2 shows how most of the students pass this activity but only a thirty-six percent reach the highest mark. One of the requisites was to avoid the use of *Wikipedia* in favour of specialized manuals and other reliable sources, most of the students who obtained a pass simply substituted the “banned” encyclopaedia by the *Britannica* offering very basic definitions. Those who failed gave wrong definitions, did not make the amendments required or did not provide references.

When asked about the importance of the term within the History of English, a term they had supposedly researched and included in the glossary, it can be noticed that the rate of higher marks is just one point below the previous exercise but the number of students who fail increases in eight points, nearly a quarter of the classroom fails. Again, in a non-complex task like this, the difficulties in analysing and evaluating are made clear.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results indicate the difficulties students have correspond to the higher ranks of the taxonomies where they are required to process the information. Considering if this is a consequence of a poor command of the L2 language is a first premise in a degree with EMI but this does not seem to be supported by the tasks students can actually complete. It seems that identifying the focus of the question, its restriction and the instruction when this is not a simple “explain” or “describe” is a factor to ponder about. From the answers some students provide, it can be observed their reading halts in the topic: O.E., Norman Conquest, etc. but they ignore the focus, restrictions, and the instruction itself. It is only in the revision of the exam when they realize this misinterpretation: “I did not understand the question because I did not pay attention to...”. These reading problems can be transposed to their study and assessment habits. In questions where they should *understand and apply*, what most students actually do is “replicate”, they obviate the comparison of the terms given and search for a similar example done in class that might be superimposed. This, which could be understood as a positive comparative procedure, collapses when not being able to discriminate the elements that differ, reproducing the same written frame repeatedly for every exercise without a proper understanding of the changes concerned. Thus, staying at the lower levels of the cognitive processes does not

allow them to take advantage of the use of notes, charts, or other documents they may be allowed to deploy. These, if used, are only skimmed and scanned to find a ready-made answer for cut and paste. Similar findings to our case study are the ones experimented by Shultz and Zemke (2019) from the Chemical departments of the Universities of Michigan and Minnesota where EMI does not apply as a difficulty. In order to evaluate the development of Information Literacy Skills they recorded the procedures used by a group of upper-level chemistry majors trying to solve an inorganic chemistry problem. The tendency to "broad keyword search in Google" as a method revealed that:

This use of the superficial attributes of the [chemical] compound, "brown", "inorganic", was in keeping with the propensity of students to use Google as a method for expedient fact finding. This approach constitutes a direct search for solutions, rather than understanding the nature of the problem or planning how to solve it. (Shultz & Zemke, 2019, p. 622)

Additionally, the same problems were detected in the choice of search engines students preferred in the compilation of our glossary. Our students would even rely on blogs or other non-scientific databases. Data provided by Shultz and Zemke (2019) correspond to years previous to the pandemic, so this could not have affected their results. In our case, it is another factor to contemplate, since a large group of students received their lessons and did their exams online.

The percentage of students who do not take the first exam has been historically quite significant in this subject, reaching eventually a fifty percent; when the exam was online that rate of *NPs* (*no presentados*, those who do not dare to take the first exam) decreased to a nineteen percent. Clearly, students felt more confident being at home with the "support" of notes, internet and their groups of social networks available. What occurred here and in other educational levels and countries is summarized in the recent headline by Fregonara and Riva (2021) for *Il Corriere*: "Un anno in Dad^{iv}: più difficile imparare, più facile copiare. I prof: lezioni andate a vuoto". This same article states that two over three students believe the marks obtained would not have changed if the exams had been held in class, but they also consider that they have learnt less. It can be said that access to the technologies or connectivity affected primary and secondary educational levels to a greater extent than that of universities during the first lockdown^v.

Nevertheless, it is undeniable that the lack of a face to face instruction does not permit lecturers to reach students who usually go undetected; whereas silence in a *meet* session sounds deeper, also allows for some leaders in the class to feel less restrained to speak up their mind immediately, either by means of the microphone or the chat (the lecturer might control the *meet chat* but not the students' WhatsApp one) without allowing time for the rest, slower or more self-conscious learners, to process information and questioning. Although in a minor way, this affects the group which is induced to a state of laziness awaiting for the answer to be provided by the teacher or the "classmate" who is more daring but not necessarily the more prepared.

