Content and Language Integrated Learning in the pathway sector: Developing teacher language awareness through reflective practice

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Abstract

This practitioner-led study was undertaken at a UK institution providing Higher Education (HE) preparation ("pathway") courses for international students. It explored the extent to which subject teachers' language awareness (TLA) developed during a workshop series informed by Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and based on the principles of dialogic, data-led reflective practice (RP) (Mann and Walsh, 2017). The study consisted of two phases: phase I examined participants' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study; phase II was concerned with participants' TLA development during the activity.

The thesis starts by linking the emergence of pathway courses to the HE internationalisation agenda. The literature review discusses the main pedagogical and theoretical concepts underpinning the study, CLIL, TLA and RP. A pragmatist perspective guides the methodological decision-making. A transparent account justifying the choice of data collection methods (focus groups, interviews, lesson/workshops observations, survey) is provided and the steps in the thematic analysis are explained.

The phase I findings confirmed the assumption that pathway teachers could potentially benefit from TLA development as participants' observed teaching approaches and classroom interactional management were not equally conducive in encouraging the kind of language learning and academic adaptation teachers sought to encourage in their students. Thus, context-relevant TLA development foci were established for the CLIL-RP activity. Phase II found that the development of participants' TLA was individualised, fragmented and limited to those areas most obviously relevant to subject teaching.

The discussion offered explanations for the observed findings: teachers' varied backgrounds and experiences as well as their customary identities as subject teachers seemed to impact on their TLA development. It was also acknowledged that other factors – the institutional context, short-term nature of the activity, workshop design and handling of the discussions by the researcher/facilitator – had limited the opportunities for deeper reflection and hence influenced the participants' TLA development. It is proposed that more long-term, interdisciplinary and institution-wide collaboration between pathway centres and their partner universities is necessary to create a shared vision of pedagogical practice and professional learning.

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List of Abbreviations

BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Linguistic Proficiency
CBI	Content-based Instruction
CELTA	Certificate of English Language Teaching Abroad
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EMEMUS	English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings
EMI	English-Medium Instruction
FG.3	Focus Group 3 (at the end of the workshop series)
HE	Higher Education
ICLHE	Integration of Content and Language in Higher Education
IRF	Initiation-Response-Feedback
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LKCT	Language Knowledge for Content Teachers
M&O	Management and Organisation
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
QM	Quantitative Methods
RP	Reflective Practice
SETT	Self-evaluation of teacher talk
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SR	Stimulated Recall
SRS	Study and Research Skills
TLA	Teacher Language Awareness
WS	Workshop

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Scope and nature of the study

This thesis reports on a practitioner-led research project I undertook at my former workplace, a UK pathway centre offering university preparation courses for international students. The origins of the study go back to 2011 when the centre staff were encouraged to adopt 'Content and Language Integrated Learning' (CLIL) as their teaching strategy. This educational approach and research field is concerned with the learning and teaching of academic content in a language "other than that normally used" by the students (European Commission for Multilingualism, 2013). Based on the assumption that subject teachers in such settings need a high level of teacher language awareness (TLA), I designed and conducted a reflective practice (RP) teacher development activity aimed at providing a group of my colleagues with relevant language-related knowledge and teaching skills.

Although the study thus originated as a local initiative, it is relevant to the wider CLIL research field and pathway community. Despite calls in the literature to enhance subject teachers' TLA (e.g. Morton, 2012; Martin del Pozo, 2016; Marsh et al., 2012; Macaro et al., 2018: 67) and to base TLA development activities on RP (e.g. Morton, 2012: 291; Costa, 2012: 43), there are very few studies investigating how this can be done in practice (e.g. Escobar, 2013; He and Lin, 2018), and, to my knowledge, none that address this in the pathway sector, where investigations into professional development are generally lacking (Winkle, 2014: 243). Thus, this study seeks to address an important gap in both CLIL and pathway research. As a rare example of practitioner-led research in CLIL (Lin, 2016: 186) it can not only contribute to the academic discussions surrounding CLIL TLA development in general, but also specifically offer pathway professionals practical guidance for the design of similar activities in the future.

Before turning to the background, rationale and aims of this study in greater detail, it is important to note that, against academic tradition, I have adopted a personal writing style (including the use of personal pronouns) to highlight my role as practitioner-researcher and to emphasise the nature of this study as a reflective inquiry.

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1.2 Background: Internationalisation of Higher Education and the emergence of the pathway sector

The pathway sector, which provides this study's setting, is a recent addition to the educational landscape and has evolved in response to the challenges posed by the Higher Education (HE) internationalisation agenda (Brett and Pitman, 2018; Manning, 2018: 246; THE, 2014; Clark and Gzella, 2013). With a reduction in public funding and the demands of a globally mobile student population, universities world-wide face the pressure of recruiting more and more international students (Manning, 2018: 246; De Vita and Case, 2003; Turner and Robson, 2008). With 442,375 'foreign' students currently enrolled at British universities, the UK is the second most popular destination for international students, topped only by the US (Halman, 2015; UKCISA, 2018). However, competition is fierce and dependent on political and economic factors, particularly as other countries, for example Germany, France, Canada and Australia, are equally trying to attract the most able students (Halman, 2015; Rahilly and Hudson, 2018: 15). Yet recruitment is only part of the challenge; integration of an internationally diverse student body is of equal importance as differing educational experiences and variable English skills can impact negatively on students' cultural adaptation and academic performance and thus on the quality of learning at the institution overall (Kelly and Moogan, 2012; Lozano and Strotmann, 2015: 848). More and more universities have responded to these challenges by offering preparation courses to attract more students and help with cultural, academic and linguistic adaptation.

While such preparation courses come under different names and in various forms – such as foundation, bridging or enabling programmes (Agosti and Bernat, 2018a: 4; Biesheuvel et al., 2015: 6; Clark and Gzella, 2013) – I use the term 'pathway' as it not only commonly includes both undergraduate and postgraduate preparation programmes, but also those that are integrated into the first year of regular degrees (Manning, 2018; Studyportals and Cambridge English, 2016).

Unlike 'traditional' study support for international students, which usually consists of pre- or in-sessional English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes, pathways offer more than just language tuition. They include study and research skills training, introductory culture classes and discipline-specific instruction tailored towards degree-level study. Thus, they are particularly attractive for students who do not meet the universities' English language and/or academic entry criteria and who need extra time (up to a year, depending on the course) to enhance their knowledge and skills.

On successful pathway completion, many universities offer students guaranteed places on degree courses. Pathways therefore have the potential to help universities recruit from a wider pool of students and to ensure that those who pass the course are academically, linguistically and culturally ready and able to pursue their studies alongside home and direct-entry international students (Agosti and Bernat, 2018a: 5; THE, 2014).

Interestingly, not all universities offer pathway programmes in-house. Many have outsourced such provision to private enterprises whose courses they endorse and/or oversee, thereby forming public-private partnerships with varying degrees of academic collaboration (THE, 2014; Clark and Gzella, 2013; Baker, 2011). This has not been without controversy. While there are apparent benefits for universities – particularly the ease of recruitment and greater diversification of the student body through the private partners' recruitment networks, as well as a diminished financial risk and growing income stream through collaboration (Manning, 2018: 254; Rahilly and Hudson, 2018) – critics question to what extent academic integrity can be ensured in a commercial environment. Fears that recruitment numbers and associated fee income might be valued higher than students' academic readiness are paired with concerns over the lowering of academic standards and de-professionalisation of teachers. Tensions are particularly felt at the grassroot level, where teachers are apprehensive about the impact of the internationalisation agenda and the neo-liberal marketisation of HE in general, and the recruitment of students with insufficient language skills in particular (Krantz, 2017; Ding and Bruce, 2017; Redden, 2014, 2010; Winkle, 2014; Baker, 2011; Ansell, 2008; Fulcher, 2007).

Such concerns, however, have not diminished the growth of the sector. It is difficult to estimate the total number of pathways that exist, but a recent report found that about half of the 2,275 programmes included in the world-wide study were provided by corporations and only 32.5% by universities themselves (Studyportals and Cambridge English, 2016: 11). In the UK, which has the highest representation of pathway programmes globally (42% of all provision is based here), the private market is dominated by such companies as the Cambridge Education Group, Study Group, INTO University Partnerships, Kaplan International Colleges and Navitas (ibid.: 10f.; THE, 2014). In 2014 these five providers alone taught 15,400 students in the UK (THE, 2014). There are no statistics monitoring the total student intake – Manning (2018: 247) refers to "guesswork" – but given the sector has continually grown both in terms of university-run and private provision, the current number of UK

pathway students is likely to be much higher. In 2015, the market was estimated at US$825 million per year (Biesheuvel et al., 2015: 2), with growth expected in the US and continental Europe (ibid.: 11). For UK pathways, such predictions mean potentially fiercer competition at a time when Brexit and restrictive immigration policies might further impact on the attractiveness of the UK for international students (Marginson, 2017; Conlon et al., 2017).

1.3 Learning and teaching in the pathway sector: The implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Considering the number of pathway students and the financial and reputational stakes involved for universities, it is surprising how long it has taken for the academic community to show interest in this area. For a long time in the UK, pathway-related research was mainly driven by practitioners and published in one sector-specific publication, *InForm*. Although academic interest seems to have recently grown (e.g. Teo and Arkoudis, 2019; Agosti and Bernat, 2018b; Winkle, 2014) more work is needed, particularly with regards to pathway pedagogy, as learners and teachers in those settings face different challenges from students and lecturers on ordinary HE courses. Although pathway students usually have lower English skills than direct-entry students, they are still required to study discipline-specific topics and are faced with authentic academic discourse. Thus, they are under pressure to improve their academic and/or general English skills to pass the language requirement needed for degree-level study, while at the same time acquiring complex subject-specific knowledge through using English as the medium of instruction. For teachers – especially those working on the academic side of the pathway – this is equally challenging as it is their responsibility to ensure subject knowledge is acquired despite students' limited linguistic abilities, to actively support the development of discipline-specific language skills and to familiarise students with the new academic culture. However, unlike their English language colleagues who can draw on established EAP pedagogy and research, pathway content teachers have little guidance to go by. Usually they are rooted in their identities as subject specialists and neither have a qualification in, nor experience of, language teaching, and might not even be willing or able to acknowledge that teaching in an L2 needs pedagogical accommodation (Winkle, 2014: 143). Calls for them to receive professional development "in the pedagogy of teaching English language learners" have therefore

been made and the lack of research in this area has been highlighted (Winkle, 2014: 243).

This thesis argues that one area of pedagogy and research that might offer relevant guidance in this context is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). It is an approach increasingly used on the European continent and beyond where more and more schools and universities teach curricular subjects in English. CLIL takes into account that most students in such settings – just like on pathways – cannot yet be considered proficient English language users. The need for a dual focus of learning is therefore emphasised: "The key issue is that the learner is gaining new knowledge about the 'non-language' subject while encountering, using and learning the foreign language" (European Commission for Multilingualism, 2013). In particular, CLIL highlights the interdependency of content, cognition, communication and culture ('4Cs') in such settings and suggests teachers adopt a pedagogical approach that takes sociocultural ideas of learning as well as findings from second language acquisition (SLA) theory into account (Hoffmann, n.d.; Coyle, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2008).

Although much CLIL literature is focused on schools, aspects of CLIL have been explored in the tertiary sector where English is used as a medium of instruction (e.g. Smit and Dafouz, 2012; Tatzl, 2011; Riera and Romero, 2010) and calls to implement CLIL training for HE lecturers have been made (Lozano and Strotmann, 2015: 854). It is therefore unsurprising that CLIL has attracted some interest in the pathway community, although its implementation in this sector remains largely unexplored. Individual practitioners have shared their experiences of CLIL (Corrin, 2012) and in 2011 my former employer, a global private pathway provider, organised an international staff conference encouraging employees to adopt CLIL. It was this conference that sparked the idea for this study.

1.4　The study's origins and practical rationale

At the above-mentioned staff conference, the pathway provider I worked for promoted the adoption of CLIL across its centres. Given that I was one of the few teachers who had experience of CLIL through my teacher training in Germany, I was invited to present an introductory session for subject staff. This generated a positive response and I delivered further workshops at other affiliated centres; however, once

the first wave of interest subsided, there was no further support from head office and teachers were left without guidance on how to proceed.

The feedback I received from many of my workshop participants was that while they were interested in CLIL, they felt they knew too little about language and language teaching to actually implement it. From a practice perspective, there was therefore a strong rationale to offer more CLIL training if the teachers were to further experiment with this approach. Being interested in teacher education and having felt that my own CLIL training had been most useful for my role as a pathway teacher, I decided to organise a development activity from the 'grassroots' up that would be specifically tailored to the needs of my pathway colleagues.

1.5 Locating the study in the research field: Investigating the development of CLIL teacher language awareness through reflective practice

Although this study started as a local initiative, its relevance goes beyond the immediate context as subject teachers' lack of language-related knowledge and teaching skills – as expressed by my colleagues – is not an isolated phenomenon. On the contrary, the need to develop such 'teacher language awareness' (TLA), has been commented upon in the literature numerous times: Coyle et al. (2010: 44) for example state that CLIL "teachers' own awareness of the vehicular language and the need to analyse the language carefully and systematically cannot be underestimated", and Dafouz and Llinares (2008: 57) claim that while "it is important for the CLIL teacher to be aware of the language needs of his/her specific subject", such awareness is often lacking. Morton (2012: 11; 285ff.) similarly emphasises that "the provision of teaching staff with the appropriate language skills and methodological training" is "crucial" if an integrated "approach is to be successfully implemented."

Despite such agreement regarding the importance of TLA in CLIL, however, the term itself remains elusive and a mutually accepted definition does not exist. Some authors highlight specific language-related knowledge and skills that teachers should possess, mostly inspired by SLA theory – such as teachers' ability to display knowledge of academic genres (e.g. Sanchez-Perez and Salaberri-Ramiro, 2015; Cendoya and Di Bin, 2010; Morton, 2010), to counter-balance meaning-based instruction with 'focus-on-form' activities (e.g. Lyster, 2007; Costa, 2012), to employ teaching strategies conducive to language learning (e.g. de Graaff et al., 2007;

Järvinen, 2006), or to be aware of how classroom discourse and interactional management impact on (language) learning (e.g. Escobar and Walsh, 2017; Evnitskaya and Morton, 2011; Dafouz and Llinares, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2006, 2007, 2008). Others have proposed summative conceptualisations of the language awareness teachers ought to display (e.g. Coyle et al.'s *Language Triptych*, 2010; Morton's definition of *CLIL-TLA*, 2012) or borrowed such definitions from SLA theory (e.g. Lindahl and Baecher, 2016; He and Lin, 2018). The conceptual variety and vast array of language-related knowledge and skills CLIL teachers are supposed to possess can therefore not only be described as "daunting" for practitioners (Järvinen, 2006: no page) but also raises questions about how TLA can be developed in practice.

Interestingly, despite the numerous descriptions of TLA, one common thread running through the CLIL teacher development literature is the suggestion to provide teachers with the opportunity to build links between theory and practice through reflection and critical evaluation within their own context (Martín del Pozo, 2016: 154; Ball et al., 2015: 280; Marsh et al., 2012: 17; Coyle et al., 2010: 44; Dafouz et al., 2010: 19). TLA development in particular, it has been proposed, should take the form of teachers analysing and reflecting on how language is used in their classroom and of critically evaluating the relevance of CLIL theory within context (Morton, 2012: 291; 301ff.; Costa, 2012: 43). Thus, instead of imposing training in a 'top-down' manner, teachers should be involved in consciousness-raising activities regarding linguistic issues so that they become more self-aware in their pedagogical decision-making (Costa, 2012: 43). Engagement in such reflective practice (RP) is of course not restricted to the development of TLA but an underlying principle in other areas of teacher education too, as it can help teachers move away from habitual decision-making to more "intelligent action" and ultimately lead to professional growth (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 38; Calderhead, 1989: 43f.; Dewey, 1933; Mann and Walsh, 2017).

However, despite the frequent calls for TLA development in the literature, and despite the suggestions that development activities should involve RP, this remains an under-researched area and few studies address this issue in a practically relevant way. In Lo's (2017) and Cammarata and Haley's (2018) recent studies on TLA development, for example, the role/form of RP is unclear, while Escobar's (2013) and He and Lin's (2018) detailed accounts regarding the use of RP remain restricted to a pre-service teacher education course and a school-university collaboration project

respectively, which is of limited value for many practitioners, including pathway teachers, as the enrolment in such programmes is not an option many CLIL teachers have. A key question therefore remains to what extent TLA can be fostered as part of in-service professional development "in the wild" i.e. outside of formal development initiatives (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 100). This is of interest not only for CLIL practitioners generally, but also for the pathway community specifically, where calls for studies researching how professional development for subject staff can be designed and implemented have been made (Winkle, 2014: 243). This is an important gap in the literature that this study seeks to address.

By documenting how I implemented a TLA development activity in the context of my workplace, this study therefore does not merely report on a local initiative but seeks to contribute to the wider literature on CLIL TLA development and to provide practical insights for other pathway professionals seeking to enhance their own or their colleagues' practice.

1.6   The study's focus and aims

As outlined above, except for the premise that CLIL teacher development should be context-relevant and conducted as an exercise in RP, there is no agreed definition of, or framework for, how TLA can be developed. Given the under-researched nature of the pathway sector, there is also no guidance on what specific areas of the vast TLA literature to focus on when designing such an activity for pathway professionals.

To therefore ensure that my development activity would indeed be tailored towards pathway teachers' specific context and needs, I divided the project into two phases. Phase one investigated teachers' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study. It aimed to explore how the teachers approached teaching and learning in their classrooms, particularly their attitudes and beliefs concerning students' language skills and needs and their own role in fostering these. Additionally, teachers' classroom behaviour was observed to explore how linguistic issues were dealt with in practice. The analysis of the collected data was then used to identify areas where the teachers could potentially benefit from TLA development.

The second phase of the study included the teacher development activity itself. It was designed around the TLA development foci identified in phase one and informed by CLIL pedagogy. Based on the principles of data-led, dialogic RP (Mann and

Walsh, 2017), the teachers met in collaborative workshops where they reflected on and discussed practice evidence (i.e. lesson transcripts) in light of the presented CLIL strategies. As it can be difficult to move on from reflection to action (Mälkki and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2012), the participants were further invited to implement what they had learnt with the help of a purposely-designed self-reflection toolkit and to record lesson snapshots of the changes they made. These recordings were then discussed in stimulated recall sessions (see Mann and Walsh, 2017: 34). Finally, the participants evaluated the development activity. This was deemed important to include participants' voices and to inform the design of future TLA development activities. Table 1 summarises the research aims and questions.

	Aims	Research Questions
Phase I	• to explore teachers' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study	I.1. What are pathway teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs?
	• to establish relevant TLA development foci for phase II	I.2. What are the characteristics of pathway teachers' classroom practices with regard to language-related issues?
Phase II	• to explore the extent to which the participants developed their TLA during the CLIL-RP activity	II.1. To what extent did the participants' TLA develop during the CLIL-RP activity?
	• to explore how participants evaluated the CLIL-RP activity	II.2. How did the participants evaluate the CLIL-RP development activity?

Table 1: Research aims and questions

1.7   The institutional setting

The study was undertaken at one of the UK's largest corporate providers of HE pathway courses. The centre is part of a network operating in the UK, US and China and affiliated with a Russell Group University in Northern England that is amongst the top twenty UK universities for international student recruitment. It attracts students world-wide and while recruitment figures vary each year, in line with UK trends (UKCISA, 2018) most students come from Asia (mainly China, India, Hong Kong and Malaysia) and smaller numbers from the Middle East, Africa and Eastern Europe.

The centre offers various courses providing English language and study support for the university's international student community. This includes discipline-specific pathways for business and management, humanities and social sciences, architecture, physical sciences and engineering, and biology and biomedical sciences. These programmes are offered at various levels: pre-university (foundation) courses prepare students for undergraduate university entry, while students on an international year one programme seek to join the degree course in year two. Their curriculum therefore corresponds to the first year of an undergraduate degree but includes additional language support. Finally, the postgraduate programmes prepare students for Master's level study.

All courses run for 24 weeks over two semesters. Students receive tuition in EAP and Study and Research Skills (SRS) as well as in discipline-specific modules. Some programmes include an introduction to British culture. Teaching includes lectures and seminars and practical sessions for architecture/science students.

To be accepted on a pathway, students must provide evidence of different entry qualifications. For English language ability this includes a minimum of 5.5 IELTS score for pre-university and postgraduate programmes, and a minimum of 6.0 IELTS for the international year one programme. These requirements are in line with UK border agency regulations and will be similar across UK pathways. The pathway students' English levels can therefore be considerably lower than those of the direct-entry students who need an equivalent of 6.5 or 7.0 IELTS score, depending on subject area. The requirements to progress from pathway to degree study are slightly different depending on discipline but typically involve an equivalent of an average mark of 60 across subject courses and an equivalent of 6.5 IELTS score in English. Depending on their entry level, students might have to improve up to one band on the IELTS criteria over the course of the programme (potentially more depending on the

subskill). The progress in the subject area is more difficult to quantify as students' knowledge and skills in their chosen discipline vary greatly depending on their previous education. An overview of the entry/progression requirements of the programmes taught by the participants in my study is included in Table 2.

Programme	Entry qualification	English level at entry	Progression requirement (subject area)	Progression requirement (English language)
Pre-university (Business and Management)	Completed 12 years of schooling with good grades	Equivalent to IELTS 5.5. (with min. 5.0 in all subskills)	Various average module marks depending on progression route (60-70)	65 70 (Law)
International year one (Business)	Satisfactory completion of A-levels, a recognised foundation programme, first year of overseas university programme or equivalent	Equivalent to IELTS 6.0 (with min. 5.5 in writing)	Average 55 with no module below 40	65
Pre-Master's (Business, Humanities and Social Sciences; Architecture)	Undergraduate degree or three- to five-year diploma with good grades	Equivalent to IELTS 5.5 (with min. 5.5 in all subskills)	Average 60	65 (some degree courses will require specific scores in subskills)
Note: The university employs its own English language testing system and pathway students are not marked according to IELTS criteria as the focus is on academic rather than general English. However, the achievement of a 65 using the university's criteria is considered an acceptable standard for university entry; hence described as an equivalent to a 6.5 IELTS score.				

Table 2: Pathway entry and progression requirements

1.8   Methodology

Given the study's practical outlook and reflective nature, pragmatism was adopted as the guiding methodological paradigm. Based on its premise that new knowledge only reveals itself through "action and reflection on action" in a particular situation

(Hammond, 2013: 606; Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 45f.), this stance not only provided the philosophical underpinning of the RP activity, but also helped frame this study, like any pragmatist inquiry, as an exercise in reflection (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 70; Morgan, 2014: 1047). As pragmatism conceives practitioners to be co-creators of knowledge, it justified my role as practitioner-researcher and served as a constant reminder that the project had to be practically relevant (Reason, 2003: 104,109).

When it comes to methodological decision-making, pragmatism advocates that the notions of workability and feasibility are prioritised over traditional metaphysical research paradigms since research design, strategy and methods need to fit the practical problem, research question and situation at hand (Greene, 2008: 13; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005: 377; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Bryman et al., 2008: 269). In the context of this study, with its main aim to undertake an in-depth exploration of the impact of the CLIL-RP development activity on a small number of participants in one particular setting, this pragmatist maxim led to the adoption of a qualitative research strategy. In phase one, a range of methods were employed as 'best fit' to provide insights into participants' language-related cognitions and practices, including focus groups, interviews and lesson observations. The data collected in phase two consisted of audio recordings of the RP sessions, a further focus group interview and an anonymous evaluation survey. The use of multiple methods ensured that the research questions could be addressed from different perspectives and findings triangulated (Torrance, 2012).

In terms of participants, eight teachers were recruited to the study, seven of whom completed the workshop series. They had different subject backgrounds and worked on various pathway programmes, but none had any experience of CLIL/English teaching. In line with the pragmatist stance that practitioners are not so much objects of study but key participants in the generation of new knowledge (Reason, 2003: 109), opportunities to seek their feedback were created throughout. This was also important from an ethical viewpoint as the development activity aimed to contribute to teachers' professional empowerment (Morgan, 2014: 1050; Torrance, 2012: 119).

Regarding the data analysis, a thematic approach was chosen to interpret the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Vasimoradi et al., 2013). By identifying patterns within the phase one data, development areas for the CLIL-RP activity could be identified. The exploration of themes discussed during the RP workshops provided insights into the extent to which the participants' TLA developed and how they evaluated the

activity. While studies employing similar data collection and analysis techniques have been criticised for presenting verbal data as "truths" or "facts" (Talmy, 2010: 131; Mann, 2011), this study follows the pragmatist stance and considers all knowledge derived from such analyses as inextricably linked to the context in which it was generated, which necessarily includes the methodological and analytical choices made (Morgan, 2014: 1048; Hammond, 2013: 607f.). This thesis therefore offers its findings as "warranted assertions" only and aims to be transparent with regards to how data was collected and analysed (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 13; Garrison, 1994: 11; Bryman et al., 2008: 270). This will allow readers to judge for themselves to what extent the conclusions drawn from this study and the practical guidance provided might be transferable to their own context (Greene and Hall, 2010: 132; Morgan, 2007: 72).

1.9   Thesis overview

This thesis contains nine chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 outlines the pedagogical framework and research field known as CLIL. It discusses why CLIL is relevant to the pathway sector and argues that pathway professionals, just like CLIL teachers, need a high level of TLA. The notion of TLA as part of teachers' wider cognitions is explored and a case for its development through data-led RP is made. The adoption of pragmatism as a methodological stance is discussed in Chapter 3, which also includes a description of the institutional requirements regarding the study, the sampling of participants and the justification of the data collection and analysis methods employed. The findings are presented in three chapters: Chapter 4 summarises the phase one results and explains how they informed the design of the CLIL-RP activity; Chapters 5 and 6 outline the findings from phase two. Chapter 7 presents a reflexive commentary on my role as workshop leader, followed by a discussion of the study's findings and their implications in Chapter 8. Finally, Chapter 9 concludes the study, outlines its limitations and points to further research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

As outlined in section 1.4, the study's origins go back to my employer's suggestion to adopt CLIL as the guiding pedagogical principle across its pathway centres. The aim of this chapter therefore is to locate the study in the wider CLIL literature. It is divided into three parts; the first (section 2.2), implementing CLIL in the pathway sector, defines what is meant by CLIL and outlines the main pedagogical and theoretical concerns of this educational field. It argues that despite some contrasts between European CLIL classrooms and the pathway sector, the two settings share many similarities and interests and that CLIL pedagogy and research are thus relevant for pathway professionals. However, I also argue that they, just like CLIL teachers, need a high level of TLA if they are to adopt an integrated approach and that relevant development opportunities must be provided.

Section 2.3 explores what is meant by TLA. It demonstrates that although TLA is an often-cited attribute of CLIL professionals, its delineation is difficult. I outline a variety of language-related issues and skills that have been linked to CLIL teachers' 'knowledge', 'understanding' and 'awareness' and comment on three conceptualisations that attempt to describe TLA holistically. Given the term's elusiveness and the absence of research into how pathway teachers approach language learning, I explain my decision to divide the study into two parts, with phase one investigating pathway teachers' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study as a means to identify specific TLA development foci and phase two consisting of the development activity itself.

Finally, section 2.4 addresses the question of how TLA can be fostered in practice. Inspired by the literature and bound by the contextual constraints of the institution where the research was undertaken, I outline why dialogic, data-led RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017) was chosen as the guiding principle underlying the teacher development activity and describe how the RP sessions were conceptualised.

Throughout the chapter I show how research regarding CLIL, TLA and RP has informed my project, both in terms of the theoretical underpinnings as well as the practical choices made. I also highlight how my study addresses the gap in CLIL literature regarding the practice of TLA development through RP and how this can

inform pathway professionals seeking to design similar teacher development activities in the future.

2.2   Implementing CLIL in the pathway sector

2.2.1   Defining CLIL

CLIL is a "generic" label covering various bilingual educational practices (Eurydice, 2006: 8). Widely defined, it encompasses all situations in which subject knowledge is taught in a language "other than that normally used" (European Commission for Multilingualism, 2013), including foreign, regional or minority languages (Eurydice, 2006: 8). CLIL initiatives exist in numerous countries and across all educational levels, from kindergarten to higher education (HE) (ibid.; Smit and Dafouz, 2012).

As an "umbrella term" (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014) CLIL shares commonalities with other multilingual approaches that for historical, regional or contextual reasons are known under – up to thirty(!) – different names, such as immersion, content-based instruction (CBI) or content-based language teaching (CBLT) (Eurydice, 2006: 7; Channa and Soomro, 2015; Tedick and Cammarata, 2012: S29). As the differences between these terms and associated practices are sometimes more, sometimes less pronounced, many of them have been used interchangeably, creating ambiguity as to what CLIL actually entails (Cenoz et al., 2014; Cenoz, 2015; Tedick and Cammarata, 2012: S34). Calls for a stricter terminological delineation have therefore been made: Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), for example, outline in detail the differences between immersion education and its "descendent" CLIL (also e.g. Cenoz et al., 2014), while Tedick and Cammarata's (2012) review of CBI programmes employs the idea of a 'continuum' to characterise programmes depending on whether they are more language- or content-driven. For them, the main difference between CBI and CLIL lies in regional, historical and political factors, thereby tracing the rise of the term CLIL to 1990s EU multilingualism policies, which led to an increase in bilingual educational initiatives (see also Eurydice, 2006: 9; Marsh, 2008; Cenoz, 2015).

Still, even when taking the European dimension into account, the term CLIL remains elusive as there are considerable differences in terms of how EU policy has been implemented in practice. The 2006 Eurydice report outlines the differences in status that CLIL enjoys across thirty countries (e.g. level of schooling, mainstream education/pilot projects, languages involved). It reveals that the term CLIL has been

translated into local languages with varying connotations – some emphasise a subject-oriented approach, while others are language-focused (Eurydice, 2006: 55). This is not only reminiscent of the continuum mentioned above, but also echoes findings by Clegg (2003: 89 cited in Coyle, 2007: 545) who notes that some CLIL programmes import "parts of subjects" but are mainly language-driven, while others are subject-led and "may well exclude language teachers and explicit language teaching."

Others, however, claim that CLIL's distinctiveness lies precisely in the fact that it does *not* favour one end of the continuum over the other but constitutes a "dual focus" approach where "blending" or "fusion" of both language and content learning takes place (Coyle et al., 2010: 1; Nikula et al., 2016: 3; de Graaff, 2016: xiii). Such a narrow classification thus excludes those content programmes from the wider definition above, where English is used as a medium of instruction without explicit language aims.

Smit and Dafouz (2012), who are concerned with CLIL's rise in the tertiary sector in the wake of HE internationalisation and particularly the Bologna Process (Bologna Process Secretariat, 2016), summarise similar terminological uncertainties when it comes to bilingual HE initiatives (also Macaro et al., 2018: 46). They distinguish between English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in those university settings where subjects are taught in English but without explicit linguistic focus, and 'Integration of Content and Language in Higher Education' (ICLHE) for courses including a language component. However, they concede that when teaching practice is considered such a classification is less straightforward. Regardless of pedagogical aims, the discursive nature of classroom interaction always requires the integration of language and content; therefore, they argue, a difference in terminology is best considered a difference in research foci (Smit and Dafouz, 2012: 4). More recently, the term EMEMUS (English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings) has been added to the mix (Dafouz et al., 2016: 124), while other researchers continue to prefer the term CLIL due to its general acceptance in the field, regardless of educational level (Martín del Pozo, 2016: 142).

For Morton (2012: 29) such terminological disputes are a reflection of CLIL's status as an emerging academic field, where research territories are claimed and boundaries refined. He takes the stance that, rather than trying to limit CLIL to a tightly restricted set of characteristics, different types of bilingual education approaches should be considered as displaying "family resemblances" where

features are shared and similarities more or less pronounced. Detailed descriptions of the setting in question are therefore necessary to help understand the unique context of specific CLIL initiatives. A similar stance is taken by Dalton-Puffer (2012: 102) who considers CLIL a convenient "shorthand" for diverse, highly contextualised practices and by Cenoz (2015) who highlights the importance of sharing practices and research findings from related settings. I follow their lead and concur that the strength of the CLIL label lies in its capacity to draw on insights from various related educational initiatives and research. Thus, I use the term CLIL throughout this thesis and build on findings from different bilingual contexts. In section 2.2.3 I discuss to what extent the pathway context does indeed bear 'family resemblances' to European CLIL settings, which aspects of CLIL pedagogy and research are of particular relevance to the pathway community and how this study, in turn, can contribute to the CLIL research field. To be able to do so, however, it is important to first examine the pedagogical and theoretical concerns in CLIL further.

2.2.2 *Pedagogical and theoretical concerns in CLIL*

As outlined above, a vast number of CLIL initiatives have emerged in response to the EU's efforts to promote multilingualism amongst its citizens (Eurydice, 2006: 9). Although CLIL can involve any language, unsurprisingly most such programmes use English as medium of instruction (Morton, 2018: 275; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 153). In an increasingly globalised world where English is the lingua franca of academia and business (Graddol, 2006), parents and pupils are attracted by the competitive advantage such a bilingual education might bring (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 12; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 163).

In comparison to traditional foreign language instruction, CLIL supporters promote various benefits of this pedagogical approach. By encountering 'authentic' subject discourse students are expected to develop the specific language terminology of the field and improve their communicative skills through active participation in a meaningful context (Channa and Soomro, 2015: 14; Coyle et al., 2010: 5). This, in turn, has been linked to higher student motivation (Lasagabaster, 2011; Hunt, 2011: 375) and an increased level of learners' language awareness (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 19; Marsh, 2008). CLIL thus seems to offer "good value" as students "get two for the price of one" i.e. more foreign language exposure without

having to add more time to the curriculum (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 13; de Graaff et al., 2007: 605).

While CLIL has thus been described as an "innovative" and "ideal" way to make English language learning more meaningful (Gogolin, 2011: 236; Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 12; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010: 367), others have argued it would be a shortcoming to see CLIL merely as an extension of the foreign language classroom. As CLIL involves cross-curricular learning and places a high value on study skills training and learner autonomy (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 33; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 547), and as it encourages students to examine others' and their own cultures' idiosyncrasies, it has been linked to the development of intercultural and critical thinking skills as well as democracy education (Channa and Soomoro 2015: 14; Hallet, 1998 cited in Hoffmann, n.d.: 11). Thus, it has been claimed, CLIL "adds value" to the curriculum beyond language learning (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 18).

While the expectations regarding CLIL are therefore high, critics have questioned the approach's "success story" (Bruton, 2015: 119) and remarked on the literature's "tendency to inflate claims in favour of CLIL" (Kubanyiova, 2013: 140). Indeed, while positive results, especially regarding the acquisition of receptive, lexical and writing skills, have been reported (Pérez-Cañado, 2012: 330), CLIL's impact on other areas of language learning (e.g. pronunciation, syntax) are much less promising (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 153). Others have criticised the political motivations for and unclear definitions of CLIL (see section 2.2) (Bruton, 2015). Bruton (2015, 2013, 2011; also: Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 153) in particular has highlighted the selective nature of many CLIL programmes and thus cast doubt over the extent to which greater language learning success can indeed be attributed to CLIL or whether it is rather the effect of contextual factors. From a subject-learning viewpoint, CLIL's impact has also been debated: while some have argued that because of deeper semantic processing, better or equal levels of subject understanding can be achieved (Johnson, 2012: 61; Hajer, 2000 and Vollmer et al., 2006, both cited in Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 4; Pérez-Cañado, 2012: 330), other findings dispute this claim. In Seikkula-Leino's (2007) study, for example, mother tongue learners seemed to outperform CLIL students, and Hellekjær (2010) reported greater comprehension difficulties in L2 than L1 HE lectures. Calls for methodologically sound (longitudinal) studies to allow for better judgment of both language and subject outcomes in CLIL have thus been made

(Bruton 2011, 2013, 2015; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 557; Pérez-Cañado, 2012: 331f.; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 157).

However, it is not only the outcomes of CLIL that merit further investigation and require evidential support. Given the interdisciplinary nature of the approach and the complexities involved, CLIL is also challenging from a pedagogical point of view and needs careful theoretical and evidence-based underpinning if it is to fulfil its potential. Following an early research phase in the 1990s, mainly characterised by small-scale studies and 'grassroots' practitioner accounts documenting the set-up of experimental CLIL programmes, in 2007 Coyle called for "a connected research agenda" that would allow CLIL pedagogy to be informed by learning theory and provide an evidence-base for practice. She outlined the '4Cs' framework, conceptualising the "interrelationship" between subject matter (content), language (communication), learning/thinking (cognition) and social awareness of self and others (culture) (Coyle, 2007: 551). All four areas are interdependent and come together in a "symbiotic" relationship for CLIL to be effective. In a later version (Coyle et al., 2010: 41), the model was adapted and refined, further highlighting the contextualised nature of CLIL (Figure 1).
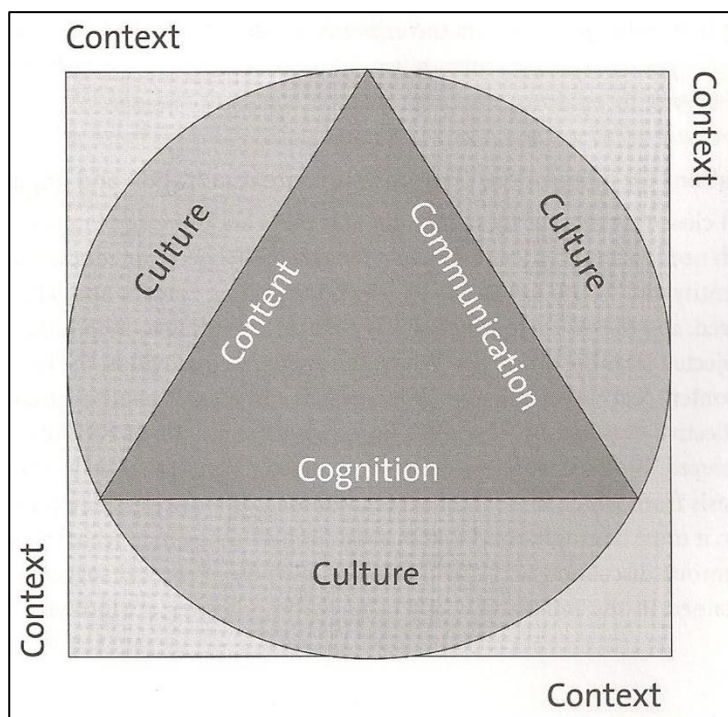
Figure 1: Coyle et al.'s 4Cs framework (2010: 41)

A similar stance was taken by Dalton-Puffer (2008) who, informed by Zydatiß (2007: 16 cited in Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 3), proposed a slightly different model of the 4Cs (Figure 2). By putting communication at the core of the model, she highlighted the central role that language plays in CLIL, emphasising that it is through classroom discourse that knowledge is socially constructed and learning opportunities are created (ibid.: 7). Either way, both authors firmly embedded CLIL pedagogy in sociocultural theories of learning and argued for a "holistic" teaching approach to ensure CLIL classrooms would be "content and language rich" (Coyle, 2007: 543; Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 15).
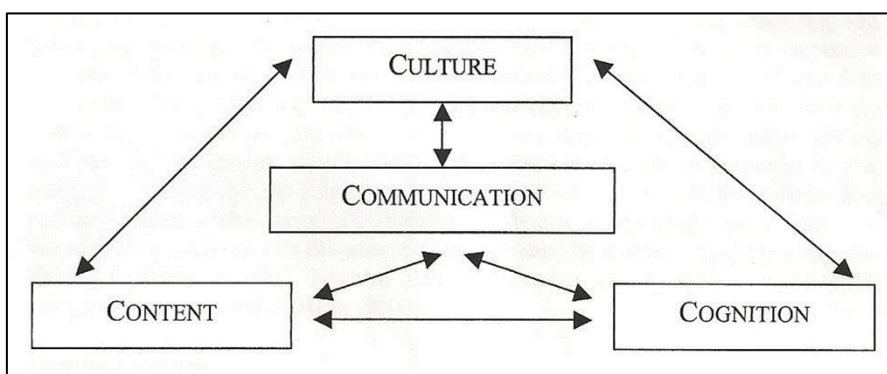
Figure 2: Dalton-Puffer's 4Cs framework (2008: 3)

Coyle (2007) further proposed that such an integrated pedagogy should be accompanied by an "inclusive" research agenda to establish CLIL as an academic field in its own right. Since the publication of her seminal paper, interest in CLIL has "exploded" (Pérez-Cañado, 2012: 316) and many of its proposed areas of investigation have been pursued (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2017; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2013, 2017). The past decade has seen the exploration of diverse aspects of CLIL from various stakeholder perspectives (e.g. Mehisto and Asser, 2007; Wegner, 2012) as well as studies both at the micro-level of classroom practice (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2007) and the macro-level of policy making (e.g. Sylvén, 2013). Subject-specific issues have been explored (e.g. Lorenzo, 2017; Evnitskaya and Morton, 2011) and research from related fields brought into the discussion (e.g. Taillefer, 2013). The number of studies focusing on CLIL/ICLHE/EMI in the HE sector has grown (e.g. Tatzl, 2011; Fortanet-Gomez, 2012; Airey, 2012; Doiz et al., 2013) and CLIL research and practice have expanded beyond the European context to Asia and South America (e.g. Yang, 2015; Yamano, 2013; Curtis, 2012).

Other publications have taken a more practical outlook and focused on bringing SLA theory and practice together by highlighting tips and strategies on how language and content learning can be combined in lesson planning and classroom interaction (e.g. de Graaff et al., 2007; Järvinen, 2006). Teacher handbooks providing pedagogical guidance (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Ball et al., 2015; Chadwick, 2012) and numerous websites for CLIL teachers are now available (e.g. onestopenglish, 2018). However, classroom-based research still merits further exploration to investigate how research findings and theories are put into practice (Dalton-Puffer, 2017: 2). Practitioner-led research is particularly rare in CLIL and its importance in this context has been emphasised (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 157; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 554ff.; Lin, 2016: 186).

One key theme that reverberates throughout the literature and brings theory and practice together is that CLIL teachers need to have an in-depth understanding of how language is intrinsically linked to learning and teaching (Llinares et al., 2012: 20). In fact, it is this *teacher language awareness* (TLA) that has been identified as a key characteristic of a CLIL teacher if an integrated approach is to be successfully implemented (de Graaff, 2016: xv; Martín del Pozo, 2016; Morton, 2012; Chadwick, 2012; Channa and Soomro, 2015: 12; Ruiz de Zarobe 2017: 151; Coyle et al., 2010: 44). Given that most European CLIL provision, however, is led by subject teachers (Nikula, 2010: 106), this raises questions about teacher education and training to provide teachers with adequate language-related knowledge and skills. This challenge has been tackled differently across the continent: while in Germany and Austria CLIL teachers have dual qualifications as subject and language teachers (Nikula et al., 2016: 15) and teachers receive in-service training in the Netherlands (de Graaff et al., 2007: 605), reports from other countries (e.g. Spain) show that subject teachers often receive little or very limited CLIL training (Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 283; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010: 371). Yet without pedagogic guidance teachers may find the integration of content and learning a "struggle" (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 261).

Although the situation is slowly changing as models of CLIL training have been proposed (e.g. Marsh et al., 2012; Dafouz et al., 2010) and the number of CLIL courses, for example at MA level, is increasing, research into the practice of CLIL teacher development continues to be an important yet under-researched area in the literature (Pérez-Cañado, 2018: 213, 2016: 269; Nikula et al. 2016: 19; Brüning and Purrmann, 2014: 334; Macaro et al., 2018: 56/67). Studies investigating the

development of TLA in particular are rare (except e.g. He and Lin, 2018; Lo, 2017; Escobar, 2013) and, to my knowledge, absent in the context of pathway provision. This gap is at the centre of this dissertation. Before outlining the specific contribution my study can make to the field, however, it is important to examine the relevance of CLIL pedagogy and research for the pathway community more closely.

2.2.3 'Family resemblances' in CLIL and pathway provision: Shared concerns in practice and research

Having outlined some key concerns of CLIL pedagogy and research, I now return to the origins of this study and my employer's suggestion to implement CLIL as the guiding pedagogical principle across its centres. Despite some differences, I demonstrate that the two settings share important "family resemblances" (Morton, 2012: 29) and that many aspects of CLIL pedagogy and research are of interest for the pathway community. Equally, however, I revisit the challenges such an adoption might bring and highlight the need to offer pathway teachers relevant development opportunities.

When comparing the pathway sector with European CLIL initiatives, the first observation to make is that although both have evolved in response to multilingualism/internationalisation policies affecting education systems around the world, the students face different pressures. For many international students a degree obtained in an Anglophone country can bring a competitive advantage in their home country and the stakes to gain a university place are high (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002). For those lacking the English language and/or subject qualification for direct entry, the pathway course is often the only route into their desired university. Discussions regarding the benefits of CLIL in comparison to traditional foreign language teaching (e.g. Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 18; Lasagabster, 2011; Bruton, 2015) – a great concern for stakeholders in CLIL settings where students have choice – are thus obsolete: studying academic content in a foreign language is a necessity on the pathway, not an enrichment option.

Further differences between the two settings concern their social (and thus linguistic) make-up. Unlike many European CLIL classes, most pathway courses will be multi-national/-lingual with an English native speaker teacher[1]. Thus, questions

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[1] Although the term native speaker is contested in applied linguistics (e.g. Cook, 1999) I use it here to distinguish teachers who have/do not have English as their first language.

about how to take recourse to the students' first language (L1), a recurrent issue in the CLIL literature (e.g. Méndez García and Vázquez, 2012; Gierlinger, 2015), are of limited interest to the pathway community since classroom interaction generally takes place in English only. Outside the classroom, too, language plays a different role: while most CLIL learners are based in their home countries, pathway students have access to the English-speaking community and can, in theory, pick up incidental language learning on a daily basis. However, integration into local communities is often a challenge for international students (Schartner, 2015; Kusek, 2015) and pathway students can find themselves "ghettoised" (Manning, 2018: 252). Their situation is thus not dissimilar from that of European CLIL learners (Lasagabster and Sierra, 2010: 370; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 546) in that the classroom often remains the only environment where they encounter complex interactions in English.

Considering classroom learning, the similarities between CLIL and pathway settings become even more pronounced. Just like their CLIL counterparts, pathway students and teachers find themselves in a challenging situation where the learning of academic content takes place in a language that is foreign for the students, the core characteristic of any CLIL definition. Compared to direct-entry students who have higher proficiency levels of English, many pathway students not only lack subject-specific language competence, but also general English skills as evidenced by their lower IELTS scores. Thus, just like in the CLIL subject classroom, where language learning opportunities are provided in addition to, not instead of, foreign language classes, pathway students' language learning can potentially be fostered in the subject classroom in addition to EAP classes. For pathway students who are under pressure to meet the university's language entry criteria this is of great importance.

Beyond language development, intercultural awareness has been identified as a key goal in CLIL (Hallet, cited in Hoffman, n.d.: 11; Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 20; Coyle et al., 2010: 39). Unlike learners on the continent, however, pathway students live in the UK and – subject to whether they actually immerse themselves in local communities (see above) – have greater opportunities to explore British culture. Yet, for many the classroom is the first intercultural learning environment they encounter and often the only context in which they experience Western academic culture. Teachers thus need to take care to foster intercultural learning and support the acquisition of study and critical thinking skills, all of which are also key goals in CLIL (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 33; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 547). Therefore, all

four Cs of the CLIL framework (Coyle, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2008) – communication, content, culture and cognition – are equally interdependent in the pathway setting and it is not surprising that pathway teachers and institutions, including my employer, might find CLIL a promising educational model to turn to for pedagogical guidance.

However, the literature also tells us that the adoption of an integrated approach is not straightforward. Just like CLIL teachers on the continent, most pathway teachers are subject specialists without English language teaching experience. Yet, while they are not expected to replace the EAP teacher, they still need to find ways to make content learning accessible and "bridge the gap between the cognitive demands of the subject and the linguistic abilities" of their students (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 23), as well as foster language development within the remits of their subject and aid cultural adaptation. This is not only challenging given the complexity of the academic content taught at HE level (Coleman, 2006: 7; Taillefer, 2013; Winkle, 2014: 206), but also requires acknowledgement that learning in an L2 needs pedagogical accommodation, something some pathway teachers seem to openly resist, and others are unaware of (Winkle, 2014: 143). Calls for professional development to help pathway teachers address students' linguistic and cultural needs have thus been made (ibid.: 240).

Much has been made of the fact that most European CLIL teachers are not native speakers and might feel insecure about the additional linguistic demands of teaching in a second language (Nikula, 2010: 106; Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 268; Johnson, 2012: 61; Moate, 2011; Lozano and Strotman, 2015: 852). This situation is of course different on pathways where most teachers are English L1 users and proficiency is not an issue. However, native speaker status does not necessarily mean better language teaching skills or greater understanding of how language is implicated in knowledge construction and classroom interaction (Lindahl, 2019; Wright and Bolitho, 1993: 292; Medgyes, 1992: 346f.). On the contrary, native speakers might even show less empathy regarding the linguistic challenges faced by students (Medgyes, 1992: 346f.; Chun, 2014: 569). Yet, as outlined above, it is exactly this understanding of the role that language plays in learning and teaching, this TLA, that has been identified as an important attribute of a CLIL, and therefore by extension, of a pathway teacher, if an integrated approach is to be effective (de Graaff, 2016: xv; Martín del Pozo, 2016; Morton, 2012; Chadwick, 2012; Channa and Soomro, 2015: 12; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 151; Coyle et al., 2010: 44).

With regards to HE, the lack of TLA amongst many lecturers who find themselves in an EMI context has been acknowledged and calls for training have been made (Coleman, 2006: 7; Taillefer, 2013: 9; Winkle, 2014: 5, 243). Considering my colleagues' responses in the introductory CLIL presentations that they, too, did not know enough about language or language teaching (section 1.4), this is equally relevant for pathway professionals. My decision to implement a TLA development activity in response to my employer's suggestion to adopt CLL across its centres can thus be justified. However, my study seeks to be more than a local improvement initiative. As a rare example of practitioner-led research in CLIL (Lin, 2016: 186) my study can contribute to the discussions regarding the practice of CLIL TLA development in general and provide insights into how such a development activity was implemented in the pathway context in particular. Given the lack of professional development studies in this sector (Winkle, 2014: 243), this is especially useful for pathway teachers seeking to design similar activities in the future. The relevance of the study to the research agenda is outlined further in the next sections where the concept of TLA and the role of RP in its development are discussed.

2.3 Teacher language awareness (TLA) as the focus of subject teachers' professional development

2.3.1 TLA in CLIL: A variety of issues and concerns

The importance placed on TLA and relevant education/training (e.g. de Graaff, 2016: xv; Martín del Pozo, 2016; Morton, 2012; Chadwick, 2012; Channa and Soomro, 2015: 12; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 151; Costa, 2012: 43; Coyle et al., 2010: 44; Morton, 2018: 285; Hoare, 2003: 487) is based on the belief that teachers who are linguistically more aware are better equipped to support student learning, an assumption not only held in CLIL, but also in other educational settings (Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 219). The 1970s UK *language across the curriculum* movement, for example, argued that *all* teachers, including those in L1 settings, should be sensitive to the linguistic demands of their subjects and help students acquire subject-specific language skills (Bullock, 1975 cited in Coyle, 2007: 553; Vollmer, 2008). For L2 teachers, too, the need to develop their "linguistic radar", "knowledge about language" or "language awareness" as a crucial professional attribute has been highlighted (Wright, 2002: 115, cited in Johnson, 2009: 48; Cenoz, 2008: xiii; Andrews, 2007: ix; Wright and Bolitho, 1993; van Lier, 1995). Given their three-fold

role as language analyst, user and teacher (Edge, 1988), Andrews (2007: 24) emphasised that language teachers not only need "declarative" knowledge of the structural and functional aspects of the L2, but also the ability to translate this knowledge into teaching practice (also Johnson, 2009: 47f.; Andrews and Lin, 2018: 60). He therefore proposed a process-oriented definition of TLA, consisting of teachers' knowledge of the language system (subject matter cognitions/proficiency), their understanding of the students' perspective on learning (knowledge of learners) and their meta-cognitive ability to reflect on language knowledge, proficiency and development (meta-cognitive/-linguistic awareness) (Andrews, 2007: 27ff.).

Although TLA has thus been explored from a L2 learning perspective, the extent to which it differs in CLIL is debated as here language plays a different role (Andrews and Lin, 2018: 66). It is not the *object*, but the *medium* of study: CLIL primarily entails the learning *in* or *through*, not *of* a foreign language (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 18; Coyle et al., 2010: 34). Still, CLIL goes further than simply immersing students in a '*bain linguistique*' where language is supposedly learnt "through osmosis" (Coyle et al., 2010: 27; Llinares et al., 2012: 8) as it actively seeks to support students in the dual challenge of simultaneously learning and using the foreign language (Coyle et al., 2010: 34). This therefore raises questions about what kind of TLA CLIL teachers should possess, and consequently, and of particular interest for this study, what the focus of teacher development should be.

In the literature, this has been approached from different perspectives and, although many authors have highlighted the need for CLIL teachers to display TLA (e.g. de Graaff, 2016: xv; Morton, 2012; Channa and Soomro, 2015: 12; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 151; Coyle et al., 2010: 44; Hoare, 2003) or indeed have commented on their lack of TLA (Dafouz and Llinares, 2008: 57; Lo, 2017: 2), the term itself remains elusive as many authors fail to provide a coherent definition. Instead, various models and theories, mainly from SLA and sociocultural learning theory, have been proposed as foundations of CLIL teachers' language-related knowledge and skills. In fact, the array of concepts that CLIL has been linked to is so wide that in some cases attempts to summarise them resemble an overview of SLA literature spanning the last forty years (e.g. Ruiz de Zarobe, 2013: 234; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 258ff.). In the following section I will therefore provide examples of the concerns most commonly raised in the literature and specifically report on articles referring to CLIL teachers' 'awareness', 'knowledge' and 'understanding' of language or commenting on such concepts in relation to teacher education.

One key concern discussed in the literature is the question of what kind of language teachers should focus on in the CLIL classroom. While traditionally foreign language classrooms might have emphasised grammatical form, it has been argued that CLIL teachers should concentrate on the linguistic demands of their subject and support students' acquisition of subject-specific terminology and related discursive skills (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 27ff.; Coyle, 2007: 552). One concept repeatedly mentioned in this context is the distinction of *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)* and *Cognitive Academic Linguistic Proficiency (CALP)* (Cummins, 2008). While the former describes the kind of language students use every day, CALP refers to the academic language needed to succeed in a specific subject. Explicit knowledge of this distinction, it has been claimed, can help teachers become more "sensitive" to the linguistic challenges entailed in subject-specific tasks and enable them to plan their lessons accordingly (Otten and Wildhage, 2003: 28; also e.g. Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 283; Marsh et al., 2012: 19; Coyle et al., 2010: 133; Bertaux et al., 2010; Lin, 2016: 11f.).