The rate of success in the first in-class, face-to-face, exam before the pandemic (Jan. 19-20) without notes or any other extra help, was of a twenty-nine percent; the rate for the online exam of January 20-21 was of a forty-one percent; those who failed rose from a twenty-two percent of the year 19-20 to a thirty-nine percent of 20-21. Overconfidence and a lack of proper preparation could have had an influence in this first exam but rates did not improve for those who had a second opportunity in July when only a twelve percent passed.

When asked for their opinion over the years, students do not usually complain about the interest of the subject, lectures or material provided, the recurrent problem they mention is that in order to pass this subject they are required: "to think" (sic). Providentially, this requirement is present in other subjects and levels from which teachers express, or used to express, their astonishment, since in the last decades this type of commentary uttered by secondary and university students has become more frequent. This mutual dissatisfaction becomes more apparent when they are assessed by means of something that is not a simple multiple-choice quiz.

The development of cognition skills requires more than minimalist questioning and it is obvious that something fails when exercises like compiling a glossary require a second part where students are asked to explain the importance of the term assigned within the subject. If students had achieved a satisfactory maturity, they would have included such importance in the definition itself, but most students did not. Inquiry-Based Learning and Problem-Based Learning (Savery, 2015) can be used, have also been used

in Humanities, to develop critical, evaluative capacities. Perhaps this strategy is somehow being left behind and should be retaken.

The problem we are confronting is not that of having acquired the subject matter of Chemistry, Linguistics, History, Infirmary or any other specialization, the problem lies on the person's capacity of thinking, pondering on any real problem they may face in their professional life, in their lives.

Learning and assessment by competencies initially tackled this issue. The key competencies as set in the European Reference Framework (European Parliament 2006, L 394/14) are all interrelated, indicating that: "critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem solving, risk assessment, decision taking, and constructive management of feelings play a role in all eight key competences." In Bloom's taxonomy, although there is emphasis in the order of the categories there is also interrelation. Compartmentalizing the different aspects of learning might end in a "non-learning to learn". Not only this, but also the isolation of different axes of the process can lead to undesirable results. If to assess the Digital competence of a student we concentrate only in the fact that he/she was able to upload something but we do not incorporate the quality of how and what was uploaded, we might be fostering stand-still learners always at the bottom of the taxonomy. If those are the type of European citizens we want to adapt to the economic needs of a globalized world, we (unfortunately for many) are on the right road. The statements of Hirtt (2010, p.108) who considered OECD educational policies a failure that would continue to this day only concerned with maintaining a cheap labour market, would then become true:

Esta evolución del mercado laboral ilustra claramente el discurso dominante sobre la "sociedad del conocimiento". Y esto tiene consecuencias radicales para las políticas educativas. La OCDE (2001) se ve obligada a reconocer cínicamente que "todos no estudiarán una carrera en el dinámico sector de la "nueva economía" – de hecho la mayoría no lo harán- de manera que los programas escolares no pueden ser concebidos como si todos debieran llegar lejos" (Hirtt, 2010, p. 108)

If, on the other hand, the objective is to integrate and promote a learning that is not exclusive, only granted to a minority, something has to change.

The frustration felt by students is also felt by teachers who are likewise evaluated in terms of the rates of their success. So, either if the instructor knows much about TICs or not, a multiple-choice quiz is a handy tool that seems more objective, does not allow for many complaints and renders fast, good results. In terms of feedback, if any, with this type of exercise the learner usually receives, once more, a prefabricated fact. It is not a matter of demonizing neither new technologies nor competences but making a better use of them. From our results it can be appreciated that many students are left behind, those students need proper feedback to improve their results. "Learning to learn" is not absolute autonomous learning in terms of uploading tasks whose finality is to be stored in the teacher's cloud: "This competence means gaining, processing and assimilating new knowledge and skills as well as seeking and making use of guidance." (European Parliament 2006, L 394/16). Many of those who reach the Tertiary level of education have not achieved this key competence and they are not even capable of seeking and making use of guidance, all they are accustomed to is to copy word by word the "right" answer. On the other hand, many of those involved in public education have a rate of students per class that does not allow for proper tutoring of those in need and willing to advance.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This case study had as its main objective delimit the difficulties a group of university students had in their learning process. We believe that this case can be extrapolated to other subjects and degrees and thus enlarged to compare the results obtained. Suggestions from previous literature and shared knowledge would prove real if findings are similar.

The assumption that the market does not need people capable of thinking is the worst omen possible, then, taxonomies, competences, standards and all the pedagogical terminology would exist only for classification of cheap and "qualified" labour.