Based on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1978, 2004), an approach that considers language as a meaning-making system not simply conveying but actively constructing knowledge, others have suggested CLIL teachers' understanding needs to go beyond a simple distinction of BICS/CALP. Rather, the development of CALP needs to be seen as the aim of all educational efforts, as it is through the acquisition of academic language skills that students are initiated into the specific discourse and thus the "community of knowledge and practice" in their field (Walker, 2010: 75ff.; Sanchez Perez and Salaberri Ramiro, 2015: 577). In practice, this means students need to be familiarised with the oral and written text types or genres commonly used in their subject. This includes having knowledge of how such genres are constructed through the use of grammar and lexis, the so-called register (Sanchez Perez and Salaberri Ramiro, 2015: 577; also Llinares et al., 2012: 111; Lin, 2016: 15ff.,78). A genre-based teaching approach has therefore been suggested for CLIL where the focus of language instruction should be on enhancing students' text analysis skills, particularly in HE where students have been found to struggle with the comprehension and production of various text types (Sanchez Perez and Salabierri Ramiro, 2015; Cendoya and Dibin, 2010; Walker, 2010: 83; Morton, 2010). Others have emphasised the importance of teachers being familiar with the text types, grammar and lexis of their subjects to be able to highlight relevant language for their students (Llinares et al., 2012: 181; Coyle et al., 2010: 59)

or of teachers recognising the challenges and opportunities of using both everyday (horizontal) and scientific (vertical) discourses within the instructional classroom register (Llinares et al., 2012: 48; Bernstein, 1999). Either way, calls for training have been made for teachers to learn more about genres and registers to "become aware of the linguistic features required for the representation of content in their subject" (Llinares and Whittaker, 2010: 141; Morton, 2010: 100ff.).

While such perspectives highlight the intricate relationship between meaning and language, some studies have highlighted that many L2 subject classrooms are primarily concerned with the conveyance of content, and considerably less attention is paid to language form (van Kampen et al., 2016: 10; Koopman et al., 2014: 133; Costa, 2012; de Graaff et al., 2007: 616; Swain, 1996). While this might be considered an advantage – students may for example feel less stressed about making mistakes in CLIL than in L2 classes (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 205) – questions have been raised regarding whether an approach that is mainly focused on content-related meaning is indeed sufficient for successful language learning. Lyster (2007: 43) in his often-cited investigations of immersion classrooms, for example, has found that while such instruction can have positive effects on students' fluency, it can be detrimental to the development of accurate language skills. For the language learning potential to be fulfilled, he therefore advocates a 'counterbalanced' approach, in which teachers purposely draw attention to language 'form'. This can be done either proactively, for example through pre-planned tasks aimed at students noticing and using specific language features, or reactively, for example through use of corrective feedback strategies (ibid.: 44, 47). While Lyster originally referred to "pedagogical know-how" (ibid.: 44), which for such an approach to work includes good understanding of the linguistic system involved, he has since acknowledged how such knowledge and skills form part of TLA (Lyster and Ranta, 2018: 51).

Yet others are not only concerned with the kind of language CLIL teachers should focus on, but also draw attention to the skills needed to teach in an L2 subject classroom. Concepts from SLA theory are taken as a knowledge-base from which effective teaching strategies and recommendations for best practice are deducted to allow teachers to facilitate language development as part of their pedagogical repertoire. Järvinen (2006) and de Graaff et al. (2007), for example, both draw on Krashen (1985) and Swain (1995) in their list of pedagogical strategies and encourage teachers to provide students with comprehensible input and to create opportunities for output production (also e.g. Pavón and Ellison, 2018: 73; Ruiz de

Zarobe, 2013: 234; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007; Coyle, 2007: 547). Along with Dafouz et al. (2010: 15f.) and based on Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, they further highlight the need for teachers to employ an interactive teaching approach, for example by encouraging peer feedback and setting up various forms of group work to create opportunities for students to develop their fluency and adopt strategies to overcome communication problems through negotiation of meaning and form (de Graaff et al. 2007: 617; Järvinen, 2006). Very similar "prerequisites for success" for CLIL in the tertiary sector are summarised by Taillefer (2013). Interestingly, only Järvinen (2006) and Dafouz et al. (2010) explicitly state that teachers need to "know about language learning and teaching" and include theoretical concepts in their suggestions for teacher education, while de Graaff et al. (2007) and Taillefer (2013) do not make it clear to what extent teachers need to be familiar with the underlying theories to employ the proposed strategies effectively (also Koopman et al., 2014: 134).

Many, but not all, of the SLA concepts referred to in the articles above are rooted in sociocultural learning theory, which is founded on the premise that social interaction, above all language and dialogue, are prerequisites for learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1999; Lantolf, 2000). Dafouz et al. (2010) and Järvinen (2006) for example make this link explicit when arguing that a student-centred, interactive teaching approach is not only beneficial from a language, but also from a content learning perspective. Through discussing ideas or scrutinising concepts, students engage in the mutual construction of meaning and knowledge; language thus is the main mediator through which learners demand, give and validate information (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 263; 74f.). As outlined in section 2.2.2, many see in this sociocultural approach the core pedagogical foundation of how content and language learning can be successfully integrated (Dalton Puffer, 2008: 7ff.; Coyle, 2007: 551f.; Moate, 2010; Coyle et al., 2010: 28).

For teachers, such a sociocultural approach consequently means they need an "understanding" of the dynamics of classroom dialogue (Moate, 2010: 43). In particular, attention has been drawn to how teachers and students construct meaning through interaction and how teachers manage classroom discourse as a space for learning. This has been explored with reference to the L2 classroom (e.g. Cullen, 1998; Anton, 1999; Walsh, 2006, 2011; Walsh and Li, 2013), but is equally important in CLIL. Evnitskaya and Morton (2011), for example, explored how CLIL classroom talk is used to negotiate meaning and to build a community of practice, while others

have particularly focused on the significance of triadic dialogue, also known as 'initiation – response – feedback' (IRF) patterns, to create shared spaces of meaning in which learning (of content and language) takes place (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2006, 2007, 2008: 7ff.; Musumeci, 1996; Dafouz and Llinares, 2008). Dalton-Puffer (2007: 263, 275), for example, has argued that IRF provides the "scaffolding"[2] framework in which expert and novice (teacher and learner) collaborate in the construction of meaning (also Llinares et al., 2012; Dafouz et al., 2010: 13). Of particular importance in such interactions are the different question types employed by teachers (e.g. open vs. closed, referential vs. display, facts vs. non-facts) as they can impact on the complexity and length of students' responses (Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 12; Järvinen, 2006; Musumeci, 1996; Llinares et al., 2012: 88; Lyster, 2007: 90) as well as the ways in which repair and feedback are used to generate shared concepts and educational knowledge (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 79; Dafouz et al., 2010: 18; Järvinen, 2006; Kong and Hoare, 2011: 319f.; Hoare, 2003: 480). While there are different accounts regarding the management of CLIL classroom talk in practice – Nikula (2010) and Skinnari and Bovellan (2016: 154) for example reported instances where more interactive space was created in CLIL than in L1 classrooms – Musumeci's (1996) Italian CBI study found that subject teachers "speak more, more often, control the topic of discussion, rarely ask questions for which they do not have the answer, and appear to understand absolutely everything the students say, sometimes even before they say it", thus hindering students from engaging in co-construction of meaning (ibid.: 314). Similar situations were found in other classrooms, where teachers took on the role of "primary knower" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 170) and through their question and feedback behaviour restricted students' language production. In particular, there was little evidence of teachers actively encouraging students to engage in such academic language functions as explaining, defining and hypothesising as expressions of higher-order thinking skills (Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 12; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 127ff.; Llinares and Morton, 2010: 61). Consequently, it has been argued that only if teachers become "more conscious of their discursive practices" or if their "awareness [of such language functions] can be raised", can they include them in their planning and teaching practice (Llinares and Morton, 2010: 62; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 171; Dafouz and Llinares, 2008: 57).

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[2] For the origin of the scaffolding metaphor see Bruner, 1975; Bruner and Watson, 1983; Wood et al., 1976.

Given the intricate relationship between language, interaction and learning, Escobar and Walsh (2017) have recently added another perspective to the discussion, suggesting CLIL teachers should display a high level of *classroom interactional competence (CIC)*. This concept, originally coined in relation to the L2 classroom (Walsh, 2011, 2013), emphasises that successful classroom communication is not dependent on the sole performance of individuals but on the social and dynamic process of interaction between all participants (Escobar and Walsh, 2017: 190). For teachers, this is displayed in the ability to not only create a shared learning space in which meaning is constructed through dialogue, but also, crucially, to adapt and re-adjust the way they use language in convergence with their pedagogical goals as dialogue unfolds in the situational context (ibid.: 192). This includes being sensitive to issues of 'face' and being able to create a safe environment in which students confidently contribute to classroom conversations (Goffmann, 1955 cited in: ibid.). Equally, learner-centred activities (such as group work) can be employed to help students develop their classroom interactional competence with peers (ibid.:198). Getting teachers to focus on such issues as part of teacher development activities, they argue, can "raise awareness and sensitize teachers to the complex interplay of language, interaction and learning" in CLIL (ibid.: 203).

These examples from the literature are by no means exhaustive but show the broad variety of concepts and strategies that have been cited as underpinnings of CLIL teachers' language-related knowledge and pedagogical efforts. While many of these articles focus on specific aspects of language learning or provide an exemplary and relatively short list of effective teaching strategies, efforts have been made to collate research findings from various perspectives and bring them together in more holistic conceptualisations of the knowledge and skills that make up TLA in CLIL. Three such summative models are outlined below.

2.3.2 Coyle et al. (2010): The language triptych

The first example comes from Coyle et al.'s (2010) handbook, which, despite criticisms concerning its academic rigour (Kubanyiova, 2013), is probably the publication most widely-used by CLIL practitioners. As outlined in section 2.2.2, fundamental to their pedagogical stance is the holistic integration of the 4Cs: content, cognition, communication and culture (Coyle et al., 2010: 41). Regarding

communication, they emphasise that "teachers' own awareness of the vehicular language and the need to analyse the language carefully and systematically cannot be underestimated" (ibid.: 44). To help teachers with this, they introduce the "language triptych", a framework distinguishing three functions of language in CLIL: the language *of*, *for* and *through* learning (ibid.: 36).

The first dimension, *language of learning*, denotes that teachers need to be aware of and able to analyse the basic concepts and skills required by students in relation to the subject. This is informed by findings from genre analysis (see above) and includes content-specific terminology and grammatical structures, verbs or phrases commonly used, but also requires awareness of differences in spoken and written discourses in their field.

Secondly, teachers need to be aware of the additional demands that the learning in a foreign language entails and help their students develop coping strategies. For example, students might need support when participating in classroom activities or with skills such as asking questions and debating. They might even profit from the explicit teaching of speech acts enabling them to engage with content matter, such as describing, analysing and evaluating. This is covered by the term *language for learning*.

Finally, *language through learning* acknowledges that, in accordance with sociocultural theory, learning can be enhanced by dialogic activity between teachers, students and peers. Given such verbal exchanges take place in the L2, it is very likely that learners acquire new language, often as it emerges in the learning situation itself. As this can be difficult to predict, teachers need to be sensitive towards students' linguistic needs in the moment to help language development as and when it arises (ibid.: 38).

In the context of the handbook, the language triptych can thus be considered as the foundation of the TLA needed by CLIL professionals, and its use as both an analytical planning framework and a professional development tool has been promoted (ibid.: 36, 60; Martín del Pozo, 2016). Yet, it is important to note that while the triptych might indeed be useful for raising teachers' awareness of the linguistic demands their students face, the three dimensions neglect teachers' own use of language, for example in the interactional management of classroom discourse. As a summative conceptualisation of the language and skills needed by teachers as part of their TLA, the language triptych thus only partly addresses the issues raised in the wider literature above.

2.3.3 Marsh et al. (2012): Language awareness as part of the European framework for CLIL teacher education

Another attempt to collate various aspects of TLA in CLIL is provided in the European Framework for CLIL teacher education (Marsh et al., 2012) where TLA is included as a key target competence that CLIL teachers are expected to acquire. In addition to many points already made above (e.g. teachers' ability to consider key concepts such as BICS/CALP, to promote dialogic teaching and learning, to support language development through error correction), the framework also includes teachers' ability to promote learners' awareness of the language learning process and to help students in their transition from L1 to L2 learning. Further references to language-related knowledge and skills are made throughout the framework (such as the ability to make content learning/materials linguistically accessible, and to set language-related learning outcomes).

Although the framework thus represents a useful starting point for the design of a CLIL teacher development curriculum, it remains, at least in parts, rather unspecific. Despite claiming that "research-based knowledge" can enhance both language and content learning, for example, the language awareness competence list is not supported by any literature, and teachers are left in the dark regarding what kind of "knowledge and theories from language learning fields such as SLA [they should] draw on" in practice (ibid.: 18, 20).

2.3.4 Morton (2012): TLA-CLIL

Finally, an important (but unpublished) work concerned with the notion of TLA in CLIL is Morton (2012). This PhD thesis explored the language-related knowledge, thinking and teaching practices of a group of Spanish CLIL teachers with the aim of establishing what "experienced CLIL teachers think and do" with regards to language matters, so that a knowledge-base for TLA teacher education can be created (ibid.: 11).

Bringing together an extensive range of research from the fields of sociocultural learning theory, systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and social models of SLA research, Morton proposed a "tri-perspectival" conceptualisation of the roles of language in CLIL (ibid.: 17, 49ff.). While this is reminiscent of Coyle et al.'s (2010) language triptych, the three dimensions of language were adapted from Andrews'

(2007) framework of TLA in the L2 classroom (see section 2.3.1) and thus defined differently.

The first perspective – language as a tool for teaching and learning – refers to language's role as a mediator for curricular content and classroom activities. Morton reiterated the importance of an interactive, or, following Alexander's nomenclature, a "dialogic" teaching approach for language and content learning (Alexander, 2006; Morton, 2010: 53), and, based on insights from socially-situated approaches to language learning and conversation analysis (e.g. Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2006, 2011), suggested that teachers need to understand how pedagogical goals are achieved through the interactional and discursive patterns of classroom talk (Morton, 2012: 50ff.). The second dimension, language as a curriculum concern, highlights that, rather than treating language learning as incidental, teachers need to have meta-cognitive/-linguistic awareness of how content matter is expressed through language and consider which aspects of language they are focused on or what kind of aims are being set (ibid.: 16, 70ff.). This can involve decision-making at the planning stage as well as reacting spontaneously to issues arising in class (ibid.). The third dimension of his model considers language in the CLIL classroom as a matter of learners' competence as the ultimate goal of CLIL has to be linguistic progression. For teachers, this involves knowledge of language from the learners' viewpoint and an understanding of the linguistic difficulties inherent in activities and materials (ibid.: 17, 79)

Although much of this echoes work previously cited, Morton's achievement lies in bringing the various perspectives together in a coherent model of teacher language awareness for CLIL, "TLA-CLIL" (ibid.: 265). Furthermore, following Andrews (2007), he draws attention to the fact that TLA is part of the wider cognitions CLIL teachers hold. This is an important insight to help frame our understanding of TLA as such cognitions underpin teaching efforts: what teachers know, think and believe has an impact on how they act in the classroom (Andrews, 2007: 27; Morton, 2012: 98; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2018; Li, 2017). Specifically, TLA is considered a subset of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), a conceptualisation based on Shulman (1987), Turner-Bisset (2001) and others (cited in Andrews, 2007: 29ff.). It illustrates how teachers draw on various interacting knowledge bases (e.g. subject matter cognitions, knowledge of learners, contexts, curriculum and pedagogy) to bring their content knowledge together with their understanding of how it can be made accessible for students in the classroom.

Based on such conceptualisations and using his model as an analytical framework, Morton went on to investigate teaching practice. Through the means of pre-lesson interviews, lesson observations and stimulated recall interviews he explored to what extent the teachers in his study were indeed displaying CLIL-TLA in relation to the three roles of language identified earlier. Overall, he found that while the participants in his study had set clear content goals, language learning and teaching remained a "diffused curriculum concern" with little evidence of a systematic approach (ibid.: 285; Leung, 2001). Also, the participants' TLA was mainly informed by their personal experience of teaching in a specific context rather than by publicly available theories (Morton, 2012: 281). Thus, he concluded, teacher education should be implemented to familiarise teachers with such theories and help them translate theoretical into practical knowledge (ibid.: 289).

Morton's work is the most sophisticated conceptualisation of TLA in CLIL to date and draws on a wide range of pedagogical and SLA research. As such, it fed into a published account co-authored with Llinares and Whittaker aimed at "raising practitioners' awareness of how language functions in CLIL" (Llinares et al., 2012: back cover). The book reiterates and expands on many of the issues raised in Morton's PhD thesis and, although due to its research-focused nature it cannot be considered a teacher handbook, it includes valuable reflection tasks for practitioners to help translate theoretical knowledge into practice. Interestingly, however, Morton's model of CLIL-TLA is not included in the book and his more recent work does not refer to TLA either. Instead, Morton has explored different ways in which "Language knowledge for content teachers" (LKCT) can be reconceptualised to shed further light on the kind of language-related understanding CLIL practitioners need to teach subject content effectively in an L2 (Morton, 2018, 2016).

Morton's changed outlook but continuous efforts to explore CLIL teachers' language-related knowledge, along with the literature cited throughout this section, illustrates poignantly how, despite recurrent calls for CLIL teachers to display TLA or to focus on TLA development in teacher education/training, the concept of TLA itself remains an elusive term and attempts to define it remain a current issue in the research field (Andrews and Lin, 2018: 66). From a practical perspective, this lack of a mutually agreed definition of TLA had important implications for the design of my study, which will be outlined in the next section.

2.3.5 Implications for this study: Contextualising teachers' language-related cognitions and practices

As the previous section has shown, there are many more or less well-defined accounts of the language-related knowledge and skills underpinning CLIL teachers' TLA. While key issues are repeated (e.g. subject-specific language, interactive/dialogic teaching approach, management of classroom talk), for a practitioner like me seeking to establish what kind of theoretical and practical knowledge to share with pathway colleagues as part of a teacher development activity, the variety of concepts and frameworks on offer make it almost impossible to choose which one to follow. Furthermore, the range of topics and areas to cover is so vast that it is questionable to what extent TLA development can be implemented in practice unless teachers undergo a full-time education programme.

While such practical considerations might not be high on a researcher's agenda – although recently Andrews and Svalberg (2017: 226) have indeed questioned the usefulness of the term TLA – they were an issue for my study, where TLA development was to take place as a temporary activity with in-service teachers under considerable time constraints. Thus, choices regarding what to focus on from the vast TLA literature had to be made. In this context, Morton (2012) made an important point. First, he warned about creating a "wish list" of what teachers should know and do, correctly observing that some of the competences asked of CLIL teachers might even tax experienced English teachers (Morton, 2012: 100; 119) – a similar point was made by Järvinen (2006: no page), describing the expectations for CLIL teachers as "daunting". Rather, Morton argued, it is necessary to gain insight into how teachers in a specific context exercise their TLA in practice, as such an understanding can then form the basis of a principled approach to teacher education (Morton, 2012: 11). This, of course, was the rationale for his investigation in the first place, which ultimately informed a new, sophisticated account of the roles of language in CLIL (Llinares et al., 2012) that could equally be considered a wish list regarding the knowledge and skills teachers need to display. His argument, however, still reverberates for this study: given that pathway teaching is generally under-researched (see section 1.3), I needed to first establish what teachers actually think and do regarding the integration of content and language in this specific context *before* the focus of the development activity could be decided upon. This meant dividing the study into two phases, with the first phase focusing on teachers'

language-related cognitions and practices before the development activity and the second phase consisting of the development activity itself.

Second, and closely related to the previous point, is the fact that Morton's (2012) study found that although TLA as part of PCK draws on many different knowledge areas, his participants' knowledge was mainly informed by their personal and contextually-situated experience. This was assumed to be the same for the pathway teachers as none of them had been exposed to training regarding the theoretical foundations of CLIL or SLA. However, Morton fails to account for one more important aspect raised by Andrews (2007: 41f.): TLA is not only informed by various types of knowledge and contextual factors, but how it is *exercised* is equally dependent on teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of their wider context. This means that the way teachers for example perceive their roles and responsibilities but also their students or the syllabus, will have an impact on whether and how they address language-related issues in the classroom. Tan (2011: 332), for example, found the participants in her study primarily identified as subject teachers responsible for fulfilling the academic curriculum and thus were less concerned with the creation of language learning opportunities (see also Nikula et al., 2016: 14; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016; Airey, 2012).

The link between teachers' knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and decision-making in action is complex, not least because of the difficulty in delineating the different psychological concepts and affective factors involved. While many different terms have been called upon, including for example attitudes, perceptions, knowledge, and lay theories, many of which can be successfully defined on a theoretical level (for a discussion see Borg, 2006: 41ff.; Li, 2017: 16ff.; Pajares, 1992), Borg (2006: 40, 46) has convincingly argued that in practice it is almost impossible to distinguish such tacit, dynamic, mental constructs that are personally held by teachers and refined in light of professional experiences made in the classroom. Still, there is agreement that such "cognitions", the inclusive term put forward by Borg (2006) and henceforward used in this study, form the basis of teachers' mental lives and that they are key factors in understanding how teachers take decisions in their classrooms (ibid.; Borg, 2011; Woods, 1996; Connelly et al., 1997: 666). Furthermore, and importantly for this study, they also have an impact on how educational innovations are accepted or rejected (Underwood, 2012; Errington, 2004: 40; Donaghue, 2003; Borg, 2018). Any successful development activity therefore needs to take teachers' cognitions into

account (Borg, 2011: 218; Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 549; Fortanet-Gomez, 2012: 60; Smit and Dafouz, 2012: 6; Hüttner et al., 2013: 269).

As research into teacher cognition in relation to CLIL implementation, particularly in HE settings, has been generally scarce, calls for further investigation in this area have been made (Smit and Dafouz, 2012: 5; Perez-Cañado, 2012: 330; Johnson, 2012: 50). Interest in this area has grown in recent years. Airey (2012), similarly to Tan (2011) above, for example, reported that subject lecturers simply did not want to deal with language as they considered it someone else's responsibility. Tatzl (2011: 254) further suggested that personal attitude is a key factor in how teachers deal with language in EMI settings (also Moate, 2011: 333; Lyster, 2007: 28; Aguilar, 2017: 730). Still, to my knowledge there has been no investigation into teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of language skills in the pathway context.

Such insights, however, are important for this study as they can help establish what areas to focus on during the development activity. Exploring what teachers think or believe about the language-related competences they are expected to develop, about the difficulties and needs faced by their students, or about their own responsibilities and pedagogical challenges when teaching pathway students, can help enlighten us about the areas of TLA that are particularly relevant for the participating teachers. Thus, rather than following a set TLA wish list from the literature, teachers' cognitions regarding linguistic matters needed to be considered during phase one, as well as their practice explored to see how they actually dealt with language-related issues in the classroom and whether their stated beliefs and practices were indeed aligned. Together, such insights could then help establish what specific development foci should be included in the TLA development activity. Thus, the following research questions were drawn up for phase one:

I.1. What are pathway teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs?

I.2. What are the characteristics of pathway teachers' classroom practices with regard to language-related issues?

While phase one thus emerged out of the practical rationale to establish the TLA development foci, phase two was concerned with TLA development activity itself. Its format and design were again informed by the research literature, which is the topic of the next section.

2.4   Putting TLA development into practice

2.4.1 Making a case for reflective practice

The final part of this literature review addresses the question of how TLA can be
fostered in practice. As outlined above, the development of TLA has been identified
as a key area in CLIL research and calls for relevant teacher education/training are
plentiful (e.g. Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226; Martín del Pozo, 2016; Channa and
Soomro, 2015: 12; Morton, 2012: 285ff.). Yet, when it comes to exploring *how* TLA
can be fostered, there is noticeably less guidance. This is probably not surprising
given that due to the wide variety of CLIL programmes questions of teacher
education are tackled differently across local and national levels (Martín del Pozo,
2016: 142; Pérez-Cañado, 2016; Costa, 2015) and a one-size-fits-all approach is
neither desirable nor possible (Ball et al., 2015: 267). Still, it is striking that despite
the field's interest in TLA, the practice of relevant teacher development is under-
researched (Andrews and Lin, 2018: 71).

While some authors have simply suggested "short courses" could help familiarise
teachers with language-related issues (Järvinen, 2006), others set out more
sophisticated frameworks, but their guidance for implementation still often remains
sketchy. Dafouz et al.'s (2010) scaffolding approach for CLIL teacher education, for
example, is built around the notion of developing values, knowledge and skills; sadly,
the practical examples remain limited to only one of the model's 'knowledge areas':
interaction. Marsh et al.'s (2012) *European Framework*, outlined above, lists various
TLA competences to be developed, but does not advise how this should be done.
The same is true for Martín del Pozo's (2016: 153) "needs to be mastered": while the
article refers to the language triptych as a development tool it fails to explain how it
can be employed. Teacher handbooks also provide limited advice. Ball et al.'s (2015)
chapter on teacher education, for instance, is superficial, while Coyle et al.'s (2010)
compendium, which is explicitly aimed at teachers and teacher trainers (ibid.: ix), only
treats TLA as one aspect among many.

Still, there is one common theme running through the literature, which became
the guiding principle for the design of the development activity in my study: the need
to provide teachers with opportunities to build links between CLIL theory and practice
through reflection and critical evaluation within their own context. Dafouz et al. (2010:
19), Martín del Pozo (2016: 154) and Ball et al. (2015: 280) for example, all stress
the importance of reflection during CLIL teacher development, and Coyle et al. (2010:

44) similarly suggest that understanding of CLIL is best supported by teachers developing their own 'theory of practice' – by evaluating theories and pedagogical strategies on the basis of their own classroom evidence. In the specific context of CLIL TLA development, such views are echoed by Morton (2012: 291; 301ff.; 2018: 11), who proposes creating reflection opportunities for teachers to critically evaluate the publicly available theories on language in CLIL in light of their personal experiences and to analyse and evaluate examples of their own language use in relation to their pedagogic goals. Costa (2012: 43) has made a similar point in relation to raising HE lecturers' awareness of the significance of 'focus on form' activities, advocating that theoretical input should be combined with teachers' practice evidence. Thus, Costa argues, CLIL teacher training should be "rethought of as an exercise in self-awareness, self-discovery and personal internalisation" (ibid.).

In the wider literature on TLA in second language learning, the need to be reflective has even been linked to the nature of TLA per se. As part of teachers' PCK that is informed by situated experiences and whose exercise is dependent on cognitions such as beliefs and attitudes, TLA necessarily requires teachers to be conscious of language-related issues and reflective of their significance within their classroom (Andrews, 2007: 40). To develop such awareness, Johnson (2012: 47ff., 54; also Wright and Bolitho, 1993: 301; Andrews, 2007: 183, 189) consequently proposes to engage teachers in the analysis of language in use (e.g. through text/genre analysis but also of classroom language) and to invite them to reflect on how such understandings can inform teaching. Being reflective and becoming a reflective practitioner are therefore important parts of awareness raising processes (Mann, 2005: 108).

The need for teachers to critically evaluate their practice is, of course, not limited to CLIL or the L2 classroom, and the use of reflective practice (henceforth RP) as a means of professional development is common in teacher education literature in general (e.g. Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012), and in HE in particular (e.g. Campbell and Norton, 2007). In 'training' workshops new concepts are often "imposed on" teachers "from the outside" or "top-down" (Wyatt and Ager, 2017: 171; Mann, 2005: 104) – sometimes even without asking teachers for input – and they consequently rarely lead to a transformation of classroom practice (Escobar, 2013: 336; Ho et al., 2001: 144; Stein and Wang, 1988: 185). In contrast, RP emphasises active teacher involvement, self-awareness and self-discovery as internal processes as more holistic and successful ways to bring about change in teacher cognition and

behaviour (Borg, 2011: 216; Martín del Pozo, 2016: 142; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 17; Mann, 2005: 108; Ho et al., 2001: 147, 162; Farrell, 2018). Such a view of teacher *education* – rather than *training* – considers professional development to be an ongoing, never-finished process and teachers as conscious agents who adapt their pedagogical decision-making in response to the teaching environment (Mann, 2005: 104; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 7; Borg, 2011: 218).

Originating in the writings of Dewey (e.g. 1910,1933) and Schön (1983/1995), RP encourages teachers to consider their beliefs, attitudes and values and the possible consequences of their classroom behaviour with the aim of moving away from routine or impulsive decision-making to more "intelligent action" (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 38; Calderhead, 1989: 44). Being reflective involves all "those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciation" (Boud et al., 1985: 3, cited in Mann and Walsh, 2017: 3). This not only entails the questioning of ones' beliefs and practices but also self-monitoring and self-evaluation before new insights and knowledge can be created (Mann, 2005: 108). By encouraging teachers to explore the impact of pedagogic innovations or research findings on their own practice, rather than the 'top-down' approach of conventional training models, RP is considered a means for teachers to take ownership of their practice; engagement in RP and being reflective are therefore crucial for professional empowerment and growth (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 7; Farrell and Ives, 2015: 607; Farrell, 2018: 2; Calderhead, 1989: 43).

While reflection can take different forms, for example during or immediately after an event (reflection *in* or *on* action) (Schön, 1983/1995), reflection *for* action stresses the need for teachers to connect the received knowledge of their professional field and the experiential knowledge acquired in the classroom with the aim of improving future practice in a systematic way (Killion and Todnem, 1991). Unlike the training model, however, where development needs are often identified on the basis of a "deficit" (e.g. the lack of perceived skill) – which can be discouraging for teachers and can become a reason for rejecting proposed innovations (Johnson, 2012: 53) – advocates of RP stress that reflection can have various triggers, such as a perceived problem or uncertainty, or simply the desire to challenge habits and routines (Dewey, 1910: 24; Calderhead, 1989: 44; Mälkki and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2012: 45).

During reflection, teachers might be faced with different emotions. While the confirmation of old ideas or development of new ones might lead some to experience a sense of enlightenment, others can find the process unsettling, even painful, as

established habits and ways of thinking are challenged (Dewy, 1933: 16; Reynolds, 2011: 6; Mälkki and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2012: 34). Still, this should not be a deterrent: uncertainty and unpleasantness can lead to further reflection and professional growth (Bolton, 2005: 275; Reynolds, 2011: 6, 8). RP therefore encourages teachers to embrace the values of open-mindedness, responsibility and whole-heartedness – i.e. to engage with alternative ways of thinking, to carefully consider effects of behaviour and to overcome the fear of critical evaluation, all with the aim of making purposeful change (Dewey, 1933; Farrell, 2007: 2).

2.4.2 The conceptualisation of the CLIL-RP development activity

Given the literature's advocacy of RP as a means to foster professional development in general and TLA in particular, I chose it as the guiding principle when designing the teacher development activity for this study (henceforth 'CLIL-RP activity'). As this activity was neither part of a formal in-service teacher education course (INSET), nor an institutionally prescribed Continuous Professional Development (CPD) event, I had relative freedom regarding how to conduct the workshops and only needed to take institutional constraints such as timetables and work commitments into account. Still, even for such reflection "in the wild" – a phrase coined by Mann and Walsh (2017: 100ff.) denoting RP activities outside of formal courses – I continued to refer to the relevant literature whilst planning the activity, which is why I now outline the practical conceptualisation of the workshop series as part of this literature review.

As reflection is often considered an internal process, RP activities commonly involve teachers recording their thoughts in journals, portfolios or other written narratives (e.g. Borg, 2006: 293ff.; Mann, 2005: 110; Farrell, 2007, 2018). This, however, was not deemed suitable for my participants for two reasons. Firstly, experience has shown that the demands of producing a written text can lead teachers to focus more on mechanical task completion than the reflective process itself; in some cases, particularly where RP is assessed, participants may even be tempted to "fake" their accounts (Hobbs, 2007; Gray and Block, 2012:131). Although the teachers in my project were not formally evaluated, I considered 'faking' a realistic risk as the participants might have felt under pressure to unduly focus on the written end-product, given they knew their accounts would feed into an academic project. Secondly, given the participants' hefty teaching and marking commitments,

the additional burden of writing a reflective piece over a substantial period of time was deemed unfeasible without causing undue stress.

Time constraints were also a reason why other forms of RP, such as the involvement of teachers in practitioner inquiries or action research, were dismissed as part of this project. Although such activities are commonly cited as useful forms of teacher education (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010: 69; Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 279; Robson et al., 2013; Andresen, 2000) and interest in action research is high on the CLIL agenda (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2013: 554ff.), I considered their scale and level of academic engagement too overwhelming for the participants (see Mann and Walsh, 2017: 224; Mann, 2005: 110). Furthermore, they require teachers to already possess knowledge of and interest in a specific form of pedagogical innovation, which was not the case in my study.

The way forward therefore lay in the adoption of a less commonly used type of RP: the engagement of participants in 'dialogic' – i.e. in spoken and collaborative RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017, 2013; Walsh and Mann, 2015). In line with the sociocultural view of learning, such an approach considers teachers as *learners* of teaching whose professional development can benefit greatly from collaboration with others (Borg, 2011: 217; Tasker et al., 2010; Johnson, 2009). Dialogic RP acknowledges that teachers do not simply copy what they are told but appropriate new knowledge in ways that are meaningful to their practice and link theoretical knowledge to their professional experiences (Mann and Walsh 2017: 11; Johnson, 2012: 29). Such appropriation can be mediated through collaborative discussion and therefore aided by peer interaction, a 'critical friend' or expert facilitator who, in Vygotskian terms, provides appropriate scaffolding, for example by drawing attention to specific issues or by supplying the required meta-language (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 12ff.). Dialogic reflection is thus considered a social, rather than individual process, in which thinking, interaction, and knowledge creation are inextricably linked (Mann and Walsh, 2013: 294).

While the use of dialogic, collaborative reflection groups has been promoted in the CLIL literature and as a means to foster TLA in L2 contexts (e.g. Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 341; Coyle et al., 2010: 163f.; Andrews, 2007: 189), they need to be based on relationships of cooperation and mutual trust if they are to fulfil their potential and encourage participants to share their ideas (Farrell, 1999, 2007, 2018). My intention therefore was to organise the CLIL-RP activity in such a way that groups of three or four participants would regularly meet as I hoped this would allow such

supportive collaborative relationships to be built. However, although this was agreed upon with the academic director prior to the study, it later materialised that the fixed timetable slots promised to facilitate these meetings were not provided. Consequently, the timing of the workshops proved extremely challenging, and group size and membership of each session varied so that the participants found themselves in ever-changing discussion groups. The effect this had on the relationships and reflective processes in the group will be discussed in the reflexive commentary in Chapter 7.

For myself I foresaw a two-fold role in the CLIL-RP workshops. Firstly, as a kind of 'expert' on CLIL providing relevant input from the literature, and secondly as a 'facilitator' in the reflective discussions keeping the groups' focus on the topic, listening carefully and probing/supporting when necessary (Andrews, 2007: 187). To avert the trap of the 'deficit' model of training (see section 2.4.1) I tried to avoid passing evaluative judgments and sought to present CLIL as an innovative approach to pathway teaching rather than a remedy to 'fix' a lack in teachers' knowledge and skills. However, I realised early on that this was a difficult oxymoron given that it was precisely the lack of TLA amongst subject teachers that had formed the base assumption and motivation for this project. Again, this will be further elaborated on in Chapter 7.

In addition to the dialogic element, I also decided that the sessions should be data-led, i.e. reflection should be based on practical evidence. Such an approach allows teachers to examine and discuss concrete habits, practices and beliefs and to become aware of what goes on in their classroom (Mann and Walsh 2017: 34ff.; Farrell and Ives, 2015: 595). This can raise awareness of potential gaps between what teachers think they do and what they actually do, i.e. between their cognitions and behaviour and hence create the psychological stimulus for practical change (Borg, 2018: 78). Still, the analysis of classroom data as part of RP should not solely be about detecting incongruencies or 'faults'. Rather, it can contribute to a greater understanding of classroom behaviour and the potential value of a pedagogical innovation, in this case CLIL. Sometimes teachers might simply be confirmed positively in what they do (ibid.; Costa, 2012: 43).

Although any kind of data can be used in this process, RP is said to be particularly effective if evidence stems from the teachers' own practice as this provides greater understanding of the localised context and therefore helps raise self-awareness (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 34). In ideal scenarios, teachers should

even collect data themselves and take ownership of what they want to reflect on (ibid.; Farrell and Mom, 2015: 851; Borg, 2011: 216). Recordings of classroom practice or transcripts of such recordings can be useful data sources and are commonly employed in professional development (Schmid, 2011; Masats and Dooley, 2011). Video in particular can be an effective development tool, especially when combined with structured discussions as for example advocated by the 'Lesson Observation and Critical Incident Technique'" (LOCIT) (see Coyle et al., 2010: 70ff. and Morton, 2012: 109 on using video in CLIL CPD). However, videoing also carries a risk of making teachers feel uncomfortable and unduly self-conscious, particularly when unaccustomed to being filmed or having to share teaching evidence with peers (Schmid, 2011: 267). For my study, I therefore decided the data evidence for the RP workshops should initially come from the transcripts of lesson recordings collected during phase one. I selected and transcribed fragments of the recordings relevant to the issue under discussion and provided each participant with a transcript from their classroom. This was considered an appropriate way of sharing experiences and starting group discussions on common themes, but also a convenient means for the participants to get used to the concept of data-led reflection without having to go through the time-consuming process of collecting and transcribing the data themselves. Later sessions then involved teachers collecting their own data in the form of audio recordings (see below).

Transcripts of classroom conversations not only trigger general reflections but are also a particularly useful tool in TLA development as they can help teachers notice how they and their students are engaged in using language to represent ideas and construct new knowledge. Thus, teachers can gain greater awareness of the role of language as a mediating tool and explore how learning has been achieved and identify potential opportunities for further language development (Johnson, 2009: 52; Morton, 2015: 268; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 11; Fortune et al., 2008: 90).

To ensure the teachers would focus on specific issues within the transcripts, I provided them with reflection questions (e.g. adapted from Llinares et al., 2012; Dafouz et al., 2010; Coyle et al., 2010). Also, to avoid the sessions becoming a chore and to keep them interesting for the participants as well as to encourage collaborative reflection, a variety of different tasks and social forms (e.g. partner/small group discussions) were included (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 20). In the spirit of reflection for action, the participants were regularly asked to think of alternative ways

to tackle the issue under discussion (Escobar, 2013: 350; Andrews, 2007: 198; Bolton, 2005: 278).

While questions and tasks functioned as initial reflection triggers, deeper reflection and engagement can be further fostered through context-specific reflection tools (Mann and Walsh, 2017, 2013; Walsh and Mann, 2015). An example of such a tool in the L2 classroom is the 'ad hoc' self-observation instrument SETT (Walsh, 2006, 2011), which allows teachers to analyse evidence of their verbal classroom behaviour by using a specifically designed grid of interactional features. Other tools that can be employed across contexts include the use of stimulated recall (henceforth SR) where video or audio recordings are employed to recall classroom incidents which are then discussed with a critical friend or peer thereby assisting teachers in the reflection process (see above; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 37ff.). In the CLIL literature, toolkits exist in terms of planning or pedagogic strategies (e.g. Coyle et al. 2010; Chadwick, 2012), yet they are not specifically developed for the pathway sector and some of them are rather extensive. Given that I made selections regarding specific TLA areas, I did not employ any of these toolkits in their entirety. Rather, I was inspired by aspects of various toolkits, and based on the phase one data collection and the collaborative workshop sessions, I compiled a context-specific version of relevant features. Such a tool, I hoped, would more adequately address issues raised by the participants and could in the future be employed by pathway teachers new to the sector or by experienced teachers seeking to improve their practice further. Thus, it could make a practical contribution that would be relevant for pathway professionals beyond this study.

While the first RP workshops were based around collaborative discussions and involved the transcripts of the classroom data collected during phase one, I recognised that reflection by itself does not necessarily lead to future action (Mälkki and Lindblom-Ylännen, 2012: 35). For teachers to be more likely to change their behaviour it is important that they enact relevant classroom activities and experience the impact of the pedagogical innovation in question (Nishino, 2012: 393; Johnson, 2012: 54; Andrews, 2007: 187). This can help them translate declarative into procedural knowledge and build links between public and experiential knowledge (Morton, 2012: 301ff.). After the first five workshops, the teachers were therefore asked to put some of the things they had learnt into practice. With the help of the reflection tool they were invited to plan a lesson of their choice and to undertake a snapshot audio recording of a part of that lesson, which included an issue they

wanted to explore further. We then met in one-to-one sessions, listened to the recordings and, in a SR format, reflected on the changes made. The reflection tool was used as a means to build on the participants' understanding of their classroom interaction and to familiarise them with the meta-language that had been introduced (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 111f.). This was considered an unobtrusive way to get them to experiment with the proposed CLIL strategies, and to heighten their perception and deepen their reflection on language-related matters and therefore develop their TLA further. This process was carried out twice (WS 6 and 7).

During the SR sessions teachers were much freer in choosing the issues and evidence they wanted to discuss than in the collaborative workshops. Allowing participants to focus on issues with greater relevance to themselves is considered to be longer lasting for development and more fulfilling than working towards others' agendas (ibid.: 112). In terms of the reflective process, the SR sessions provided a short cycle in which teachers would get a chance to move from reflection to action to further reflection on the consequences of their action (Coyle et al., 2010:48).

2.4.3   *Researching the practice of CLIL TLA development*

Having argued for the use of RP to foster CLIL teachers' TLA and having outlined how the research literature on RP informed the practical conceptualisation of the development activity, this section now turns to the question of what contribution the study can make to the wider research field.

Although since the start of my project in 2013 the number of publications on CLIL TLA development has grown, its practically-relevant implementation and the use of RP in such activities remain under-researched areas in the literature and are, to my knowledge, completely absent in the context of pathway provision. In Lo's (2017) investigation of the effectiveness of CLIL professional development on TLA in an Asian school context and in Cammarata and Haley's (2018) study on fostering immersion teachers' awareness of integrating content, language and literacy in curricular planning, for example, the role of RP remains unclear. Both mention that reflection was part of the development process – Lo (2017: 7) comments that teachers shared post-lesson reflections with a trainer and Cammarata and Haley state that collaborative reflective discussions "played a key role" in the awareness raising process (Cammarata an Haley, 2018: 339) – but neither document in detail how these reflective discussions were embedded in the activity or provide evidence

about how they were conducted. Escobar's (2013) and He and Lin (2018)'s studies, in contrast, provide more such information. The former illustrates how one prospective CLIL teacher was guided through a cycle of recording lessons and completing a range of written reflection tasks to develop greater understanding of the role of teacher talk in the classroom; the latter explains how pre- and post-lesson discussions, stimulated recall and interviews were employed to create opportunities for reflective discussions between a teacher and university-based teacher educator who acted as a "consultant", assisting with lesson and material preparation (ibid.: 166ff.). While both studies report positive results with regards to the impact of RP on TLA development, their practical relevance is still limited as both document activities that were part of formal teacher development initiatives: Escobar's student teacher was enrolled on a pre-service MA course, while the teacher at the heart of He and Lin's study took part in a government-funded school-university collaboration project and could draw on the expertise of the professional teacher educator. In many CLIL contexts, including the pathway sector, however, participation in such programmes might, albeit desirable, not be feasible. A key question therefore remains regarding the impact of RP on TLA "in the wild", outside of formal teacher education initiatives (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 100ff.). This is an important gap in the literature that my study seeks to address.

Specifically, through studying the workshop discussions and documenting the practice of TLA development, we can gain insights into the extent to which collaborative, data-led RP triggers pathway teachers to rethink their language-related cognitions and practices. By capturing moments of "awakening" – i.e. instances of "growing realisation" of the connection between language and content (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 260) – we can explore to what extent this leads to 'new' understandings, and maybe even behavioural change, as indicators of developing TLA (Cots and Garrett, 2018: 4). Equally, we need to examine the limits of teachers' engagement with language-related issues and investigate what cognitions and other factors might act as "gatekeepers" to prevent the adoption of the proposed CLIL strategies in order to understand how to improve such teacher development further (Mori, 2011: 454; Mak, 2011).

This also includes gaining an insight into how the teachers themselves evaluated the CLIL-RP activity as teachers' interest and commitment are key factors in the long-term acceptance of pedagogical innovations (Stein and Wang, 1988: 172). This is important in any context but particularly in the pathway sector where no formal

teacher training programme exists but where the need for professional development for subject teachers working with international students has been recognised (Winkle, 2014: 240). Investigating how the teachers evaluated the CLIL-RP activity can therefore shed light on the question to what extent this kind of CLIL TLA development is indeed a way forward for pathway professionals and how it can be improved.

The aims of the second phase of the study were therefore to explore the extent to which the participants' developed their TLA during the CLIL-RP activity and to investigate how they evaluated it. Consequently, the following research questions were drawn up:

> II. 1. To what extent did the participants' TLA develop during the CLIL-RP activity?

> II. 2. How did the participants evaluate the CLIL-RP development activity?

2.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined how research from the fields of CLIL, TLA and RP has informed my study, both in terms of the theoretical underpinnings as well as the practical choices made. It has defined what I mean by CLIL and demonstrated that due to shared commonalities and concerns between CLIL and pathway settings, CLIL pedagogy and research are indeed of relevance for the pathway sector. However, it has also been highlighted that the literature tells us that TLA development needs to be provided if such an approach is to be implemented.

Furthermore, the chapter has demonstrated that the delineation of the term TLA remains a debated issue in the CLIL literature. From a practical viewpoint, the long wish list of language-related knowledge and skills that teachers are supposed to display made it difficult to decide what to focus on during the TLA development activity. This, coupled with the realisation that other cognitions such as beliefs and attitudes regarding teachers' roles and students' needs have an impact on how TLA is exercised and how pedagogical innovations are accepted, led me to argue that in the context of this study an investigation into the participants' language-related cognitions and practices was necessary before relevant TLA development foci could be chosen. Finally, I made a case for dialogic, data-led RP as a means to foster the participants' TLA and outlined how the development activity was conceptualised.

I not only located the study in the wider literature by demonstrating how its theoretical and practical underpinnings were informed by relevant research, but I also

highlighted the contribution it seeks to make to the field. As a rare practitioner study in CLIL (Lin, 2016: 186) this study can add to the discussions surrounding the practice of CLIL TLA development through RP in general and the implementation of such a development activity in the pathway sector in particular. Given that calls for more research into the practice of professional development have been made in this sector (Winkle, 2014: 243), the study seeks to inform the design of similar activities in the future.

Before moving on to the methodology chapter, it is acknowledged that the literature review has made reference to a wide range of theoretical constructs. Figure 3 hence provides the reader with a schematic illustration detailing how the key conceptual theoretical areas drawn on so far underpin the design of the study in different ways. It also introduces another key theory informing the study, pragmatism, which became the conceptual basis for the methodological decision-making. This will be further explained in the next chapter. An explanatory comment regarding figure 3 can be found on pages 53ff.
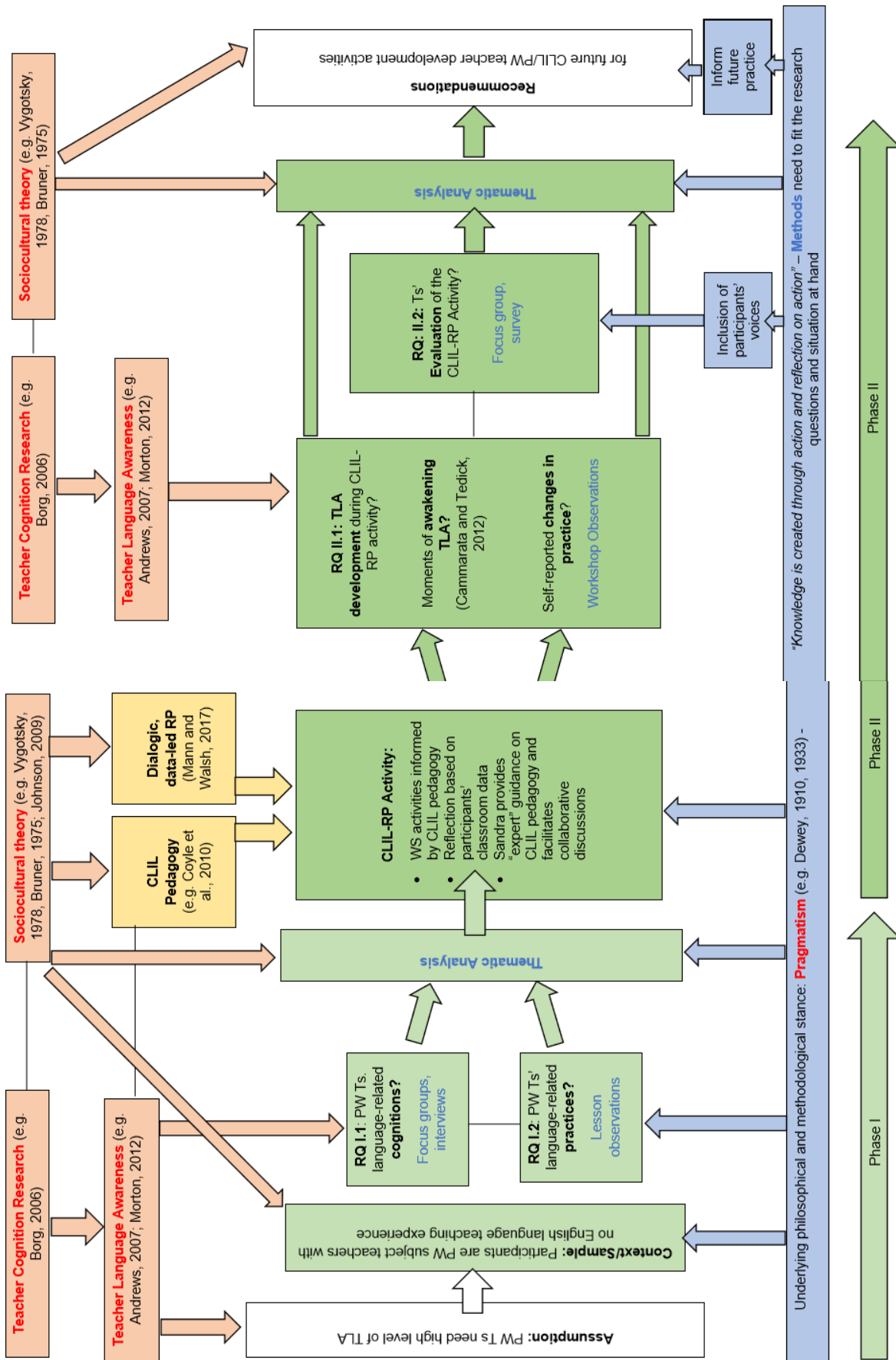
Figure 3: Key conceptual theoretical areas informing the study

Explanatory comment - figure 3:

The schematic illustration (figure 3) shows the <mark>key conceptual theoretical areas (**in red bold print and shaded in light red**)</mark> informing the study and how they relate to one another. Starting in the top left corner, the diagram indicates that the study is situated in the wider context of **teacher cognition research**, a field concerned with exploring teachers' mental lives and their impact on teaching practice (e.g. Borg, 2006, 2003). More specifically, the study investigates one particular aspect of teacher cognition, namely **teacher language awareness** (TLA) (e.g. Andrews, 2007; Morton 2012) and its development through dialogic, data-led RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017) in the context of HE pathway provision. This conceptual theoretical area underpinned the study in different ways:

- It informed (⇩) the study's underlying **assumption** that pathway teachers, just like CLIL teachers in other settings, need to have a high level of TLA if an integrated approach is to be implemented (see section 2.2.3).
- It informed **RQ I.1 and 2** and guided the <mark>phase I data collection (shaded in light green)</mark> which was concerned with exploring teachers' language-related **cognitions** and **practices** at the onset of the study with the aim of identifying context-relevant TLA development foci for phase II (see section 2.3.5).
- It further impacted on <mark>phase II of the study (shaded in dark green)</mark> as this phase was concerned with the exploration of the extent to which TLA developed during the CLIL-RP activity (**RQ II.1**) (see sections 2.4.3 and 3.9.5).

The second theoretical concept drawn on is **sociocultural theory**. This area links in (⎯) with teacher cognition research in so far as teachers' mental lives are shaped by and shape the sociocultural contexts in which their teaching activity takes place; hence, if we seek to understand teacher cognition generally and TLA specifically, the sociocultural context in which teachers operate and in which professional development is undertaken must not be overlooked (e.g. Kubanyiova and Feryok 2015; Johnson, 2009). This recognition informed the study in various ways:

- Regarding **context and sampling** of participants, the data collection was restricted to one study centre and the number of participating teachers was

limited. This meant that large amounts of qualitative data could be collected and thick descriptions generated that allowed the specific institutional context to be taken into consideration (see sections 3.3, 3.4, 3.6.2).

- Similarly, a **thematic analysis** approach was chosen both in phase I and II as this allowed an in-depth exploration of the collected data and provided insights into highly contextualised practices (see 3.9ff.).

- Finally, the study's **recommendations** for future development activities carefully considered the specific sociocultural context that pathway providers and their HE partners operate in (see section 8.3ff.).

Additionally, **sociocultural theory** provided the <mark>pedagogical underpinning</mark> (<mark>shaded in orange</mark>) of the **CLIL-RP activity** in phase II:

- Firstly, sociocultural theory with its emphasis on collaborative meaning-making and co-construction of knowledge has by some been considered the fundamental principle of successful **CLIL pedagogy** (see section 2.2.2).

- Secondly, sociocultural theory also forms the theoretical basis of the **dialogic, data-led RP** approach advocated by Mann and Walsh (2017: 11) that was adopted as the guiding principle for the CLIL-RP activity. Through engagement with their own classroom data and in collaborative discussion with others it was hoped that the teachers would gain a greater understanding of the sociocultural context they operate in and hence develop their TLA further. From a Vygotskian perspective, the teachers were considered as "novices", while I had envisaged my role own as that of an "expert" providing an introduction to CLIL and as a facilitator in the collaborative discussions (see section 2.4.2).

At the bottom of the schematic illustration, the <mark>light blue shaded areas</mark> indicate another key theoretical conceptual area informing the study, **pragmatism (this will be further outlined in chapter 3).** Pragmatism provided the philosophical and methodological framework of the study:

- Based on the pragmatist premise that data collection methods need to fit the question and situation at hand, a range of data collection and analysis methods (printed in blue) were chosen as "best fit" to address the research questions (see sections 3.2ff. and 3.8ff.).

- Pragmatism also impacted on the **sampling** of the participants as institutional restrictions had to be adhered to. Acknowledging that the generation of new knowledge is always context-bound, the study's findings are offered as warranted assertions only (see sections 3.2.2 and 3.3).

- With its premise that all knowledge derives from action and reflection on action, pragmatism also underpinned the **CLIL-RP activity** as a tool for professional empowerment and growth (see section 2.4.1 and 3.2.2).

- Acknowledging the pragmatist stance that participants are knowledge creators and not mere objects of study, I considered it important to seek out the participants' voices and to explore their **evaluation** of the CLIL-RP activity (**RQ II.2)** (see sections 2.4.3 and 3.2.2).