The survival of critical thinking in Tertiary education requires a holistic approach, including the previous levels of schooling, with a strong commitment by all the concerned educational assets, starting by those who are the real instructors. It compels

the improvement of reading with real, not pretended, discussion to produce not just regurgitate; implementing the original taxonomies without leaving behind any category or axis. The use of new technologies to the advantage of teachers and students means the improvement of real learning that allows for comparison, discrimination and evaluation of sources. Particularly, in the field of Humanities Inquiry-Based Learning and Problem-Based Learning have to be retaken, they are not exclusive of the "other" sciences. Additionally, promoting and allowing for feedback does not imply the learner is not autonomous, it is a form of validating his/her findings, the basis of science.

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Notes

ⁱ The authors distinguish two axes: a vertical one of Pure and Applied disciplines (depending on its degree of applicability) and a horizontal one corresponding to Hard and Soft connected with the "level of paradigm development" (2010, p. 44). For further clarification see Neumann (2001).

ⁱⁱ Students can take three exams during the academic year in order to pass a subject. One at the end of the semester, where they can choose between two different dates, a second one before the summer holidays and a third one in September. Students have six opportunities, plus an extraordinary one, in total to pass a subject.

ⁱⁱⁱ During the second year of the degree, students have "Academic Writing" as a compulsory subject, which includes learning how to avoid plagiarism and compile a proper reference list". The resources provided were thought to be a reminder.

^{iv} In Italian *Dad* stands for "didattica a distanza".

^v During the first lockdown, the Universidad de La Laguna provided students in need with laptops and internet connectivity: "La ULL presta 375 ordenadores, 390 conexiones a internet y 48 webcams a su alumnado en su proyecto "Brecha Digital" <https://www.ull.es/portal/noticias/2020/ull-prestamos-brecha-digital/>

Book review

Teaching Language and Content in Multicultural and Multilingual Classrooms CLIL and EMI Approaches.

Carrió-Pastor, M.L. & Bellés-Fortuño, B. (Eds.)

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It is not surprising that there is a clear interest in specialised English language teaching at a time when academia needs to evidence its strong connection to social practices and internationalization (Carrió-Pastor, 2019, 2020). This is a timely book, both in scope and usefulness. The contents are organised in such a way as to allow an understanding of methodological practices, firstly by establishing the difference between CLIL, i.e. Content and Language Integrated Learning, and EMI, i.e. English as a Medium of Instruction. In principle, these two terms refer to clear concepts, but in practice the distinction does not always seem to be so apparent. In fact, this book succeeds in providing a theoretical stance and examples to illustrate and clarify these approaches. The usefulness of this Palgrave volume for language professionals, namely teachers, researchers and newcomers, is easy to foresee.

The book has been edited by María Luisa Carrió-Pastor and Begoña Bellés-Fortuño with recognised experience in teaching and researching English as an L2 language, which gives them a clear vision of the needs and problems in this field. This excellent command is evident in the selection of content and its organisation. These are divided into three sections, namely Part I CLIL and EMI, Part II English as a medium of instruction and Part

III Content and language integrated learning, besides the 'Introduction' written by Begoña Bellés-Fortuño. This 'Introduction' presents the main objective of the book, i.e. to offer research and examples concerning CLIL and EMI methodologies, and a description of the contents into the three parts already mentioned. These parts are unevenly distributed, with Part I containing only two chapters, while the other two have five and six chapters respectively, although the last chapter is Carrió-Pastor's recapitulation of the main achievements outlined in each of the chapters: i.e. 'CLIL vs EMI: Different Approaches or the Same Dog with a Different Collar?'. This last chapter also explains the diagnostic value of research on EMI and CLIL in order to see whether these two approaches are distinctively applied in specific teaching situations following explicit institutional language policies.

The other chapter following Carrió-Pastor's in Part I is "How Do I Find the Limit?": Risk Management in EMI and CLIL at University' by Monika Wózniak and Fiona Crean goes a step forward to "investigate the nature of risk management in CLIL/EMI degree programmes at a university in Spain" (p. 53), and they discuss how educators face these risks in order to integrate these methodologies to their particular educational settings.

Within Part II, 'English as a Medium of Instruction. EMI Lecturers' and Students' Perceptions: Can EMI Contribute to Enhancing Intercultural Competence?' by Marta Aguilar-Pérez relates "EMI, intercultural competence and internationalization" in order to evaluate how an EMI approach may benefit the students' intercultural competence. Following is the chapter by Anna Krulatz, namely 'Focus on Language in CBI: How Teacher Trainees Work with Language Objectives and Language-Focused Activities in Content-Based Lessons'. This text reports on how language remains a central feature of content-based instruction (CBI) programmes, and this includes especially the language level of educators, as content-based instructors must necessarily have a proficient command of the language besides other skills in order to face successfully the activities related to CBI.