- Finally, as is common with many pragmatist inquiries, this study was concerned with bringing about practical change and improvement (Marshall et al., 2005). Hence, practical **recommendations** for future professional development activities on the basis of this study's findings are provided in the discussion (see section 8.3ff.).

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1   Introduction

Having outlined the study's rationale and aims as well as the theoretical and pedagogical foundations of the CLIL-RP teacher development activity in the previous chapters, I now turn to the study's methodological conception. This chapter explains why, rather than following traditional ontological and epistemological paradigms, I adopted a pragmatist stance. I not only outline the philosophical roots of this methodological approach and their implications for this study but also demonstrate how they tie in with the notion of RP and sociocultural ideas of learning that underpin the CLIL-RP activity. In line with pragmatism's premise that all knowledge is generated through action and reflection on action within a specific context (Hammond, 2013: 607), I further outline the specific institutional requirements affecting the timing of the research and the sampling of participants. Planning decisions are explained in terms of how ethical issues were addressed, the research phases designed and the research strategy adopted. The choice of data collection methods as 'best fit' in the context of this study is defended and the different steps in the thematic data analysis are outlined in detail. The chapter concludes by considering the nature of the evidence that will be presented in support of the findings.

3.2   Methodological stance: Pragmatism

3.2.1 Pragmatism as an 'alternative' paradigm for social research

When discussing methodological decision-making, many research guides in the social sciences advise students to start by taking an ontological and epistemological stance on how they perceive the social world and what they consider appropriate knowledge in their field (Burton and Bartlett, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011; Bryman, 2016). This usually involves dividing researchers into two seemingly "incommensurate" camps (Morgan, 2007: 58): positivists employing quantitative research strategies seeking generalisable findings, and interpretivists viewing all knowledge as socially constructed, aiming to collect thick, qualitative data to gain insight into emic perspectives (Bryman, 2016; Hartas, 2010). Such distinctions are

important as they have an impact on how the quality and rigour, and therefore the warrant, of the research are judged.

However, such a dichotomous approach is not without problems. Not only is the incommensurability of the two paradigms a theoretical fallacy (Pring, 2000; Morgan, 2007; 62), but it is also not how most research projects are, or indeed should be, conceived. Most researchers are not led by 'top-down' metaphysical concerns but aim to find solutions to practical problems and take institutional and situational circumstances into account when planning research designs (Bryman, 2006; Bryman et al., 2008; Morgan, 2007: 63f.).

This was also the case for my study, whose practical rationale originated in my employer's initiative, which encouraged teachers to adopt CLIL but provided little guidance. Based on the literature, it was assumed that the best way to support pathway subject teachers would be to offer RP-based professional development activities with the aim of developing their TLA. For the project to work in practice, however, several institutional requirements had to be adhered to. Furthermore, my personal circumstances changed during the project and the study had to be adapted accordingly. Thus, methodological decisions were necessarily influenced by notions of workability and feasibility as the research design, strategy and data collection methods had to fit the practical problem, research questions and situation at hand.

While such a practice-oriented approach might appear contradictory to the research guides' advice on epistemological and ontological decision-making, it can be defended by the alternative stance of pragmatism (Morgan, 2014; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2003; Morgan, 2007; Bryman et al., 2008), the position adopted in this study. Pragmatism advocates that "methodology follows from inquiry purpose and question" (Greene, 2008:13), not the other way around. It is an approach commonly used in the social sciences, reflecting the 'real world' need to get research done (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005: 377; Bryman, 2006: 117). At its most basic, pragmatism simply states that research should fulfil a practical purpose and methodological choices should be appropriate for the question at hand, regardless of their association with traditional research strategies and paradigms (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). If appropriate, methods can even be combined ('mixed') across quantitative/qualitative boundaries (Biesta, 2010; Bryman et al., 2008; Greene and Hall, 2010).

Due to its rejection of the traditional metaphysical approach to research design, some have labelled pragmatism an "anti-philosophy" or "anti-epistemology" (Greene

and Hall, 2010: 132; Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 10). However, engagement with the pragmatist school of thought reveals that pragmatism itself draws on philosophical roots and that important questions regarding the nature of knowledge, truth, research rigour and warrant can still be addressed under this "new paradigm" (Morgan, 2014). The following section therefore briefly outlines pragmatism's philosophical foundations and demonstrates their relevance for this study.

3.2.2 *Philosophical pragmatism and its implications for academic inquiry*

Pragmatism originated as an American philosophical movement rejecting the traditional Western mind-matter dualism, claiming that reality reveals itself through interaction (so-called transactions) between humans and their environment. Through experience we are connected with the world around us, and what we experience is real (transactional realism) (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 10, 43). As humans engage in transactions with their environment, patterns of actions (habits) are formed, often on the basis of trial and error (ibid.: 12). Through reflection we can think about different lines of action – and therefore make our actions more intelligent – but only when we *do* act will we know for certain whether the response was appropriate for the situation. Knowledge is therefore no longer concerned with the world 'as it is' but is dependent on experiences, action and understanding the conditions and consequences of our actions (ibid.: 12, 45; Sundin and Johannison, 2005: 24). This has important consequences for academic inquiry in general and this project in particular: knowledge is seen as intrinsically linked to practice. It is generated as a consequence of action and reflection in a particular situation and in relation to a specific issue (Hammond, 2013: 607), in this case the development of pathway teachers' TLA. Like many pragmatist research projects, this study is concerned with knowledge creation aimed at bringing about change and practical improvement (Goldkuhl, 2012: 136, 139).

The pragmatist assumption that knowledge is linked to practice and generated through reflection on action is of course doubly relevant in my project as it also underpins the RP activity. Dewey's writings – already cited in the context of the CLIL-RP activity (see section 2.4.1) – not only recommend RP as a tool for professional development but are also key to the establishment of pragmatism as a philosophical and methodological approach (Sundin and Johannisson, 2005: 25; Morgan, 2014: 1046). Just as practitioners are encouraged to move away from routine or impulsive

decision-making to more intelligent action through reflection (Dewey, 1922: 170; Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 38), academic inquiry in Dewey's view can be considered a reflective process that starts with the recognition that something is problematic and leads to new understandings, self-conscious decision-making and the questioning of habitual action on the basis of evidence (Dewey, 1933: 12ff., Morgan, 2014: 1046ff.; Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 57f.). As such, the nature of my (or any other) research project is essentially that of a reflective inquiry but with the important difference that it not only serves individuals' professional learning (as in the case of the CLIL-RP activity and the participants' development of TLA), but also aims to bring new, systematically-generated knowledge into the public domain. By documenting how the CLIL-RP activity was conceived and undertaken, by capturing participants' TLA development as it occurred, and by investigating participants' evaluation of the whole process, we can hence make a contribution to the wider academic community (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 70; Morgan, 2014: 1047; Robson et al., 2013: 100).

Pragmatism is further relevant to this study as it ties in well with the sociocultural approach to learning that underpins both CLIL pedagogy and the principles of the phase two development activity. Just as sociocultural theory emphasises that learning results from collaborative meaning-making and is therefore the consequence of social practice, pragmatism considers all experiences, actions and knowledge generation as social processes in which language acts as a facilitative tool (Sundin and Johannisson, 2005: 25f., 34f.; Morgan, 2014: 1047). Both allow us to shift our focus from individual experience to the creation of common understandings and intersubjective reality (Sundin and Johannson, 2004: 37; Marshall et al., 2005). Pragmatism, therefore, not only allows me to provide a methodological framework for this study but also supports the pedagogical decision-making with regards to the CLIL-RP development activity.

Pragmatism's assumption that knowledge reveals itself through action and reflection on action in a particular situation has further consequences on how the nature of knowledge is conceived: knowledge is inevitably context-bound. This has guided the design of the CLIL-RP activity, which placed great importance on providing contextualised data and learning opportunities for the participants. However, this also has wider implications for academic inquiry: As we live in a constantly changing world there is no certainty that patterns of action will hold true in other situations or in the future. Knowledge is therefore fallible – we can never be absolutely sure (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 13; Bernstein, 2010: 151). Thus, we

need to accept that the conceptual outcomes of an inquiry can never be described as the 'truth', only as "warranted assertions" that are valid in a certain context (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 67; Greene and Hall, 2010: 131; Morgan, 2014: 1048) – the search for absolute truth is futile (Reason, 2003: 10; Sundin and Johannisson, 2005: 29). This has two important consequences for academic inquiry. Firstly, as knowledge is seen as relative to time, place and purpose of the research, it is crucial that researchers are transparent in their description of the context and methodological choices to demonstrate how the findings have been generated (Hartas, 2010: 41). This principle has guided this written account of the study, which does not seek to provide 'absolute truths' but instead offers careful observations and tentative suggestions about how real-world problems may be solved. This can help other practitioners judge the transferability of the findings to their context (Greene and Hall, 2010: 132; Morgan, 2007: 72). Secondly, given pragmatists are not concerned with finding the 'truth', the whole purpose of research shifts from seeking knowledge for its own sake to providing practical guidance (Sundin and Johannisson, 2005: 27). This does not mean that social research should be limited to an instrumentalist position (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 76; Marshall et al., 2005: no page; Morgan, 2014: 1046), but it does remind researchers that their quest for knowledge needs to be relevant and useful to everyday practices and lives (Reason, 2003: 4).

To achieve this, the community affected by the inquiry needs to be carefully considered. Participation in knowledge creation is thus no longer the sole privilege of academics but is opened to the wider practitioner community (e.g. teachers) (Reason, 2003; Hammond, 2013). This not only justifies my role as practitioner-researcher, but also affects how we view the participants in an inquiry. They are no longer considered mere objects of study but as contributors to knowledge creation. Joint interaction, collaboration and communication are crucial in an inquiry as this will allow for mutual, intersubjective understandings and successful, workable lines of action to be established (Morgan, 2007: 67, 72; Greene and Hall, 2010: 132). For my study this meant I needed to carefully plan how participants' voices could be included, how democratic involvement could be fostered and how ethical issues could be addressed (Reason, 2003: 5, 9; Garrison, 1994: 13; Torrance, 2012).

While philosophical pragmatism therefore provides the theoretical underpinning for the claim that practice should indeed be considered before principles (Reason, 2003: 1), it does not mean that the adoption of a pragmatist stance is a free-for-all

where anything goes. As in any research project, questions of rigour and warrant need to be addressed. The emphasis on practical issues and the commitment to finding solutions that are workable and feasible in a specific context and for a specific community as starting points for any inquiry have already been outlined. Another criterion to judge the quality of pragmatist research is whether the methods of inquiry are 'fit for purpose' – whether they are actually adequate to investigate the research question, and whether, in cases where methods are mixed, they have been integrated appropriately (Bryman et al., 2008: 269, 272). This gives pragmatic researchers flexibility in their methodological choices, but also entails the responsibility to explain why such choices were made and to demonstrate that good practice guidelines were followed (Hammond, 2013: 615; Bryman et al., 2008; Morgan, 2014: 1049). Transparency with regards to the description of the situational context and the why and how of the data collection processes is therefore crucial. Equally, the researcher needs to reflect on how the choice of investigation method impacted on the knowledge that was generated (Garrison, 1994: 11). I address all of these issues below, when I describe the institutional context in detail, justify the adoption of a qualitative research strategy, outline the methods and analytical approach chosen, and when I consider the nature of the evidence collected. However, my role in this study went beyond that of a researcher as I was also the leader of the workshops and therefore a key participant in the development activity. Thus, a reflexive commentary is added in Chapter 7 to discuss the impact my role had on the development of the participants' TLA and to reflect on my own learning experience.

3.3   The institutional context: Access and institutional requirements in relation to the study

The pathway centre in which this study was undertaken was introduced in section 1.7. As previously mentioned, this was my workplace and hence institutional access was easily obtained. My background as CLIL teacher in Germany was known to the academic director and in 2011 he suggested I deliver presentations at my centre as well as at a company-wide staff conference that encouraged the adoption of CLIL (see section 1.4). When I therefore proposed this research project to him in October 2013 he was already familiar with the wider issue and agreed it might be a worthwhile undertaking. While he offered his support, he was keen to ensure the

study would not interfere with the everyday running of the busy centre. Given that programmes are offered twice a year – with one cohort running from September until late May and another from January until July – most teachers' duties peak between January and May when they teach, administer and mark assignments across both cohorts. Thus, the academic director was concerned about workload and timetabling issues and put some restrictions in place that I needed to adhere to.

Firstly, the academic director influenced the timing of the research, as he was keen to get the project started as quickly as possible. This meant the start date was set for November 2013 and phase one had to be set up rather hurriedly, including approaching the participants and obtaining their consent, as well as seeking the university's ethical approval. Secondly, the academic director was concerned about timetabling. He promised to arrange timetable slots so that the participants could attend the collaborative workshops, but to give himself greater planning flexibility, he asked me not to include the science/engineering pathways. Although these timetable slots never materialised – an issue immensely impacting on the CLIL-RP activity (see section 2.4.2 and Chapter 7) – it meant that science teachers were excluded from the project. Finally, being further concerned about staff workload, the academic director suggested I only approach teachers that would not be burdened with any extra-curricular commitments during the academic year. Thus, he limited the group of potential participants to eleven.

3.4   The participants

Over a two-week period, I approached the suggested teachers, explaining the study's purpose, timeframe and expected commitment. Thus, the participants could decide whether to take part in the study and give informed consent (see section 3.5). It was anticipated that a minimum of six teachers would be needed at the start of the project to allow for people to withdraw so that hopefully a complete data set for four teachers could be obtained. Of the eleven teachers, however, eight (two more than anticipated) were keen to participate. Of these eight only one withdrew after workshop (henceforth WS) 1 in phase two. For me, this was a clear indication that the teachers considered the study relevant for their practice.

Of the eight teachers, three were male and five female. Three worked part-time and five full-time. All were British and native speakers of English. None had received any formal English language teaching or CLIL training, but three had taken part in the

above-mentioned conference presentation and had some basic knowledge of CLIL. None of them had personal experience of what it meant to be an international student. Given that there are no formal requirements regarding the qualifications that pathway teachers need to hold, their educational background, teaching qualifications and experience varied greatly. Table 3 provides an overview of the participants' programme and subject areas, as well as their teaching experience and qualifications.

Programme affiliations	• Pre-University (Business and Management) • International year one (Business) • Pre-Master's programme (Business, Humanities and Social Sciences, Architecture)
Subject area	• Economics • Marketing • Introduction to Business • Management and Organisation (M&O) • Quantitative Methods (QM) • Study and Research Skills (SRS) • Architecture *The subjects listed here are the teachers' main subjects that they were observed in/recorded for in this study. Some teachers also had experience of teaching other subjects, including Study and Research Skills or British culture*
Teaching Experience on pathway	• Between one and five years.

Other teaching experience	• Between one and twenty years in a range of sectors, including:
	  o FE Sector
	  o Higher Education
	  o Secondary schools
	  o Business related training courses

Teaching qualifications	• Diploma in Teaching in the lifelong learning sector (DTLLS) • Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills (QTLS) • Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) • Postgraduate Diploma Professional Development (HE) • No teaching qualification
Note: To conceal teachers' identities, this table provides a summative overview rather than individual affiliations. One teacher withdrew from the study after the first workshop session in phase two. Given the nature of the research design, insights gained from this teacher's data set in phase one contributed to the establishment of the TLA development foci. However, descriptions of cognitions/practices relating to this teacher are only provided in a summative fashion and direct quotes have not been included.	

Table 3: Overview of participants' programme affiliations, subject areas and professional experiences and qualifications

3.5   Ethical considerations

When planning the project, different ethical issues were anticipated; some were dealt with at the onset of the study, while others needed to be addressed throughout. The first step was to seek approval for the study from the centre's academic management and the relevant university ethics committee. After these permissions were granted in October and November 2013 respectively, the teachers were approached individually, and meetings were set up to explain the particularities of the study, including the purpose of the study, how the data would be collected and analysed, what kind of commitment was expected and how data was going to be stored and used. Once the group of volunteers was complete, the participants received a written consent form where these issues were outlined again; a formal statement informing the participants of their right to withdraw from the study was included (appendix A). This ensured that all participants received the same information and that they would be able to give their voluntary informed consent (BERA, 2011; Oliver, 2008: 116).

While the research focus was firmly on the participating teachers, the recordings of classroom interaction inevitably involved students as part of the context. Although the students at the centre had already given their consent to be recorded at the beginning of the course and were used to being filmed (e.g. for assessment, marketing and other research purposes), I still deemed it important that they understood the purpose of the recordings. Again, a written information sheet was provided and the students were also able give their informed consent to take part in this study.

Apart from consent, the power relationships between the participants as a potential ethical conflict needed to be considered before the data collection could begin (Cohen et al., 2011: 89). As some teachers held managerial responsibilities in addition to their teaching role, I needed to ensure that any potential imbalance in power relationships would not cause distress to the participants or create problems within programme teams. This issue was discussed with the academic director, and when the shortlist of potential candidates was drawn up, it was carefully planned that neither the researcher nor any of the other teachers would be in a line managerial position in relation to any other participants. Thus, there was an equality of professional power relationships within the group.

While issues regarding consent and managerial relationships could be tackled at the onset of the study, other areas of potential ethical conflict needed to be

addressed throughout the project. Firstly, as the study involved a professional development activity, it could be argued that it was aimed at changing individuals' ideas and behaviours and could therefore potentially violate the teachers' right to self-determination (ibid: 89). Therefore, the participants were informed at the beginning of the study that they would be introduced to CLIL learning and teaching strategies, which might lead them to alter their practice. However, they were assured that no one would be forced to adopt a pedagogical approach they did not want to employ, and this pledge was repeated several times during the workshops. Furthermore, in accordance with the pragmatist commitment to find practically relevant solutions and to view participants as contributors to knowledge creation, opportunities for feedback were built into the different phases of the study to ensure the participants could voice their opinions and evaluate the relevance of the CLIL-RP activity for their professional practice (e.g. respondent validation in WS1, SR interviews, focus group and survey). This, it was hoped, would add to a sense of professional empowerment, and therefore be ethically acceptable, rather than lead to disenfranchisement or a violation of teachers' self-determination (Torrance, 2012; Reason, 2003; Marshall et al., 2005)

Secondly, I needed to keep in mind that the study might add considerably to teachers' already heavy workload. From an ethical viewpoint, this carried the risk of exposing them to undue stress (Cohen et al., 2011: 89; BERA, 2011) and indeed, some teachers voiced their concerns regarding this issue during the recruitment meetings. I therefore carefully scheduled phase two so as not to overwhelm participants during peak times in the academic calendar. Teachers received information about upcoming workshops well in advance to help them with time-management. Given the lack of fixed timetable slots this was not easy, but I tried to accommodate teachers' needs as best as I could; when they were unable to attend a workshop or interview, an alternative was provided that suited their needs better. Even though this meant group membership and size varied constantly, making it much harder to form trusting relationships (see section 2.4.2), I felt it was important to put the participants' needs first.

Thirdly, issues of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity had to be addressed as the participants were encouraged to share their professional practice with others, and evidence was drawn from video and audio recordings. Some participants initially felt nervous about being filmed and had specifically asked that recordings would not be shared in the collaborative sessions, which was agreed upon at the start of the study.

Also, as it was anticipated that some of the discussions would involve personally sensitive reflections, the teachers were asked to keep information that was shared confidential to foster a trusting group atmosphere. The teachers were further assured that the data would be stored securely on a password-protected laptop/hard drive and that should evidence from the study be brought into the public domain, this would be done anonymously; participants' names used in this thesis are pseudonyms to protect individuals' identities.

Finally, one last ethical concern emerged during the workshops and related to the manner in which potential critique was communicated within the group. On the one hand I felt that critical reflection was an important part of RP and there were instances where teachers' beliefs and practices were questioned, by themselves, by other participants or by me, the workshop leader. However, given that I was keen to avoid the 'deficit' model of training (see section 2.4.1), I also felt strongly that this should not be done in a negative or demeaning way. Furthermore, the teachers were volunteers and committing themselves far beyond their normal duties, so it was important that their professional efforts and self-esteem not be violated in any way. I therefore tried to create an atmosphere in which it was possible to question and reflect on practice, but in a positive, non-judgemental manner. This was not always easy as the need to critically review one's thoughts and actions is essential in RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 8). The uncertainty around how to deal with this conundrum accompanied me throughout the workshop series (see Chapter 7). Still, there was no intention to evaluate the teachers' ideas and practices as 'ineffective' or in any other way negative, and to 'hail' CLIL strategies as a prescriptive remedial approach. On the contrary, when the occasion arose, I tried to suggest possible improvements to practice in positive and very general terms. This is also true for this thesis, which aims to provide a balanced description of the teachers' cognitions and practices and their journey through the development activity. Critical observations are included but there is no intention of being overtly negative or dismissive of individuals.

3.6   Research design

Having described the methodological stance, institutional context and ethical considerations impacting on the study, this section outlines the actual research design. In line with the pragmatist principle of transparency (section 3.2.2), I explain my decision-making regarding the phasing of the research project, the adoption of a

qualitative strategy and the selection of various data collection methods as 'best fit' in the theoretical and practical context of my study. An overview of the data collection is provided in Table 4.

Phase	Method	Approx. amount of recorded data	Research question
Phase I:	2 Focus Groups	1h 12min 1h 19min	I.1
	8 Semi-structured interviews[1]	2h 38min	I.1
	8 Lesson video recordings[1]	6h 40min	I.2
Phase II:	Workshop audio recordings • 4 x WS 1 • 3 x WS 2 • 3 x WS 3 • 3 x WS 4 • 3 x WS 5 • 7 x WS 6 (Stimulated recall)[2] • 7 x WS 7 (Stimulated recall)	2h 37min 3h 34min 3h 19min 4h 13min 5h 15 min 4h 58min 4h 15min	II.1-2
	Focus Group (FG.3)	1 h 10 min	II.1-2
	Online Survey		II.1-2
Phase I & II	Research Journal & reflective notes		I.1-2; II.1-2; Reflexive commentary
TOTAL		**42h 20min**	
Notes: [1]Due to unforeseen circumstances, Elaine's interview and lesson recording could not take place until after the first workshop session. Hence, her data did not inform the initial decision-making regarding the development foci. [2]Six teachers recorded classroom data for the stimulated recall sessions. Although we used this data as basis for the reflective discussions, it is not listed here as its main function was that of a reflective tool, rather than of primary evidence for the research project. The sections under discussion feature, of course, during the stimulated recall recordings.			

Table 4: Overview of the data collection

3.6.1 Data collection phases

The main aim of the research project was to explore the impact of the CLIL-RP activity on the participants' TLA. As outlined in sections 2.3 and 2.4, however, neither a universally accepted definition of TLA in CLIL, nor an all-encompassing model for its development exist: the literature argues for a contextualised approach to teacher

development through RP. Given, however, that there is a general research gap with regards to pathway teaching, it was impossible to establish such context-specific development foci on the basis of the literature. I therefore divided the project into two distinct data collection phases: phase one (December 2013 to January 2014) aimed to explore the participants' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study to establish context-relevant TLA development foci; phase two (January to June 2014) consisted of the CLIL-RP activity and its evaluation.

Given that there are few studies exploring the long-term effectiveness of TLA development in CLIL contexts – Lo's 2017 study is a rare example but even she bases the judgement of the effectiveness of her intervention on data collected in the immediate (rather than delayed) aftermath of the development course – I had originally planned to add a third research phase in October 2014. This would have allowed me to compare teachers' language-related cognitions and practices before and after the CLIL-RP activity at similar points during the academic year and to come to conclusions regarding its long-term effectiveness. However, over the course of the project it transpired that this would not be possible as I would go on maternity leave during the time of the planned phase three. Thus, the data collection concluded after phase two and the evaluation, originally scheduled at the end of phase three, was brought forward.

This unforeseen change in research design meant not only that little can be said about the long-term effectiveness of the CLIL-RP activity, but also that the study's overall focus shifted from a pre-/post-comparison of teachers' cognitions and practices to the development of TLA *during* the CLIL-RP activity itself. Given that there are few accounts that illustrate in detail how dialogic RP works in action (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 253), particularly with regards to the development of TLA – He and Lin's (2018) study is an exception but even they only provide few examples of the reflective discussions between teacher and teacher educator (see section 2.4.4) – this refocusing of the overall project was still deemed valuable to address an important research gap. By studying how the workshop discussions triggered the teachers to rethink their language-related cognitions and practices the development of new understandings could be captured as it occurred in the moment. Equally, the limits of their TLA development could be identified and cognitions and other factors that might hinder the implementation of CLIL explored. Even without a long-term perspective, this can shed light on the question of whether this kind of CLIL TLA

development activity is indeed a way forward for CLIL/pathway professionals and how it can be improved.

3.6.2 Research strategy

Although pragmatism is often associated with mixed-methods studies (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007), I opted for a mainly qualitative research strategy. For phase one I considered it most important to undertake an in-depth investigation to gain an emic perspective into my colleagues' language-related cognitions and practices so that contextualised development foci for the CLIL-RP activity could be established. Similarly, TLA is not an easily quantifiable entity whose development can be objectively measured; thus, the collection of further thick data in phase two seemed equally appropriate to examine the impact and teachers' evaluation of the workshop series. Additionally, my research field was limited to my own workplace and access to a small number of participants was institutionally regulated. Consequently, large-scale surveying, testing or random sampling as pre-requisites for the production of quantifiable data and statistically generalisable findings were not possible.

　　Thus, neither the research questions, nor the particularities of the context were suited for a quantitative study and I employed data collection tools mainly associated with a qualitative research strategy as 'best fit'. While this necessarily meant that the study's findings would not be statistically generalisable, this was not considered a weakness. On the contrary, given that educational contexts vary greatly, there is no need to assume that 'what works' in one setting will be equally effective in another (Pring, 2004: 207). Thus, the provision of detailed insights into a specific setting is "potentially far more useful" than statistical generalisability as thick descriptions allow other researchers and practitioners to infer how transferable the findings are to their contexts (Marshall et al., 2005: no page given; Larsson, 2009: 32ff.; Bryman, 2016: 384). Given the scarcity of CLIL TLA development studies, this also applies to this inquiry as it has the potential to be practically relevant elsewhere. To allow such inferences to be made, the following section therefore outlines in detail how data was collected and analysed.

3.7   Phase I: Data collection methods

To gain insight into my colleagues' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study and to be able to establish context-relevant development foci for the CLIL-RP activity, phase one of the data collection aimed to explore the following research questions (RQs):

I.1 What are pathway teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs?

I.2 What are the characteristics of pathway teachers' classroom practices with regard to language-related issues?

3.7.1 Focus group

Given the exploratory nature of RQ I.1, my first step was to set up focus group meetings, as they allow the investigation of such cognitions as opinions, beliefs and attitudes (Stewart et al., 2007: 9; Puchta and Potter, 2004: 66; Young and Sachdev, 2011) and provide insights into norms and group meanings associated with a specific issue by stimulating discussion and interaction (Bloor et al., 2002: 6; Parker and Tritter, 2006: 26). Given the time pressure in phase one (see section 3.3), it was also considered a feasible solution to generate data efficiently (Stewart et al., 2007: 42). Considering the project's collaborative spirit, I also hoped a focus group meeting would establish a sense of communality amongst the participants; however, due to timetabling issues it proved impossible to set up one meeting that all participants could attend, and two focus groups had to be organised.

Each meeting involved four teachers, which is an unusually low number for focus group research. As there is a risk for small focus groups to turn into group interviews with a dominant researcher and little participant interaction (Stewart et al., 2007: 37; Bloor et al., 2002: 26), I organised discussion activities that involved teachers in the completion of group tasks, thereby deflecting attention away from me. Following an opening question regarding participants' perceptions of their roles and responsibilities, the tasks consisted of:

- A diamond ranking activity (Conner, 1991; Clark, 2012; Aspinall et al., 1992) based around statements from the CLIL TLA literature suggesting a series of language-related responsibilities, knowledge and skills for subject teachers.

The teachers were first asked to rank the statements by themselves in order of how much they agreed with each statement. Once they had done so, they were invited to share their rankings with the group and to re-order them in a communal effort so that a new ranking reflecting the groups' joint agreement could be achieved. As this involved discussion and negotiation, it was considered a suitable means to elicit teachers' opinions, beliefs and attitudes (Aspinall et al., 1992; Conner, 1991: 127).

- A discussion about how the teachers perceived the challenges faced by pathway students. While the participants were first invited to discuss this issue openly, links to CLIL were made later by asking them whether they felt these challenges were due to the '4Cs' (Culture, Content, Communication, Cognition – Coyle et al., 2010: 41).

- A discussion regarding teachers' perceptions of students' linguistic needs. Similar to the diamond ranking task they were first asked to draw up a list individually and to then discuss and rank the items on their lists as a group.

With regards to the setting up and facilitation of the groups, good practice guides were followed (Stewart et al., 2007; Parker and Tritter, 2006; Puchta and Potter, 2004).

While the focus groups were considered a good starting point to gain an insight into teachers' language-related cognitions, they were not considered sufficient to address RQ I.1. This is due to the fact that by definition focus groups provide insights into group norms, but do not necessarily give voice to individuals' thoughts as participants' opinions will be influenced by other group members, and factors such as age, gender, personality or relationships impact on the discussion; thus, intra-group variation might be difficult to detect (Bloor et al., 2002: 13; Stewart et al., 2007: 20ff.). I therefore collected further data through interviews.

3.7.2 Interviews

The purpose of the interviews was to gain insight into the language-related cognitions individually held by the teachers. However, I recognised that due to the nature of cognitions the interviews would need to be carefully set up as teachers might find it difficult or unusual to talk in abstract form about such internalised concepts as attitudes, beliefs and knowledge (Borg, 2006: 224; Morton, 2012: 107; Loughran et

al., 2004: 371). Following suggestions in the relevant literature to contextualise such interviews (Loughran et al., 2004: 371.; Morton, 2012: 107f.), I therefore framed the interview questions in relation to the planning of a specific lesson and asked the participants about the thoughts and reasons informing their pedagogical decision-making when preparing for the lesson I was going to record as part of this study (see section 3.6.3). This, I considered, would not only reveal more general concerns and descriptions of their practice and help make tacit understandings "shareable" (Morton, 2012: 108) but also allow me to explore to what extent the participants took a systematic approach to lesson planning to foster language learning in their classroom, something advocated as good practice in CLIL (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Morton, 2012: 16, 70ff.; Järvinen, 2006). Thus, the interviews with their focus on planning were considered an adequate tool to address RQ I.1.

The interview schedule (appendix B) was inspired by the Content Representation (CoRe) tool (Loughran et al., 2004), an instrument originally developed to investigate science teachers' PCK (see section 2.3.4) through exploring their understandings of how to teach a specific topic. It has since been adapted to fit CLIL contexts and in its modified form encourages teachers to verbalise their cognitions regarding the linguistic representation of subject knowledge, learner characteristics and pedagogical strategies (Morton, 2012: 124ff.). Although the CoRe tool inspired the interview schedule for this study, I made several adaptations to suit the pathway context. For example, to minimise the interview time for the participants – who by this stage in the project had entered the peak period of their workload (see section 3.3.1) – a few questions from the original CoRe were deleted, while a question relating to skills development, a key issue on the pathway, and a question regarding long-term planning were added. Other questions were rephrased to be more poignant as I felt the originals were rather 'wordy' and not suited to creating a relaxed interview atmosphere. Also, while Morton has (2012: 134) argued for the benefit of providing teachers with the questions before the interview, I decided not to do so as I wanted to get an insight into their normal routines and was concerned that, if confronted with the interview schedule beforehand, the teachers might put a greater effort into their language-related planning than usual.

Regarding the format of the interview, a semi-structured approach was chosen as 'best fit' over other interview types as this had the advantage of simultaneously offering focus and flexibility (Borg, 2006: 236; Bryman, 2016: 466ff.). By drawing on the interview schedule, I ensured that each participant was asked a set of core

guiding questions. However, flexibility was retained as the interviewees were able to respond freely and I could add probing or follow up questions as and when necessary. Good practice guidelines were followed (Bryman, 2012; Denscombe, 2010; Cohen et al., 2011) with the intention of establishing a 'conversational' atmosphere in which the participants felt free to voice their opinions and not pressurised to state what they perceived as "socially desirable" (although it is difficult to avoid such an interviewer effect completely) (Denscombe, 2010: 178). This was particularly important as the interviewees were colleagues and I tried to minimise the potentially perceived hierarchical power status inherent in my role as 'researcher'. Also, it was hoped that such a conversational, more flexible style of interviewing would encourage the participants to start reflecting on their actions and make sense of their own experiences (Borg, 2006; Cohen et al., 2011; Hobson & Townsend, 2010).

3.7.3 Lesson observations

Although the interviews added further detail to the investigation in terms of individuals' language-related cognitions, I recognised that any kind of self-reporting only ever allows insights into teachers' claims regarding what they do in the classroom, but not into what they actually do (Borg, 2006: 216; 265ff.). Given, however, that the significance of possessing TLA lies in its practical application (Andrews, 2007: 39ff.; Andrews and Lin, 2018: 60), I also needed to explore the participants' teaching behaviour to be able to establish practice-relevant TLA development foci. To address RQ I.2, I thus collected observational data through (video) recording the lessons that were the subject of the interviews. Transcriptions of these recordings also provided the evidence for the data-led reflective workshop tasks in phase two (see section 2.4.2).

As filming and observation always carry the risk of impacting on the authenticity of the situation under investigation (Borg, 2006: 276) and of creating an uncomfortable atmosphere (ibid.: 281; Schmid, 2011: 267), something my participants were particularly apprehensive about, I tried to set up the recording equipment as unobtrusively as possible. For example, where possible I only used one camera (a maximum of two in bigger rooms) and set it up in such a way that it was either hand-held or on a tripod in a corner, not directly in the teacher's view. Additionally, digital audio recorders were placed around the room to collect sound

recordings of sufficient quality. As a non-participant observer, I tried to attract as little attention as possible; I did not engage in classroom activities and kept note-taking to a minimum.

3.8 Phase II: Data collection methods

The aim of the study's second phase was to explore the extent to which the teachers developed their TLA during the CLIL-RP activity and how they evaluated the whole process. Given the scarcity of TLA development studies in CLIL in general and the pathway sector in particular, this was deemed important to help inform similar activities in the future. The following research questions (RQs) were drawn up:

II.1 To what extent did the participants' TLA develop during the CLIL-RP activity?

II.2 How did the participants evaluate the CLIL-RP development activity?

3.8.1 Workshop observations

The principle form of data collection in phase two involved the recording of the workshop sessions as this seemed the most practical solution to document the naturally occurring and socially situated practice of the CLIL-RP activity. As I was the workshop leader and actively involved in the sessions, it was a feasible way for me to collect data on my own and to revisit the workshop discussions from an observer/researcher perspective later.

Instead of filming the sessions, however, I used audio recording equipment. While this had the disadvantage of lacking visual cues, it was a much more workable data collection method: not only were there more audio than video recorders available at the centre but their set-up was also less time-consuming, something that was important considering that the workshops had to fit around my and the teachers' busy workloads. Furthermore, I hoped that this form of recording would be less intrusive as some teachers remained reluctant about being videoed. As I foresaw that the reflective discussions might be "troublesome" for some participants (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 6; Dewey, 1933: 13), I wanted to create as relaxed an atmosphere as possible and not cause any undue stress by using the video equipment. Given that I would be able to identify the participants by their voices (unlike in the lesson

recordings where I needed the visual cues to identify students), this data collection method seemed the 'best fit' for the research questions and situation at hand.

3.8.2 Final focus group

While the workshop recordings provided insights into the development of the participants' TLA during the CLIL-RP, I deemed it important to also explore the teachers' language-related cognitions at the end of the overall process. Similar to phase one, where focus group meetings had 'opened' the whole project, we met in a final focus group (FG.3) as a kind of 'concluding' plenary session. Ironically, this was the first time all participants met together.

By setting the participants the identical diamond ranking group task as in the phase one focus groups (see section 3.7.1), the teachers were encouraged to express their language-related cognitions again to provide insight into the extent to which they had changed. Furthermore, FG.3 invited the teachers to evaluate the development activity. Although I had repeatedly asked for feedback regarding specific aspects of the CLIL-RP activity throughout the workshop series (e.g. I regularly encouraged the participants to tell me if something had been particularly useful or was in their eyes superfluous), in the focus group they now discussed the process as a whole. I specifically asked them about what they felt they had learnt, which development foci they had found useful (or not) and whether they had any suggestions for improvement.

As outlined in section 3.7.1, the focus group method was considered suitable to encourage discussion and the sharing of opinions amongst the participants. However, the same drawbacks applied, and I recognised that more vocal participants might dominate the group, making intra-group variations harder to detect (Bloor et al., 2002: 13). Furthermore, during the workshops, I had begun to realise that my personal and professional relationships with individual participants had an impact on how I addressed issues of critique with the teachers (see section 7.4). I was thus concerned about the reverse effect and wondered how openly the participants would voice their (potentially negative) evaluations of the project in my presence. I therefore considered it important to provide an evaluation space where the teachers could leave individual and, crucially, anonymous comments.

3.8.3 Online survey

To provide such an individual and anonymous evaluation space I designed an online survey. Although surveys are often associated with quantitative research strategies, I felt that this was the most practical tool in the circumstances. While surveys do not allow the same flexibility to react to participants' answers and delve into as much depth as interviews and therefore provide limited insights in terms of detail, they have the advantage of being time-efficient and easy to use – something I considered important given the teachers had come to the end of the workshop series and I did not want to burden them further. To allow longer comments to be made, I added text boxes to the questions where teachers could write more extensive answers if they so wished. Most importantly, the electronic nature of the survey guaranteed the anonymity of the respondents. Thus, from a pragmatist viewpoint, the addition of a traditionally quantitative method to the otherwise qualitative research strategy was considered a workable and feasible solution.

I administered the questionnaire using the *surveymonkey* account held by the study centre. The links were sent out by email to the participants in the week following FG.3 and they had one week to submit their responses. The questions and one sample of responses can be found in appendix H.

3.8.4 Research journal

In addition to the main data collection methods outlined above, I kept a research journal where I noted my ideas as the project progressed. In the interest of transparency and legitimation (Bryman et al., 2008) this helped me keep track of the development of the project and the methodological decisions taken. I particularly noted down any thoughts and observations after the lesson recordings and RP workshops. Often these were just brief instances that I found puzzling or surprising, at other times longer observations of patterns that I noticed as time went on. During the data analysis process, these mostly observational notes took on a more reflective tone as I began to rethink my role in the development workshops. Thus, they informed the reflexive commentary in Chapter 7.

3.9 Data analysis

As is common in qualitative studies exploring cognitions and/or behaviour (Vasimoradi et al., 2013: 400), a thematic approach to data analysis was chosen. As a flexible means to organise and describe large amounts of data, thematic analyses aim at identifying, analysing, reporting and interpreting patterns within or across data sets (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 79; Vasimoradi, 2013: 400). Unlike content analyses that involve quantification of countable codes (which can lead researchers to overlook the context in which the data was produced), thematic analyses retain a merely descriptive, qualitative focus and allow for contextual factors to be considered (Vasimoradi, 2013: 400). By collating individual pieces of data into meaningful, sometimes complex, themes, rich insights into collective experiences can be generated (Aronson, 1995: 2; Braun and Clarke, 2006: 79). Regarding their theoretical grounding, thematic analyses can be employed flexibly within different paradigms (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 78; Vasimoradi, 2013: 400) and are thus also compatible with the pragmatist stance. In the context of my study, such an approach meant that in phase one patterns in participants' language-related cognitions and practices could be identified and TLA development foci for the CLIL-RP activity chosen. In phase two, the analysis focused on identifying those areas where the teachers did (not) develop their TLA further and on reporting patterns in their evaluation to help inform future development activities.

Although thematic analyses are commonly used in qualitative studies, they have sometimes been criticised for lacking rigour and detail with regards to reporting how they were undertaken (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 78; Vasimoradi, 2013: 400). To avoid such criticism – and in line with the pragmatist commitment to transparency – I outline the analysis process in detail in the following sections. Additionally, a CD is included at the back of the thesis that contains documents and data samples illustrating key steps in the data analysis. Figure 4 below provides an overview of the data analysis process:

Phase I

RQ I.1:
What are pathway teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs?

RQ I.2:
What are the characteristics of pathway teachers' classroom practices with regard to language-related issues?

2 Focus groups

8 interviews

8 Lesson observations

Step 1: Transcribing the data   D.02

Step 3: Analysing the observational data   D.09-11
Procedure:
1. Writing detailed narrative lesson summaries.
2. Noting commonalities and discrepancies across observed lessons.
3. Production of lesson transcripts as evidence-base for RP workshops ongoing during phase II.

Step 2: Coding the focus group and interviews   D.03-08
Procedure:
1. Reading of the transcribed scripts, highlighting/noting interesting data fragments.
2. Applying initial codes using NVivo.
3. Printing of NVIVO transcripts: Re-reading of collated data fragments for each code, highlighting/noting key issues.
4. Seeking out relationships between codes: Sorting of codes into groups, noting similarities/links between codes. Themes start to emerge. Where necessary, collating/renaming/breaking up of codes to achieve a better fit of data fragments. Creation of a miscellaneous group for codes that do not fit into any group.
5. Arriving at a reduced set of codes and naming themes.
6. Reannotating of original transcripts (Word) to reflect reduced set of codes; highlighting of themes with different colours.
7. Final checking of all data fragments to ensure correct grouping.
8. Writing summary notes of themes.

➤ Respondent validation: WS 1

Step 4: Identifying development foci
Procedure:
1. Comparing themes and classroom practices.
2. Checking of relevant literature re. CLIL pedagogy.
3. Considering of time constraints.
4. Organisation of individual workshops.

→ see Appendix E (also D.12)

Phase II

RQ II.1:
To what extent did the participants' TLA develop during the CLIL-RP activity?

RQ II.2:
How did the participants evaluate the CLIL-RP activity?

Workshop recordings
Collaborative sessions (WS 2-5)
Stimulated recall sessions (WS 6&7)

Final Focus Group

Online Survey

Step 1: Transcribing the data   D.02
Procedure:
1. Writing detailed summary notes of different workshop phases.
2. Verbatim transcriptions of collaborative discussions.

Step 6: Coding and analysing the data for the evaluation   D.21-23
Procedure:
1. Reading.
2. Coding according to pre-conceived themes:
   - Learning experience
   - Toolkit
   - Data-led RP

Step 5: Coding the workshop data   D.14-20
Procedure:
1. Repeated reading and highlighting/noting of interesting data fragments.
2. Coding (annotating script by hand).
3. Making notes on individual participants.
4. Grouping codes into groups: Revisiting data fragments for each code, highlighting/noting key issues and finding similarities/links to other codes. Emergence of themes.
5. Writing summaries for each theme.
6. Final checking of all data fragments/revisiting recordings to ensure correct grouping, cross-checking against participants' notes.

Triangulation

Recommendations for future development activities – *Chapter 8.3ff.*

Self-reflection
Ch. 7

Explanation of the illustration
- Data sets are shaded in green
- Arrows indicate how data sets/analyses inform each other
- "Steps 1-6" refer to analysis steps as described in chapter 3.9ff.
- Documents D... refer to sample documents on the accompanying CD

Research journal

Figure 4: Data sets and analysis procedure

Explanatory comment - figure 4:

Figure 4 represents a schematic illustration providing an overview of the various data sets, the steps in the analysis procedure and how they relate to one another. The illustration is divided into two main parts reflecting the two different phases of the project; the data sets collected in phase I are shaded in light green, the data sets collected in phase II are shaded in dark green.

For each phase the research questions are provided alongside the data sets to indicate clearly which data set was collected to address the various research questions.

The research questions, data sets and analysis procedures are connected by arrows (⇨) showing how they relate to one another. Additionally, there is a link (—) between the interviews and lesson observation in phase I: The focus of the interviews was the planning of a specific lesson and it was this lesson that was recorded to provide observational data.

The visualisation further provides an overview of the main steps (numbered **step 1-6**) in the data analysis process. This numbering mirrors the numbering of the main steps outlined in sections 3.9ff. The procedure involved in each step is clearly indicated in the diagram. The numbers in blue **D.01-D.23** refer to documents and data samples on the accompanying CD.

3.9.1 Step 1: Transcribing the data

After each data collection phase, the first step in the analysis was to transcribe the recorded data. Although such transcriptions aim to represent reality and are commonly used as an empirical basis for the interpretation of verbal interactions, it must be recognised that they are inevitably removed from the temporal and situated context in which the original communication evolved (Jenks, 2011: 4). Thus, they can never fully reproduce spoken interaction and, depending on the detail of the transcription (e.g. pauses, intonation, non-verbal cues etc.), remain "approximations" i.e. selective and incomplete depictions only (ibid.: 42; Walsh, 2013: 94; Seedhouse,

2005: 166). Additionally, a balance between producing an accurate/faithful yet readable transcript needs to be found that is fit for purpose in relation to the issue under investigation and that can be produced in the time available (Jenks, 2011; 9, 42; Braun and Clarke, 2006: 88). Thus, transcripts are better considered as "constructs" resulting from the researcher's decision-making (Jenks, 2011: 11) than objective representations of verbal interaction.

Consequently, the what and how to describe in terms of the data collected were key decisions in the analytical process of my study. Again, I tackled the issue pragmatically and approached the transcription process slightly differently in the two phases, depending on the issue under investigation and the time available. Initially, I produced 'verbatim' orthographic transcriptions of the data collected during the focus groups and interviews. This was (mostly) done using transcription software (NVivo), and punctuation marks were used with caution so as not to distort the meaning. This seemed adequate given the focus was on exploring what kind of language-related cognitions teachers held. The observational data I approached differently. Here I first produced narrative summaries for each recording (see section 3.9.3) and later transcribed key sections of classroom interaction, highlighting pauses and stresses where noteworthy to gain greater insight into teachers' management of classroom discourse and as evidence for the RP workshops (appendix C and D).

While the transcriptions of the phase one data was thus manageable, they became decidedly 'messier' and more time-consuming for phase two. This was due to the unforeseen turn of events that, despite the academic director's repeated reassurances, timetable slots had not been allocated for the workshop sessions. Consequently, more and smaller meetings than expected had to be arranged, resulting in a much larger data set needing to be transcribed than was anticipated. To make the analysis process more efficient, I initially attempted to audio-code the data (Wainwright and Russell, 2010; Taylor and Ussher, 2001); however, I found it hard to concentrate on the spoken word without seeing a written representation and therefore turned to writing notes instead. As I was listening to the recordings, I composed detailed summaries of each phase of the workshops. This allowed me to get an initial overview of the main issues under discussion and to quickly navigate through the data later. I then sought out all phases that included collaborative discussions, listened again, and if necessary added greater detail to the summary or transcribed verbatim in the same way as the focus group/interview data. For those instances that were identified as key moments of "awakening" in teachers' TLA

development (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 260) I then returned to the recordings and, if needed, transcribed in greater detail. Equally, over the course of the transcription process I became more aware of my own interactional management of the workshop discussions (see section 7.5) and started to record how I used such interactional features as wait-time/questions in the transcripts as well. Thus, the transcription process was a key phase in the analysis process as it helped me get a first impression of the data. Although it thus formed the basis for further interpretative efforts (Bird, 2005 cited in Braun and Clarke, 2006: 87), I frequently revisited the audio files during the coding and writing up process to ensure I remained close to the data.

3.9.2 Step 2: Coding the focus group and interviews

Once the transcripts were complete, I read them several times and highlighted data fragments that seemed interesting or relevant to the research questions (Vasimoradi et al., 2013: 402; Toerin and Wilkinson, 2004: 73). These annotations of the script were then transformed into initial codes using NVivo. Data fragments were coded inclusively, i.e. with relevant preceding or subsequent information so that I would be able to contextualise the data later on (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 88). There was no restriction on how many codes were created and data fragments were associated with several codes at the same time. Also, many of the codes were still closely linked to the data collection questions. Using NVivo at this stage helped me retrieve data quickly and to get an overview of the initial codes.

Once all interesting data fragments from the focus groups and interviews had been coded, relationships between codes were sought, and codes were organised into meaningful groups. It is at this point that I found using NVivo less helpful and I turned to more 'traditional' methods instead, printing the transcripts and writing brief notes to summarise the key issues collated in each group. These notes were then compared and similarities, recurrent issues and deviant cases highlighted (Taylor and Ussher, 2001). It was at this point that I began to identify patterns in the data and I stepped further away from the original data collection questions towards initial 'themes'. Once a theme was identified, some complete group codes could be associated with that theme, while others were broken up, renamed or affiliated with different themes to achieve a better fit. Some codes could not be associated with a theme at all and were discarded or associated with a 'miscellaneous' group to be

reviewed later. As this process of grouping, breaking up and renaming codes had led to a much-reduced set of codes than the initial ones originally applied in NVivo, I returned to my original transcripts (in Word), annotated them using the new codes, and highlighted initial themes with different colours. Finally, I re-read all data fragments associated with a theme to ensure that they were grouped correctly.

3.9.3 Step 3: Analysing the observational data

Once I was satisfied that initial themes were identified in the focus group/interview data, I moved on to the lesson recordings. While there are different ways to analyse observational data (see Borg, 2006: 265ff.), I initially took an unstructured approach: rather than employing a pre-defined observation schedule, I produced narrative lesson summaries for each recording, where I not only noted down the teachers' lesson aims but also what was going on in each phase in detail. I paid particular attention to key sections in the classroom interaction to gain greater insight into the interactional management, again noting anything that seemed particularly interesting. Finally, I compared the lesson summaries and noted commonalities and discrepancies across the observed lessons. Thus, patterns of behaviour were identified that could then be compared to the analysis of the interview data. The production of longer, verbatim lesson transcripts as an evidence-base for the RP workshops was an ongoing process during phase two.

3.9.4 Step 4: Identifying development foci

The next step was crucial to move the project forward. The whole point of exploring teachers' cognitions and classroom behaviour in phase one was to inform the design of the RP workshops in phase two. Therefore, the initial themes resulting from the interview data and from the classroom behaviour were now compared. This involved moving back and forth between the literature and the data and comparing consistencies and discrepancies between the teachers' cognitions and their actual practice and linking them to areas of CLIL pedagogy. This was not done to 'catch teachers out', but to translate the findings of the analysis into meaningful development foci.

Just as Braun and Clarke (2006: 82) suggest that "keyness" of a theme is important to finally settle on which themes to report in an analysis, I was keen to

identify 'key' development areas. Although frequency is not necessarily a measure of significance, it can indicate that certain views or experiences are commonly shared (Toerin and Wilkinson, 2004: 73). Thus, I particularly investigated the data for language-related issues that were raised repeatedly or discussed at length as an indication that teachers felt strongly about them, or that were tackled differently by the participants to create opportunities for collaborative learning (Johnson, 2012: 29; Coyle et al., 2010: 69). Equally, I was guided by ideas of 'good practice' in CLIL and found myself noting areas for potential improvement – which I realised was getting very close to the 'deficit' model of teacher training I had wanted to avoid (see section 2.4.1). This conundrum would accompany me throughout the project and its impact is reflected on in Chapter 7.

Before moving on to the phase two data analysis, it is important to remember that, as in any thematic analysis, the process of coding, identifying, selecting and reviewing themes (and establishing the TLA development foci) was dependent on the conscious choices I made. Themes and development areas did not "simply emerge" but were "actively sought out" and informed by the relevant research literature (Taylor and Ussher, 2001; 310; Braun and Clarke, 2006: 80). To therefore ensure that my analysis was on the right track, I shared the preliminary results from the focus group/interview data with the participants and invited their feedback during the respondent validation in WS 1. I also gave further information about how the workshops would be organised and suggested potential workshop topics. The participants' responses were largely positive, so I returned to the data/literature, planned the sessions in greater detail, created the reflective tasks and collated the transcripts to be used as evidence. From a practical viewpoint this also meant I had to consider the time I had available for the workshops and how themes could be addressed so they would make pedagogical sense. In some cases, this meant tackling related themes in one workshop, while others were stretched out over several sessions (appendix E).

3.9.5 Step 5: Coding the workshop data

As outlined above, the data collected during the RP workshops consisted of large sets of audio recordings that had been summarised and in parts transcribed. These transcriptions of the collaborative discussions then became the basis for the analysis, which again involved a recursive process of detailed reading, note-taking, identifying

and grouping initial codes. This time I resorted to the traditional method of printing the transcripts, using marker pens and highlighter notes to order the data. During this process, I began to realise that some codes were more prevalent for some participants than for others, so I also compiled notes on individual participants. Finally, I ordered the identified codes into thematic groups, writing summaries for each theme and then revisiting the recordings to ensure data items were ordered correctly, cross-checking against the participants' notes. During the coding, I also made notes in my reflective journal of anything noteworthy regarding my own behaviour during the workshops, which became the basis for my self-reflective commentary.

By using the workshop transcripts as evidence, I essentially followed the same reflective process as the participants. Just as they encountered their own classroom data and examined and reflected on specific language-related issues to enhance their TLA (see section 2.4.2), I now analysed and reflected on the workshop transcriptions with the aim of finding evidence that teacher learning had taken place.

Regarding the kind of data items I focused on during the analysis, I was guided by research question RQ II.1. Given that the originally planned third phase of the project – which would have allowed me to compare participants' cognitions and practices before and after the CLIL-RP activity – had been cancelled, other ways of establishing that the participants' TLA was indeed developing needed to be found. I therefore focused on identifying which development foci the teachers engaged with most during the sessions and how this challenged their understanding and led to further insights. This included making notes of teachers' moments of "awakening" – instances of "growing realisation" of the connection between language and content (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 260) – and of (self-reported) changes in teaching practice as indicators that the participants were putting their newly found awareness into practice. As such new understandings do not come easy, teachers' "struggles" of coming to terms with their new-found knowledge and its practical implications were noted too (ibid.). Finally, I also recorded which development foci the teachers engaged with least and noted their concerns regarding the implementation of some of the CLIL strategies to identify the limits of their development of TLA and to expose what factors might act as 'gatekeepers' or barriers to the adoption of CLIL strategies.

3.9.6 Step 6: Coding and analysing the data for the evaluation

The analysis regarding RQ II.2 – the participants' evaluation of the development activity – followed the same stages as previously described, but this time my analysis was guided by pre-conceived categories. In the workshop and FG.3 transcripts and survey results I particularly looked for utterances regarding what the teachers had (not) found useful in terms of their learning experience and the toolkit, and how they felt about the fact that the activity had been data-led. Given the pragmatist principle that stakeholders' voices need to be included when it comes to judging the practical relevance of an activity (Marshall et al., 2005) and that "improvement" should be considered the ultimate consequence of an inquiry (Goldkuhl, 2012: 139), these categories, I felt, would be the most appropriate to inform the design of TLA development activities in the future.

3.10 Validating the findings: Triangulation and respondent validation

The employment of various data collection methods meant the research questions were investigated from a range of perspectives. This helped to cross-check and triangulate the findings and added depth to the analysis, therefore increasing the validity (or, to use Lincoln and Guba's phraseology, the credibility) of the study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985 cited in: Bryman, 2016: 384; Burton and Bartlett, 2009). For example, in terms of the evaluation of the development activity, I drew on the opinions voiced by the participants during the workshops and in FG.3, and further compared them to the comments left in the survey.