The subsequent chapter by Niall Curry and Pascual Pérez-Paredes, i.e. 'Understanding Lecturers' Practices and Processes: A Qualitative Investigation of English-Medium Education in a Spanish Multilingual University' represents a case study focusing on a

Spanish university setting in order to see the way in which the internationalization process takes place following the ROADMAPPING framework in Dafouz and Smit (2016 and 2020). In the following chapter, i.e. The Challenges of EMI Courses in Armenian Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), Zhenya Ter-Vardanyan explains the situation of using EMI practices for teaching specialised contents within the context of higher education in Armenia. The last chapter in this Part is 'Improving Second Language Writing Across the Disciplines: Resources for Content Teachers'. Written by Renia López-Oziblo describes the use of English as a medium of instruction in Honk Kong at a tertiary level in the context of the T&L project (teaching & learning project).

Part III, namely Content and Language Integrated Learning, starts off with the chapter by Josep Ballester-Roca and Camilla Spaliviero, i.e. 'CLIL and Literary Education: Teaching Foreign Languages and Literature from an Intercultural Perspective—The Results of a Case Study'. This chapter considers and evaluates the methodological practices of teaching literature with a focus on interculturality. In the following chapter, 'Meta-CLIL: When Methodology and Aim Meet in Initial Teacher Training', Anna Marzà explores the meta-approach to CLIL for primary educational settings in the region of Valencia in Spain. The author specifically works with data obtained from students enrolled in the course entitled 'English Language Teaching for Early Education' at the Jaume I University. Following to this, Begoña Bellés-Fortuño's chapter, 'CLIL Assessment: Accommodating the Curricular Design in HE' provides information on "a CLIL teaching model applied to the Computer Science classroom at a Spanish university based on the dual focus approach and a team-teaching model" (p. 295).

The two following chapters in this Part are 'Essential Framework for Planning CLIL Lessons and Teachers' Attitudes Toward the Methodology' written by Francisco J. Álvarez-Gil, and 'Thinking Skills in Exam Models for CLIL Primary Subjects: Some Reflections for Teachers' written by María Ángeles Martín-del Pozo and Débora Rascón-Estébanez. In the first of these, Álvarez-Gil focuses on teacher training in CLIL contexts at primary education, as the author believes that the institutional training offered to texts at this educational level may not be sufficient to be able to plan and develop content-based courses. In the second, Martín-del Pozo and Rascón-Estébanez analyse the summative evaluation of concepts in CLIL courses in primary education and the

challenges it represents, as educators must be aware of the importance of language in understanding, practice, learning and reflecting on the new concepts being taught in the L2.

As my words in the introductory paragraphs might have already suggested, my opinion of this volume is definitely very positive, as the book really reveals a theoretical stance in relation to the notions of CLIL and EMI, as well as practical information which may be useful to encourage further personal reflections on the issues, or simply to illustrate particular cases of EMI and CLIL courses. The evidence used in this book is international in scope, though only from countries in Europe (Spain, Italy, Armenia...) and from Hong Kong, and this could be seen as a potential drawback. However, this volume can be seen as a solid precedent for other works in the area that collectively offer a more global perspective by complementing this book, even if string accounts of CLIL and EMI with an international scope are already available (cf. Bowles & Murphy 2020) Another aspect that I want to develop a little further here is the organisation of the chapters in this book. While I can see the editors' possible reasons for their current order, I personally would have opted for a different distribution of the texts, especially in the case of Part III. My view is that an organisation based on topic relatedness should have been pursued and therefore the university courses for teaching CLIL at primary level should have followed the examples focusing on the use of CLIL practices in primary education. As they now stand, Part III offers first a text on secondary education, followed by one on primary teacher education and this chapter by one documenting a particular CLIL practice in a university course in engineering. The latter text precedes the two chapters on the use of CLIL procedures in primary education described earlier. That said, the current organisation does not detract from the quality of the volume as a whole.

I am sure that readers, both experts and potential newcomers to the field, may find this book interesting and useful in many respects. From a theoretical point of view, readers will find excellent definitions of the concepts of EMI and CLIL, and this is complemented by further development of particular aspects of EMI and CLIL methodologies, e.g. assessment. From a practical point of view, the volume provides significant evidence of actual experiences using EMI and CLIL methodologies.

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