Furthermore, and in line with the pragmatist stance that any research should be practically meaningful, I used part of the first workshop for a respondent validation of the findings from the focus group/interview data. I further proposed some initial ideas for workshop topics and invited the teachers to comment and give feedback. Originally, I had also planned to arrange a similar validation for the phase two findings. However, due to unforeseen changes in my personal circumstances and the resulting delay in analysing the data, this was not feasible. Similarly, it must be acknowledged that no other researcher was involved in checking the reliability of my coding process (see Vasimoradi, 2013: 403 on reliability checks in content-based analyses). However, in the interest of transparency, a short extract of a coded data transcript is included at the back of the thesis so that the reader can get an

impression of how the data was coded and analysed (appendix G). Longer samples relating to the data analysis are provided on the accompanying CD.

3.11 Presentation and nature of evidence

Having outlined the data collection and analysis process and before moving on to the study's findings, I want to address how data extracts were selected for presentation and how I conceive the nature of the evidence collected. Given the formal constraints of this dissertation and in the interest of readability, I had to make choices about which accounts to include. In my decision-making I was inspired by the notion of "keyness" as defined by Braun and Clarke (2013: 82) in relation to the identification of themes (see section 3.9.4): I tried to select those examples that I felt showed a typical or particularly interesting aspect that exemplified the theme/pattern under investigation. As such, the data extracts are representations of wider issues and form 'evidence' in support of my analysis and the claims made.

This necessarily leads to a question about what the relationship is between the verbal accounts as evidence and the issue under investigation, namely TLA as part of teachers' cognitions and cognitive change. Studies employing similar data collection techniques as mine (interviews and/or thematic analyses) have been criticised for presenting verbal data as straightforward representations of teachers' cognitions (Talmy, 2010: 131ff.; Mann, 2011; Li, 2017: 61). One contentious issue is that many researchers seem to consider language as a neutral medium that can "reveal truths or facts" about the cognitions under investigation (Talmy, 2010: 132) and in their reports often focus on *what* was being said without paying any attention to (or providing contextualised evidence of) *how* these verbalisations were generated (Mann, 2011: 11; 2016: 152). This is considered problematic as such an approach ignores the fact that verbal data was produced in an interactional setting and are the result of the collaboration between the participants and the researcher (Talmy, 2010: 131; Mann, 2016, 2011: 10f.; Li, 2017: 61).

To avoid such a "discourse dilemma" (Mann, 2011: 6), other authors therefore take a different view regarding the nature of teachers' cognitions and the associated data collected. Morton's (2012) study on TLA for example employs sophisticated, time-intensive data analysis procedures, informed by conversation analysis and discursive psychology that allow him to investigate and present turn-by-turn how the verbal accounts in his study were co-constructed.

I also take the view that the collected verbal accounts do not reveal 'truths and facts' about the cognitions held by teachers, but that they result from the interactional and situational context – which necessarily includes the data collection and analysis methods used. This corresponds to the pragmatist stance that all knowledge emerges from action and reflection on action in specific social contexts and acknowledges that both teacher cognitions and the verbalisations of such cognitions are the result of social practices. This is why – as outlined above – transparency and reflexivity on behalf of the researcher are key, and findings can be described as warranted assertions only (Mann, 2011: 11; Greene and Hall, 2010: 131; Morgan, 2014: 1048; Garrison, 1994: 11).

However, and again in line with the pragmatist stance, it has to be remembered that this project is based on the assumption that through interaction and communication intersubjective agreements can be reached and that we therefore do not automatically need to assume that the verbal accounts are mere subjective constructions (Sundin and Johannisson, 2005: 24); cognitions are real experiences and language is the key tool through which they are mediated (ibid.: 25, 28; Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 29). Therefore, verbal data can indeed provide useful insights and content-based analyses are valuable tools in the research process. Furthermore, how verbal data are analysed depends on the research questions asked and the purpose of the research. Given their emphasis on practice-relevance, pragmatists are usually not so much concerned with exposing the epistemological foundation of cognitions but are interested in how meanings can be *used* (Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 101). Based on my study's practical rationale, I too wanted to focus less on exploring and presenting in detail *how* the participants' cognitions were formed (unlike, for example, Morton's 2012 study) – although I did come to realise that how I verbally interacted with the participants during the workshops influenced the development of their TLA, and I will discuss this in Chapter 7 – but more on their practical implications. The main purpose in phase one, for example, was to explore the participants' language-related cognitions with the aim of establishing the TLA development foci, and in phase two to investigate the extent to which the participants developed their TLA further and to inform future development activities through their evaluation. Thus, to use Mann's (2011: 11) terminology, I was also more concerned with the question of *what* rather than *how*. However, to address the 'discourse dilemma', I have sought to present the verbal accounts in as much context as the

format of the thesis allows so that the social interaction in which it evolved is evident to the reader.

3.12   Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodological decisions taken in this project. I have argued that due to its practical rationale, its philosophical rootedness in the belief that new knowledge is created through action and reflection on action, and its close links to sociocultural views of learning, pragmatism provided an ideal stance to adopt in this study. It helped frame this study as a reflective inquiry and provided the methodological flexibility required in a practice-driven project, but still served as a reminder that good practice criteria needed to be upheld against which the rigour and warrant of the study could be judged.

Given pragmatism's emphasis on practical relevance within a given context, I provided a detailed overview of the institutional setting and explained how the centre's academic management influenced the timing of the research project and the sampling of the participants. It was further shown how ethical concerns were addressed, not only during the planning phase but also during the data collection and writing up of the findings.

As pragmatism demands a high level of transparency and researcher reflexivity to demonstrate that research has been rigorously undertaken, I outlined in detail my decision-making with regards to the research design and defended the adoption of a mainly qualitative research strategy by highlighting the value of thick, emic descriptions when it comes to judging the transferability of findings to other contexts. I then demonstrated that the data collection methods were fit for the research questions and situation at hand and presented a step-by-step account of the thematic analysis undertaken. Finally, I considered the nature of the evidence that is presented as part of the findings in the next chapters.

Chapter 4. Phase I findings:
Teachers' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study and the establishment of TLA development foci

4.1   Introduction

This chapter outlines how the findings from the phase one data analysis informed the establishment of TLA development foci for the CLIL-RP activity. As described in section 3.6, the data consisted of focus group interviews, individual interviews and lesson observations. A thematic approach was chosen for the analysis, which was guided by the following research questions (RQs):

I.1 What are pathway teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs?

I.2 What are the characteristics of pathway teachers' classroom practices with regard to language-related issues?

The analysis revealed differing opinions and practices, but not all were discussed with the same level of detail or seemed equally relevant for all participants. Disagreement between participants and even contradictory statements by the same person were not unusual. While the former might be due to teachers' different (subject) backgrounds, I took the latter as an indication that they themselves seemed uncertain about whether and how to deal with language-related issues. Furthermore, not all discussion points were relevant to the research questions at this stage; some participants, for example, discussed institutional policies that could not be addressed in the workshops. However, some of these issues resurfaced in phase two and are explored in Chapters 5 and 6.

When selecting the development foci, I followed the procedure described in section 3.9.4 and eventually settled on four main areas, each involving various aspects and based on closely connected themes that could be reflected on from different yet complementary perspectives. In the following, they are introduced one-by-one while a visualisation of how the development foci were arrived at and one example of a workshop handout are included in appendix E and F.

4.2   Development focus 1: Subject-specific language and accessibility

Unsurprisingly, the development of subject-specific language featured highly when exploring teachers' cognitions regarding the fostering of international students' language skills and needs. Although all participants described their roles and responsibilities as subject or academic skills teachers/lecturers, there was acknowledgment that they were working in an L2 context and that the fostering of subject-related language was part of their remit. Hannah, for example, said: "*I don't see myself as an English teacher but I do see myself as a... person who needs to teach the students about relevant words or language or phrases that are appropriate within that [subject]*". All participants displayed such awareness of the interdependence of language and subject, as evidenced through numerous comments, both in the focus groups and interviews, on how the acquisition of "*technical*" language was key to access knowledge and for academic achievement. Even Violet, the Quantitative Methods (henceforth: QM) teacher, who conceded that due to the numerical nature of her subject she had sometimes felt "*guilty of kind of leaving English at the door a bit*", emphasised the importance of specialist language in her field. For the business teachers, the acquisition of adequate vocabulary was also an important aspect of professionalisation. Although the participants did not use that phrase, I took this as evidence that they were aware of the importance of specialist discourse in becoming part of a "community of knowledge and practice" (Sanchez-Perez and Salaberri-Ramiro, 2015: 576; Walker, 2010: 75ff.), both academically and professionally.

Interestingly, however, and concurring with observations of other content-based language classrooms (Karabassova, 2018: 6; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 338; Lo, 2014: 188; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 157), for many participants subject-specific language teaching seemed mainly concerned with "*terminology*" or "*words*". Questions regarding different registers, discourses and linguistic forms used in the classroom caused confusion due to a lack of understanding of the meta-language, were not commented upon, or were rejected outright (e.g. "*I don't focus on grammar*"). This was taken as indication that most teachers were not aware of, or did not consider, their classroom to be a potential space for explicit language teaching beyond subject terminology.

Some teachers further highlighted that academic language could be challenging for students due to its specialist – or in Colin's words, "*obtrusive*" – nature. Still, the

question regarding to what extent language learning should be supported was controversial. While some participants argued that it was a key responsibility for pathway teachers to do so, others disagreed saying such support would have to be limited to the immediate needs of the subject and deferred responsibility to the EAP team. Gareth commented that there was "*obviously [...] a continuum*" regarding how far the level of support for language learning could go, but admitted: "*I don't do it enough*".

Similarly, the question about whether teachers should modify their teaching or make materials 'accessible' triggered different responses. Andrew said that while accessibility was important, due to the course level this was not always possible and students would have to learn to cope with this challenge. Others agreed, saying students needed to be "*stretch[ed]*" beyond what was accessible to them, particularly with regards to terminology. Elaine, however, highlighted that accessibility of materials and language was vital for academic progression and added that good teaching always involved modification and support to meet the audience's needs, regardless of whether this was in an L1 or L2 context.

Differences in that respect were also noticeable in the interviews. Even though everyone seemed to agree on the importance of acquiring subject terminology, the teachers' planning for lexical development and support was quite different. While most teachers had a clear idea about new terms they were going to introduce, and while some had produced glossaries – Andrew even included a dictionary activity in his Study and Research Skills (SRS) lesson to let students investigate the meaning of the verbs "*to analyse, synthesise and evaluate*" – their responses regarding the language they expected students to use were generally much vaguer. Some teachers for example merely said "*academic*," "*business*" or "*simple*" language or that they encouraged the use of "*terminology*". One teacher only came up with specific examples after a short period of reflection, which gave the impression that this had been an afterthought prompted by the interview rather than a consideration during the planning phase.

Furthermore, there were differences in how consciously the participants had thought in advance about how to deal with language problems and whether they would be using any specific strategies to accommodate for the fact that they were teaching international students. Colin, for example, seemed to rely on a fairly limited set of strategies to deal with language problems (e.g. rephrasing of questions, further explanations) and deferred responsibility to the EAP teacher. Others talked in greater

detail about how they organised group work phases to build confidence and share ideas, the importance of visuals/media, how writing on the board could help with spelling and accent problems, the use of everyday language to help with academic terms and the presentation of content in smaller "*chunks*". Thus, there seemed to be variety amongst the participants regarding the support strategies they used to make content and language more accessible for their students.

Amid these differences, however, there seemed to be one area of consensus in that the teachers had not set explicit language learning aims/outcomes for the recorded lessons. The only exceptions were, arguably, Andrew, who cited the need for students "*to understand the meaning of the key terms*" in the above-mentioned SRS session, and Hannah, who briefly mentioned the need to "*understand definitions*". This not only confirmed views expressed in the focus groups, where the idea of setting explicit language aims got little support from the participants, but also echoed findings from other CLIL studies where teachers had not set language-specific learning aims (e.g. Karabassova, 2018: 9; Hüttner et al., 2013: 278; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 151). While some participants explained their reluctance to do so by deferring responsibility to the EAP team, Violet felt that language was already covered by the subject: "*We are setting outcomes for the content, and the language that we want them to know, the language which is content-specific, is kind of mixed in there, if you see what I mean?*" I took this as another indication that the teachers were aware of the interdependence of language and subject knowledge, but was simultaneously reminded of other CLIL studies where language development had been treated as an incidental "side-effect" (Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 153) of subject learning and therefore remained a "diffused curriculum concern" (Morton, 2012: 70, 285; Hüttner et al., 2013: 276; Moate, 2011: 338).

Reviewing these findings, I decided that a closer look at what is meant by subject-specific language would be a good starting point for the RP workshops: Firstly, the teachers were introduced to the idea that although terminology was an important part of subject literacy, the language needed to access knowledge and participate in classroom activities was more diverse. I highlighted that on the one hand this meant the subject classroom offered language learning opportunities beyond vocabulary but on the other hand that teachers also needed to be aware of wider linguistic challenges and different support strategies. This went hand-in-hand with introducing some relevant meta-language (e.g. genre, register, horizontal/vertical discourse, language of learning) to facilitate discussion and as a

means of raising TLA (Llinares et al., 2012: 25; Coyle et al., 2010; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 12; Morton, 2012: 17). Secondly, in the RP part of the workshop, the teachers were invited to analyse different classroom registers in their transcript, reflect on their accessibility and discuss their insights with a partner/group. Given the various support strategies used by the teachers, this seemed a good opportunity for collaborative learning. Another task involved the analysis of academic texts that the participants had brought. I also highlighted that systematic planning and setting of language aims could help when striving for a distinct language focus and greater accessibility.

4.3   Development focus 2: Teaching approach

The second workshop was intrinsically linked to the first. Beyond the importance attributed to academic terminology, the data also revealed consent amongst the participants that merely learning new words was not enough. Rather, students were expected to "*use*" and "*explain*" academic vocabulary to demonstrate understanding of underlying concepts. This, however, was felt to be a challenge for some students, as extract 4.1 shows:

Extract 4.1 FG1 CAH8 – 23.15-24.45		

Context: During the diamond ranking task in focus group 1, the teachers discussed the statement *"A pathway teacher needs to design and use linguistically accessible materials"*. This led Colin to reflect on the nature of language in Economics and the need for students to be able to use and understand the underlying concepts, rather than merely memorise terms.

1	Colin:	I mean Economics is a classic example of a highly technically specific
2		language set which, frankly, ahem, a lot of students need to have
3		different things explained to them and it's more the explanation itself
4		rather than the acquisition of being able to memorise the word.
5	Andrew:	Yeah, if they understand the concept=
6	Coin:	=Yeah, the understanding how it, how the, how a particular concept
7		behaves and [the context it operates in]
8	Andrew:	[Yeah and the label you apply is actually]
9	Colin:	is less material,
10		but it's still, it's clearly important but the reality is, the number that,
11		what they certainly know is how to memorise t-, ahem terms. They all
12		know how to memorise terms but very few of them actually are
13		learning around the terms sufficiently often=
14	Andrew:	=Yeah=
15	Colin:	=which is why I didn't have it in, at the top of my=
16	Hannah:	=But for me that's absolutely right. They can sit and nod and a lot of the
17		students will say the particular jargon appropriate to that subject but
18		when you actually ask them if they do understand, which is why I spend
19		a lot of time saying, ok, this is, this is an area we are going to look at, we
20		have a glossary of terms and when we discuss what those mean, and I
21		actually get them to explain to me what that means, so we are
22		focussing on quite specialist language but at the end of it, in theory,
23		they can actually use it rather than just repeat it in a parrot fashion
24	Teachers:	Mhm.

The impression that students were prone to 'memorising' or 'parroting' (l.4/11/23) was largely attributed to educational experiences in students' home countries, where, some participants believed, less value was placed on learners' ability to demonstrate understanding than in the UK. Lydia, for example, said her students' behaviour sometimes reminded her of a visit to India where she had witnessed "*learning by rote*" and "*chanting*".

While such perceived, sometimes stereotyped, differences in learning culture are well documented (Winkle, 2014: 212; MacGregor and Folinazzo, 2018: 301f.; Bird, 2017: 335ff.; Gorry, 2011; Turner and Robson, 2008: 40ff.) and partly justify the existence of pathways (see section 1.2), the observations added another dimension to this issue. Although the teachers agreed that they wanted the students to verbalise

understanding, their various teaching approaches and the ways they managed the classroom interaction were not in all cases equally conducive in achieving that end. In fact, it was striking how teacher-centred some of the lessons were and how relatively few opportunities there were for students to use, let alone explain, the subject vocabulary. Out of the eight observed seminars, two were almost completely organised around teacher presentations with some instances of IRF (see section 2.3.1) or other activities (e.g. drawing), and one lesson was split in teacher lecture with minimal IRF plus calculation practice, which students largely undertook by themselves. The other lessons did include collaborative activities where students discussed various tasks in groups, but some still contained considerable stretches of 'mini-lectures' or teacher-dominated IRF. From a CLIL perspective, this was considered problematic as this restricted the space for students to engage in the negotiation of meaning of academic vocabulary and to produce lengthy and complex utterances conducive to language and content learning (Dafouz et al., 2010; de Graaff, 2007; Llinares et al., 2012: 52ff.; Coyle et al., 2010: 35).

Of course, depending on pedagogical goals, there are good reasons why teachers may choose non-interactive, authoritative (lecturing) forms of communication (Llinares et al., 2012: 54), particularly on HE preparation courses, and Dalton-Puffer (2007: 91) has even criticised the absence of lectures in many CLIL classrooms as "impoverishment of [...] linguistic input". Equally, it must be remembered that for each participant only one lesson was recorded and therefore no conclusions can be drawn as to what extent the non-dialogic teaching observed in some classes was 'typical' for any one teacher or is indeed prevalent on pathways. However, given the "disconnect" between teachers' cognitions regarding students' desired language use and some of the observed classroom practices, this issue was puzzling (see Lin, 2016: 63).

Particularly interesting in this context were teachers' cognitions regarding the question of whether they should encourage communication amongst students. While some commented that this was indeed important as it would help students adapt to the Western education system and develop confidence to speak, others reported problems with group work (e.g. students using L1). Interestingly, there were two incongruences between interview and teaching practice: Andrew, who had ranked the need to foster communication quite low in the focus group, included several group work phases, while Colin, who had emphasised the role of student communication in peer learning, presented his lesson as a series of teacher-

dominated mini-lectures (with interspersed IRF) with little opportunity for peer interaction/communication.

Equally noticeable was how the teachers who had organised collaborative forms of learning justified this in the interviews. While Andrew made clear links between the group activities in his lesson and his aim to get the students to "*think about*" the meaning of the terms he wanted them to understand, others argued differently. Some teachers predominantly commented on the need to foster team working/business skills or mentioned how group work could help with the sharing of ideas, building of confidence and bring greater variety to the class (e.g. *"it's a way of livening things up")*. Two teachers did not make the connection to students' language development at all, and others did so in rather general terms (e.g. students need to "*improve their English skills*", "*group work will help them to develop [...] business and language skills when they are talking together*"). Although there was clearly an understanding of some of the benefits of collaborative ways of working, I wondered again whether some teachers had a rather incidental view of language learning, considering it as a side-effect of such activities, rather than employing them as deliberate tools to get students to use and engage with the desired subject-specific terminology.

Another striking feature was how classroom conversations were managed. During IRF interactions in particular, opportunities to encourage students to verbalise understanding were often missed. Except for Lydia, who regularly prompted her students for elaborations, in many instances teachers accepted a single word or a short phrase for an answer and then used it as a cue or "label" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 261) to expand on it themselves. Note in extract 4.2, for example, how Colin neglected to prompt students to verbalise their understanding and explained the answers for the first questions himself, only asking for an explanation in line 25 (l.25):

Extract 4.2 LO.C FlipC2 0.00-1.57
Context: In Colin's Economics lesson, the students completed a worksheet containing a range of "true/false" statements. In this extract, Colin checked the answers with the class. Note how he failed to prompt students to verbalise their understanding for the first few questions and only asked a student for an explanation in l.25.

1	T:	"Demand influences the market price more than supply." Is that correct?
2	Ss:	No.
3	T:	No, because demand and supply are equally important in influencing the
4		market price. So, it's false. Question number two: "There is a tendency for the
5		price to rise when the quantity of the demanded good is greater than the
6		quantity supplied." So, it's the likelihood that the price will rise if the quantity
7		demanded is greater, what do we call the quantity demanded being greater
8		than the quantity supplied?
9	Sf1:	Excess demand.
10	T:	Well done, it is <u>excess</u> demand. So, we know that the solution to excess
11		demand is a shortage which means to raise the price, so that's true. "The
12		demand of an individual consumer is the same as aggregate demand" What do
13		you think **(name)**?
14	Sf2:	False.
15	T:	False because aggregate demand means total demand in the economy. It's not
16		the same as the demand of an individual consumer. So, aggregate demand is
17		something we are going to be discussing in <u>macro</u>economics, we are discuss-,
18		you are being taught <u>micro</u>economics, you're learning about <u>micro</u>economics
19		just now, which is about individual behaviour, specific markets, not the whole
20		economy. Macroeconomics is about the whole economy and about total
21		demand and total supply and we are not discussing that. We are not learning
22		about that just now. And finally, question four. "The concept of demand and
23		supply is useful for the pricing decisions of firms." So, is that true or false?
24	S:	True.
25	T:	True. Tell me why it's true?

In one lesson, the teacher accepted a word-for-word repetition of a definition given earlier; another included an instance of chanting – something that had been frowned upon by another teacher in the focus group. Wait-time as an interactional feature (Dalton-Puffer, 2006: 202; Walsh, 2011: 21) was also used to varying degrees. Lydia remarked in the interview how she sometimes left "*huge*" wait-time to enable students to answer and indeed, most teachers often left extended pauses. However, there were instances when wait-time was noticeably short. Colin in particular had a tendency to nominate students after a short wait-time or to quickly move on/rephrase the question when a response was not immediately forthcoming (see extract 4.3).

Extract 4.3 LO.C C1 14.03-15.03
Context: Following a graph activity in his Economics lesson, Colin asked the students to think about the consequences of shortages in the market. Note the brief wait-time and how he quickly reformulated the question so that it could be answered more easily (i.e. in one word).

```
1    T:    What's the advantage of this particular thing do you think? (.) What's the
2          advantage in the long term for the market? (2) Why is this a benefit for the
3          market? (.) I am not saying it's fair, it's not fair, but what does it allow, what
4          does it mean about shortages? (1) Are shortages going to be temporary or
5          permanent? (3)
6    Sf:   Temporary.
7    T:    They are going to be temporary. Correct. So, one of the real benefits of this is
8          that for the market this is self-correcting. It means there is always a correction
9          that takes place in the market and we never have permanent shortages and
10         that's a big advantage in terms of allocating resources (continues)
```

Echoing Musumeci's Italian CBI (1996) and Dalton-Puffer's Austrian CLIL (2007) studies, some teachers' management of whole-class interaction therefore limited students' opportunities to engage in the negotiation of meaning and to participate in extended academic discourse. While teachers appeared as "primary knower" (ibid.: 170), students were often rendered to a passive role (see Nikula, 2010: 112).

Of course, it must be remembered that some observations involved students who were fairly new to the course, which might explain teachers' reluctance to insist on longer responses; Hannah for example said that she would not "*put pressure*" on her semester one class so as not to undermine their confidence. While I interpreted such concerns as an awareness of the importance of creating a non-threatening atmosphere in a CLIL environment (Escobar and Walsh, 2017: 192), the question remained as to what extent the students' perceived cultural expectation that memorising words without providing explanations was sufficient, was indeed confirmed, rather than challenged, by how some teachers managed the interaction, therefore (unwittingly) reinforcing undesired classroom behaviour.

Workshop 3 therefore aimed to raise participants' TLA regarding different communicative approaches and the importance of dialogic teaching (Llinares et al., 2012: 52ff.; Coyle et al., 2010: 35). Reflecting on their transcripts, the teachers were invited to examine who dominated the classroom communication and assess the degree of student involvement. We also raised the question of who was mainly using the desired subject-specific language, teachers or students? For those participants

whose lessons had included group work, I provided extracts of student discussions so that teachers could gain an insight into and share the potential benefits of collaborative forms of working as a learning space for students (Escobar and Walsh, 2017: 201). Reflections and practical tips were shared on how a dialogic teaching approach could be achieved and the teachers were reminded of the importance of planning adequate linguistic support. The issue of interactional management to foster student engagement was raised, but further explored in workshop 4.

4.4 Development focus 3: Adaptation to academic culture

The issue of culture was revisited in the next workshop, this time with a focus on the role language plays in academic adaptation and related cognitive processes. As outlined in section 2.2.2, CLIL aims to foster intercultural awareness, for example by introducing learners to the customs of the target language area (Coyle et al., 2010: 39; 55). While adjustment to British life was briefly discussed in one focus group – mostly because teachers felt many students were not participating enough in popular culture and thus missing out on language learning opportunities outside of class – the adaptation to academic culture was, unsurprisingly, a much more pressing concern.

In addition to the issue mentioned above – students' perceived tendency to memorise words rather than explain concepts – the participants discussed a range of concerns they believed to be rooted in differences in learning culture: many students' seeming lack of critical thinking and collaboration skills; difficulties with analysing, interpreting and evaluating; and an apparent deference towards the teacher as someone who imparts knowledge, as evidenced in frequent student requests for the "*right answer*" (and subsequent struggles to accept that not everything was "*black or white*"). For the business teachers, this was compounded further by students' age and lack of work experience. Some of these concerns were explicitly linked to linguistic matters: many students' perceived inability to ask questions or read critically and a need to develop argumentation and discussion skills, both for group work and essay writing, something which, Elaine said, the majority of students had little experience of. Overall, and in line with the wider literature on international students' adaptation to 'Western' styles of learning (e.g. MacGregor and Folinazzo, 2017: 301f.; Bird, 2017: 335ff.; Gorry, 2011; Turner and Robson, 2008: 40ff.), most pathway students were perceived to be struggling with the fundamental skills needed to engage in UK academic culture with its emphasis on learner autonomy, enquiry, and

ability to verbalise understanding and demonstrate reasoning skills. Gareth commented on how this manifested itself in classroom discourse (extract 4.4):

Extract 4.4 FG2 GVEL 9.33-10.07		
Context: During the focus group the teachers discussed the challenges when teaching pathway students.		

```
1    Gareth:   You said something earlier, Lydia, when you mentioned the answer of
2              two words, that's the big problem for me.
3    Lydia:    Mhm. Yes.=
4    Gareth:   =They, they, you ask them a question, they give a two-word answer and
5              that's not an answer, it's demonstrating, sorry, it's not demonstrating any
6              understanding.
7    Lydia:    The depth
8    Gareth:   Yeah, they don't go any [further forward]
9    Lydia:                            [Mhm Mhm]
10   Gareth:                                        They don't give you the "so
11             what" they don't really give you the "why" and the "therefores."
12   Lydia:    Mhm, mhm.
```

While many participants explicitly commented on their responsibility to help with academic adjustment, there was acknowledgement of the tension between support, or as Lydia put it, "*spoon-feeding*", and providing students with the space to become independent learners:

Extract 4.5 FG2 GVEL 8.46-9.14		
Context: During the focus group the teachers discussed the challenges when teaching pathway students.		

```
1    Lydia:    They're not, I mean initially certainly when they come in, they're not
2              autonomous and they need to be autonomous, really, by the end of of of
3              year one and of course we are spoon-feeding them so much and it is how
4              you ease off that sort of spoon-feeding pedal if you like (laughs) to then
5              allow them to sort of become, ahem, you know, self-reliant, be able to
6              research properly (continues)
```

Other voices questioned to what extent the programme made it clear to students what was expected of them: Elaine, for example, criticised that there were too few instances where students were shown examples of good work (e.g. essays) and

Gareth said too little time was spent on discussing their previous experiences of assessment and helping them adapt to the new requirements.

The issues of support, practice space and expectation setting came up again when analysing the interviews and lesson observations. As mentioned above, the question resurfaced as to what extent the teacher-centred nature of some of the recorded lessons did indeed provide opportunities for students to practise the desired cognitive (and associated linguistic) skills. Despite teachers' insistence, for example, that it was important for students to learn how to discuss, analyse, apply and critically question, not all the lessons contained activities that allowed this to happen. Most learning outcomes and activities centred around the understanding of concepts; three included an element of application (e.g. a marketing exercise). While there were a couple of instances where students were asked to evaluate (e.g. to discuss advantages and disadvantages of certain corporate cultures), in other lessons opportunities to engage students in higher-order processing (Anderson and Kratwohl, 2001: 67f.) and associated verbalisation were missed. In one lesson, for example, the students were shown a short advertising video, but instead of letting the students analyse the content, the teacher did so herself. In another case, the students drew various graphs, but again it was the teacher who provided the analysis of the finished diagrams, therefore replicating the teacher's role as "primary knower" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 170), limiting opportunities for student contributions, and potentially reinforcing students' perceived expectations.

The management of classroom discourse also contained few features to trigger critical and independent thought. Most questions were display questions aimed at lower-order cognitive processes (Anderson and Kratwohl, 2001: 67f.) and centred around the expression of more or less complex conceptual knowledge. While 'why' questions were regularly asked, there were a couple of instances reminiscent of Dalton-Puffer's reports on 'facts'-based questioning in Austrian CLIL classrooms (2006; 2008: 12). Furthermore, referential questions triggering answers "unknown to the teacher" were relatively rare in the observed data (Llinares et al., 2012: 84). While this might not be surprising, after all we expect subject teachers to focus on content and know the answers to the questions they ask (ibid.; Lyster, 2007: 90), the underrepresentation of such questions was considered potentially restrictive as they can encourage students to elaborate their thoughts, experiences and opinions regarding a specific topic and thus contribute to students' communicative and cognitive engagement (Llinares et al., 2012: 84ff.).

Triggered by the focus group comments that too little time was spent on discussing academic expectations, I also wondered whether students were aware what it actually meant to think critically or to analyse/evaluate. The SRS lesson had covered this, but did students understand how this translated into subject lessons? None of the teachers, for instance, had highlighted to the students the kind of cognitive process (e.g. application, evaluation) they were involved in during the lesson or provided them with the relevant terminology.

As above, it must be re-emphasised that only eight lessons were recorded and therefore the scarcity of higher-order thinking activities in the observational data cannot be considered representative of all pathway teaching. Equally, not all topics lend themselves to critical analysis or higher-order processing. Given that many recordings involved lessons relatively early during semester one, it was probably not surprising that time was mainly spent on covering basic concepts as, presumably, more challenging tasks would follow later in the course. Still, the discrepancy between teachers' desired student behaviour and the lack of opportunities to adapt to and practise the necessary academic and language skills was puzzling and therefore an important issue for reflection.

In workshop 4, I thus started by briefly outlining CLIL's stance on culture and the importance of raising students' intercultural awareness, for example by discussing previous educational experiences. We then moved on to the role of language in academically challenging tasks and I provided the teachers with Anderson and Kratwohl's (2001) overview of Bloom's revised taxonomy, a framework used both in CLIL and HE literature (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010: 31; Nikula et al., 2016: 10; Biggs and Tang, 2011: 124). This was done firstly to invite teachers to reflect on the extent to which they encouraged different types of cognitive processes in their teaching, and secondly to raise awareness of the complex language involved: what could they do to support students' understanding of these concepts in the context of their subject? Furthermore, I introduced the idea of *language through learning* and the need for teachers to not only plan strategically but also seize the opportunity to highlight language as it incidentally comes up in class when engaged in cognitively demanding tasks (Coyle et al., 2010). The teachers were invited to reflect on their transcript by examining the tasks, questions and language used and to think about alternative ways how this could be handled.

4.5   Development focus 4: Classroom interaction

The final development focus was concerned with raising awareness about how language learning can be supported as a result of classroom interaction. Workshop 5 thus involved revisiting and expanding on issues already touched upon in previous sessions, but also introduced new aspects. In an attempt to reinforce the notion that language and content learning should be 'counterbalanced' in CLIL (Lyster, 2007; Llinares and Lyster, 2014; Llinares et al., 2012: 12; Morton, 2015: 256), the session started with the idea of teachers pro-actively focusing on language form as a means to enhance students' language awareness and support language development. This tied in with earlier workshops as it aimed at heightening participants' understanding that the fostering of subject-relevant language skills goes beyond terminology. It can involve the language needed for taking part in classroom activities or in academically challenging tasks, including lexical, phonological and grammatical features (Lyster, 2007: 30; Costa, 2012: 33). I particularly drew attention to the idea of 'focus on form' through input enhancement as a means to help students notice language features as they come up in classroom interaction; for example, not only by explaining lexical meaning, which, in line with other studies (e.g. Morton, 2015; Costa, 2012: 37; Lyster, 2007: 58; Matiasek, 2005, cited in Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 6) was a common occurrence in the observed lessons, but also by introducing students to relevant rules (something not done by the teachers in this study at all) and using emphasis and typographical input enhancement (e.g. highlighting, writing on board). These latter two were mentioned by some of the teachers as strategies in their interviews (albeit without using the meta-language) and featured in the observational data to varying degrees, so it seemed appropriate to include these interactional features here.

We then moved on to a related issue: the reactive focus on form through corrective feedback. This had not been discussed so far but had featured in the focus groups with different attitudes expressed by the participants. Lydia, for example, said that she "*could not help*" but highlight incorrect use of language, both in class and in written work, as she felt it was part of her role: "*I would not think I was really doing my job if I just let them go on with it.*" Colin, too, stated that he would provide corrective feedback, particularly if the incorrect language hindered others from understanding the subject. Other participants, however, had reservations regarding error correction. Hannah felt that in order to overcome students' "*nervousness of speaking*" it was important to create an "*environment where people feel they can speak and they can*

actually express themselves and not worry about people laughing at them",
especially early on in the course. Gareth similarly felt he "*would rather [students]
have an attempt at answering a question in full*", and Andrew considered it more
important that students were expressing themselves in a meaningful way rather than
being absolutely correct. All agreed, however, that if corrective feedback was given, it
should be done in a "*gentle*" way and most gave examples about how they would
summarise or reformulate an utterance rather than interrupt or point out that
something was "*wrong*".

Interestingly, these opinions mirror discussions in the literature, with some
authors reporting cases of content-based language classrooms where expression of
meaning was prioritised over error correction, particularly when teachers identified as
subject specialists (Lyster, 2007: 27f.; Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 14; Swain, 1996: 97).
Equally, other teachers shared concerns over the face-threatening and potentially
demotivating effect of error correction (Morton, 2012: 244, 263). Overt repair, in
particular, seems to be perceived as too 'negative' and therefore avoided (ibid.: 246;
Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 13f.). Others have criticised the reluctance to correct language
mistakes in a CLIL environment, and – just like Colin and Lydia in this study – have
pointed out that repair creates learning opportunities, helps shape common
understandings, and signals the need to improve (Lyster, 2007; Llinares et al., 2012:
91; Milla and Mayo, 2014: 2; Morton, 2012: 244, 258).

Despite these differences in opinion, however, the recordings revealed that actual
classroom behaviour was much more aligned amongst the participants in the sense
that error correction was generally rare in all observed lessons. This was partly
because some sessions were dominated by teacher talk and short student
responses, but there were also instances when mistakes were not commented upon.
The cases of repair that were observed were congruent with teachers' stated
preferences as they mainly consisted of teachers reformulating – or, in Lyster's
(2007) terms, *recasting* – incorrect utterances.

While there is inconclusive evidence as to what extent such recasts are indeed
the preferred form of error correction in CLIL (Lyster, 2007: 93; Milla and Mayo, 2014:
8; Koopman et al., 2014: 133; Morton, 2012: 258), they seemingly fit into the
communicative purpose of meaning-based classrooms: they provide linguistic
support without interrupting the flow of conversation or losing the content focus
(Lyster, 2007: 96; Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 13). However, from a language learning
viewpoint, recasts may be problematic. As meaning and form are closely connected,

particularly if a lexical error is involved, it can be ambiguous for learners to detect whether an utterance is being repaired for content or language, especially as the reformulation of a content idea can also signal acceptance (Lyster, 2007: 96f.; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 77; Li, 2014: 197). Consequently, students might not notice the language error. In the few observed cases, this was considered a realistic problem, particularly as some were preceded by an affirmation of content (e.g. "*that's right*", "*good*", "*yes*" – see l.5/7 extracts 4.6/7), which students might have taken as an affirmation of language as well. Additionally, the conversation usually moved on after a recast, so corrections were obscured further, and students rarely got a chance to self-repair (Milla and Mayo, 2014: 13).

Extract 4.6 LO.A Cpart2 7.58-8.29
Context: In his Study and Research Skills (SRS) lesson, Andrew asked the students to explain the meaning of "to evaluate", then corrected the student utterance by recasting it. Note how the recast followed an affirmation (l.5 - "Good") of the student answer.

1	T:	To judge how useful, good or successful something is. So, again, what does that
2		mean in practice? What do we have to do?
3	Ss:	**(various explanations)**
4	S:	Assess something with a standard.
5	T:	Good. Assess something against a standard. Yes, saying does it meet these
6		requirements or this standard. Good. What else might you be doing if you are
7		evaluating things?

Extract 4.7 LO.L Cpart1 19.58-20.40
Context: Lydia introduced/checked understanding of vocabulary needed to read a case study. Like in the previous instance, the recast followed an affirmation (l.7 – "That's right").

1	T:	Can we just just briefly have a little look at that case study. Just words that you
2		might not know. Innocent drinks makes smoothies, drinks made from pure
3		crushed fruit with no preservatives. What does "no preservatives" mean? I used
4		a similar word in the glossary which was additive. What's a preservative?
6	S:	Make this food or drink can preserve more time, more longer time.
7	T:	That's right. Something that you put into the drink that makes it last longer,
8		yes. Now, do you think that people like that or not?

Although questions of 'uptake' – students' acknowledgement of the need to repair an utterance – and 'effectiveness' of different forms of corrective feedback are context-dependent and generally difficult to answer (Llinares and Lyster, 2014; Milla and Mayo, 2014: 7), it has been suggested that more explicit forms of error

correction, particularly prompts to self-repair – such as clarification requests, repetition of error, elicitation or meta-linguistic feedback – might be more suited to highlighting linguistic form and engaging students dialogically in a meaning-based classroom (Lyster, 2007: 99; 108) and that teachers need to be able to employ a variety of repair strategies (Llinares and Lyster, 2014: 183; Milla and Mayo, 2014: 8).

The session's first reflection task therefore focused on the issues of input enhancement and corrective feedback. The teachers were presented with data extracts from across the group and invited to discuss how through the various interactional features used a greater focus on language form had been created.

As this tied in with the wider topic of management of classroom discourse, the session moved on to the concept of classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2011; Escobar and Walsh, 2017). We revisited many of the issues already covered in previous workshops and reiterated the need to align pedagogical goals with language use (Walsh, 2002, 2006). This time, however, we focused less on the overall teaching approach, but more on interactional management as a "tool for mediating and assisting learning" (Walsh, 2011: 130). In this context, we discussed the role of IRF patterns (see also Lyster, 2007: 89ff.; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 72ff.; Llinares et al., 2012: 76ff.) as the lesson observations had revealed that at times the teachers' management of such interaction had failed to create adequate (language) learning opportunities (see sections 4.3 and 4.4). In particular, I reinforced the idea of providing students with the space to engage both cognitively and linguistically and take an active part in meaning construction. We summed up the interactional features discussed previously, e.g. the need to vary question types to engage higher/lower order processing and encourage more complex student responses (Lyster, 2007: 89ff.; Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 12; Llinares et al., 2012: 85), and we re-emphasised the significance of the feedback move to prompt and challenge students to explain, justify and exemplify (Lyster, 2007: 91). Other ideas about how students could be further engaged were introduced, such as through extended wait-time, facilitation of peer feedback, clarification requests and confirmation checks, as well as reformulations and extensions to provide more appropriate language or feed in a missing word (Walsh, 2006, 2011; Dalton-Puffer, 2006: 201f.).

The second reflective task therefore included a close examination of these interactional features in use and a discussion of their overall communicative effect. This was aimed at raising teachers' awareness that through their management of classroom interaction they could create (or obstruct) opportunities for language

learning and achieve a more dialogic teaching approach (Walsh, 2002; Llinares et al., 2012: 76ff.).

At the end of the session, the teachers were introduced to the next phase of the RP development activity and presented with the CLIL toolkit (appendix F.2), a device to support them further in their reflective efforts (see sections 2.4.2 and 5.4.1). It consists of two pages: one to be used as a planning aide; one as a self-observation guide to encourage reflection on classroom interactional management. This was inspired by Walsh (2003, 2006, 2011) but specifically contained the issues discussed during the workshops to ensure it was relevant for the pathway teachers. To help the participants move on from reflection to action and encourage the use of some of the suggested strategies, they were given the task to prepare one lesson using the planning tool and to take a snapshot recording involving teacher-student interaction. We then met in one-to-one stimulated recall sessions to reflect on the planning/teaching process evident in the recording. This was repeated once more (workshops 6 and 7).

4.6   Summary

This chapter outlined how the development foci for the CLIL-RP activity were informed by the findings of the phase one data collection. The analysis of the focus group data, interviews and lesson observations not only revealed that there was a great, sometimes contradictory, variety regarding the language-related cognitions and practices displayed by the participants, but also that many of the findings mirrored observations reported in the wider literature, for example participants' predominant focus on lexical items with regard to subject-specific language or their diverse opinions regarding corrective feedback.

Furthermore, there seemed to be a disparity regarding the support strategies used by the participants to make content and language more accessible for the students. Given the context, the participants unsurprisingly emphasised the cultural challenges faced by pathway students and their need to adapt to UK learning culture, placing a high value on students' ability to demonstrate understanding, critical thinking, reasoning and discussion skills. However, the analysis also revealed that their various teaching approaches and the ways they managed the classroom interaction were not in all cases equally suited to achieve that outcome and that (language) learning opportunities were often missed. Thus, the CLIL-RP activity was

organised around four broad issues with the aim of raising teachers' TLA with regards to the diversity of the language used in the subject classroom and related support strategies, the importance of a dialogic teaching approach for content and language learning, the role of language in academic adaptation and related cognitive processes, and the fostering of language learning opportunities through classroom interaction. All these development foci covered various aspects and lent themselves to be reflected on from complementary perspectives. An overview of the CLIL-RP activity can be found in Table 5.

	Workshop title	Key issues covered	Reflection tasks
WS 1	Preliminary data analysis and Introduction to CLIL	• Key findings from the phase I data collection • Participant validation of suggested workshop topics • CLIL as a pedagogical and theoretical framework	
WS 2	Focussing on subject-specific language in CLIL	• Linguistic diversity of the subject classroom • Genre, instructional/ regulative register, horizontal/ vertical discourse, language of learning • Collaborative sharing of support strategies • Planning	• Analysis of regulative/ instructional registers • Analysis of horizontal/ vertical discourses • Accessibility • How could greater accessibility of language be achieved?
WS 3	Dialogic teaching in CLIL	• Different communicative approaches • Dialogic teaching • Planning, language for learning	• Comparison of T/S utterances: Length? Use of horizontal/ vertical discourse in instructional register? Peer interaction? • How could a more dialogic teaching approach be achieved?
WS 4	Adaptation to Academic Culture	• Intercultural awareness in CLIL • Academic culture, cognition and language • Bloom's taxonomy • Language through learning	• Analysis of questions/tasks and their impact on students' language production • How could greater cultural adaptation be fostered?
WS 5	Classroom interaction and Introduction to the CLIL-RP toolkit	• Focus on form: Input enhancement/ corrective feedback • Classroom interact. competence • CLIL-RP toolkit	• Analysis of interactional features and their communicative effect
WS 6&7	Stimulated recall: Moving on from reflection to action	• Teachers use planning tool to prepare a lesson • They take a snapshot recording • One-to-one reflection on the changes made using the reflection toolkit (stimulated recall)	

Table 5: CLIL-RP activity overview

Chapter 5. Phase II Findings:
The development of participants' TLA during the CLIL-RP activity

5.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the phase two findings. The analysis followed the procedure outlined in section 3.9.5 and was guided by the following research question:

II.1 To what extent did the participants' TLA develop during the CLIL-RP activity?

The chapter contains five parts. Sections 5.2 and 5.3 illustrate that during the collaborative workshops the participants' language-related reflections and discussions mainly revolved around two concerns/themes: accessibility and student engagement. Each theme, however, involved various subthemes which were not equally relevant for all participants. On the contrary, each teacher seemed to find 'their' individual development issue(s), with some degree of overlap. To capture the development of TLA as it happened (see section 3.6.1), the evidence presented is mainly based on examples of teachers' moments of "awakening" – i.e. occurrences of "growing realisation" of the connection between language and content (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 260; also: Mann and Walsh, 2017: 41: "lightbulb moments") – but also of self-reported changes in teaching practice as indicators that the participants were appropriating and applying their new knowledge. As such understandings do not always happen easily, teachers' "struggles" with coming to terms with the interdependence of content and language learning and its practical implications are reported too (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 261).

Section 5.4 then outlines the extent to which the teachers considered their new insights when planning for and reflecting on the snapshot recordings during the SR sessions (WS 6&7). Finally, sections 5.5 and 5.6 cover those development foci that the teachers did not reflect on and outline teachers' concerns about contextual factors they felt hindered the implementation of some CLIL strategies. This is important for understanding the limits of teachers' engagement with language-related issues and the cognitions and other factors that might act as "gatekeepers" or barriers to the adoption of CLIL (Mori, 2011: 454).

5.2 Developing TLA in the collaborative workshops: Accessibility of language

The first theme I identified related to the accessibility of language. This issue had been raised in WS 2 as part of fostering teachers' awareness that classroom language goes beyond subject-specific terminology and depends on the genres and registers used (see section 4.2). I highlighted that in their instructional register, teachers can draw on both technical/vertical and everyday/horizontal knowledge and that this offers development opportunities for different types of language (Llinares et al., 2012: 38ff.; Bernstein, 1999). Depending on students' common knowledge and experiences, teachers need to be aware to what extent the use of horizontal discourse might serve as a support strategy to make input comprehensible or whether it might even be an obstacle to understanding (Llinares et al., 2012: 47f.; Kong and Hoare, 2011: 320). The reflection tasks invited the teachers to identify regulative/instructional registers and vertical/horizontal discourses in their transcripts, to comment on whether they felt this had been accessible to the students, and to discuss relevant support strategies.

This set-up triggered initial discussions about what some perceived to be a lack of clarity in their speech (Hannah, Colin, Elaine, Andrew, Gareth). A major talking point and recurrent subtheme throughout the workshop series, however, concerned the use and development of vertical and horizontal discourses. While not all teachers were convinced that everyday language could indeed act as a "springboard" towards vertical concepts (Llinares et al., 2012: 47), the discussions did challenge some participants to reconsider their assumptions and practices (subthemes 1 and 2). Colin, however, continuously struggled with the idea of balancing linguistic accessibility with subject demands; his reservations are explored as subtheme 3.

5.2.1 Subtheme 1: Horizontal and vertical discourse

The use of horizontal and vertical language was widely discussed by the teachers, but their reflections revealed different perspectives. Hannah, for example, felt there was a good balance of academic and everyday language in her transcript and that this had been accessible for the students. Violet, too, commented that although there were many technical terms in her transcript, the choice of example (cake) to contextualise the topic (hypothesis testing) allowed her to draw on students' common knowledge. Still, she admitted that she did not always succeed in catering to their

linguistic repertoire, and related how an example involving a "*double-glazing salesman*" had "*startled*" the students.

In comparison, Lydia, Andrew and Elaine had greater reservations about using everyday language. In Andrew's case it was the lesson's topic (assessment criteria) which he believed left little scope for non-technical language, while Elaine and Lydia maintained that whenever they could refer to students' everyday (linguistic) knowledge they would do so, but because of the students' lack of work experience this was difficult in Business subjects. Lydia in particular was concerned that "*generic words*" could cause problems and lead to time-consuming explanations that were distracting from the content. In extract 5.1 she related an example from her practice.

Extract 5.1 WS2 AEL – 39.48-43.04		
Context: Follow-up discussion to reflective task 1 (identification of vertical/horizontal discourse in teachers' transcripts)		

1   Lydia: I also teach QM and I mean everybody laughingly, at this time of year
2   because I hate teaching normal distribution and we talk about sheets of
3   steel, bolts and different component parts. Well, yesterday, I had to
4   draw a bolt on the board and I am not going to tell you what it looked
5   like **(teachers laugh)** but they all started to laugh, whether it's a big or a
6   small one **(teachers laugh)**, I'm not sure what they must have thought
7   what they were doing, but you know that's the sort of, they don't know
8   what bolts are **(laughs)**
9   Andrew: And to you it is completely off the point, you know=
10 Lydia: = Yes I know it does not matter and in the end I got really quite
11   frustrated you know and I said it does not matter what it is, it does not
12   matter, when we are testing it could be apples, it could be apples, and
13   you know, different sizes but it is funny things like that just get totally in
14   your way of something, you're trying to do a quite complicated formula
15   with them, you know, and you know all of those traditional examples
16   unfortunately that we have, that we work through, are all that way
17   because it's like factory, it's parts that you produce in a factory, you
18   know sort of component things and it does, it sort of makes me laugh,
19   really in a sense you know I spend more time talking about, and a few
20   weeks ago I was looking at decision trees and it was about tennis and
21   whether something is in or out, oh my goodness **(teachers laugh)** and
22   we had things drawn and it is <u>totally</u> off the point, you know, of that
23   thing, you know, maybe they're not very good examples and we need
24   to rework them **(laughs)**
25
26   **(Discussion continues; Sandra highlights that language varies in**
27   **different subjects but also that she would not have known what nuts**
28   **and bolts are as it is outside her everyday experience; Lydia talks**
29   **about bringing in screws as visual props)**
30
31 Sandra: So I think really this is it, just an activity to raise your awareness of the
32   kind of language that you are using and to kind of think about as you
33   are preparing your next next lesson, to keep at the back of your mind, is
34   that something where I can use some more horizontal, everyday
35   knowledge to bring it in, but equally as you are using your horizontal
36   knowledge, again is this actually accessible, is this really part of their life
37   experience? You know, would you as a language learner necessarily
38   know what nuts and bolts are, you know?=
39 Lydia: =Yes, it is specific language, isn't it? Really, yeah.
40 Elaine: Yeah, but I realise here, I am talking about attiudes and shared values
41   and so on which really is not accessible in terms of their their
42   knowledge

From a TLA perspective, extract 5.1 is notable for various reasons. Firstly, Lydia's anecdote was reminiscent of Violet's double-glazing salesman example above, suggesting that the (British, native speaker) teachers had seemingly considered references to double-glazing, hardware products and tennis as suitable 'everyday' examples to support the learning of more abstract concepts. From an L2 perspective, however, this went beyond the international students' linguistic and cultural repertoire, leading to confusion among the students and frustration on the teachers' part. Secondly, despite teachers' claims that they were aware that everyday language could be problematic for the students, they evidently had not foreseen these particular difficulties as they had not provided adequate linguistic support and only reacted when confusion occurred. This suggested that they did not fully understand the extent of the disconnect between what they and the students might consider accessible everyday/horizontal knowledge and language. Interestingly, Lydia, through telling the anecdote and laughing about the scenarios that unfolded, seemed to become more aware of this mismatch and the need to tackle it pro-actively. In l.23f. she tentatively questioned whether the chosen examples were indeed adequate to foster students' understanding or whether it would not be better to "*rework them*". I made a similar point (l.31ff.), highlighting the need to think about students' life experiences and linguistic accessibility during the planning phase. This led Lydia to acknowledge the "*specialist*" (rather than "*generic*" – see above) nature of the language needed to understand the example (l.39). Finally, this discussion triggered Elaine to reflect on her transcript and to realise that the abstract concepts in her lesson (attitudes/values) might equally not be part of students' everyday linguistic repertoire (l.40ff.).

Although this extract therefore suggests that teachers in this session became more aware of the mismatch between what students and teachers might deem accessible language, it also shows how brief and tentative such moments of realisation were. Other such instances, for example, included Elaine briefly commenting on how she seemed to "*take many things for granted*" regarding students' understanding (see extract 5.3) and Violet realising that she was using words (e.g. bell-shaped curve) that she "*should not assume*" the students would know. However, overall, I found it difficult to pin down any major moments of awakening TLA during WS 2 as the teachers seemed to be confirmed in their opinions rather than having gained significant new insights.

Yet, at the beginning of the next workshop, when I asked if the teachers had reflected further on the session, it became evident that they had taken some of the discussed issues on board. Again, the notions of horizontal/vertical language and support resurfaced. Lydia, for example, said she had been thinking about the workshop "*at the back of [her] mind*" and had as a result included a "*much more simplified*" revision sheet than usual. Violet similarly commented in extract 5.2:

Extract 5.2 WS3 LV – 8.22-9.35		
Context: At the beginning of WS 3 I asked the participants if they had thought about the last workshop whilst preparing their lessons. This is Lydia's response.		

```
1    Violet:    I have, I think, 'cause I went back and I changed, 'cause I had a lecture to
2               do after the last session, about confidence intervals and an interval is a
3               very defined quant-, it's an interval. And I then did think, well actually do
4               they actually know =
5    Lydia:     = Yes, that's right, yes=
6    Violet:    = what an interval is? Do they know what an interval is? So I went back
7               and changed the front end of the lecture, to just show what actual, what
8               I meant, with a picture, this is what an interval is, it gets bigger and wider
9               and this is what happens and then it shrinks down and we spent a bit of
10              time talking about that at the beginning, yeah=
11   Lydia:     =And I think they got that, I think they got it more this year because
12              normally, you know I follow on [to Violet's lecture]
13   Violet:                                   [Yes, yes]
14   Lydia:                                                      because I do a
15              couple of seminars for her, when we were drawing this sort of thing on
16              the board, you know, they were, I said what's this thing, and I am sure
17              they got that more than they, 'cause I think it's assumed [because we are
18              talking]
19   Violet:                                                             [It is, yeah]
20   Lydia:             about confidence intervals and therefore=
21   Violet:    =I mean confidence, I don't assume [because that's part of the concept],
22   Lydia:                                        [No no that's right, I think so]
23   Violet:    but interval I must admit in the past has actually not really come up on
24              my radar that actually they might not, really know what **(that is)**
```

This extract demonstrates that Violet had continued to question her assumptions regarding students' understanding. By explaining how a word (interval) she had not previously considered problematic had come up on her "*radar*" (l.24) she unwittingly echoed a term metaphorically used by Wright (2002: 115, cited in Johnson, 2009: 48) to refer to heightened TLA. Consequently, she changed her usual lecture and provided language support in the form of a visualisation. This indicates that WS 2

had not only challenged her to reconsider what might be accessible language to the students but also led her to move away from routine action to more conscious decision-making regarding the use of relevant support strategies (see Biesta and Burbules, 2003: 38). I took this as an indication that she was beginning to take ownership of – and hence 'appropriating' – some of her new language-related knowledge derived from WS 2 (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 12).

Other teachers also continued to make reference to the notion of horizontal/vertical discourses in their reflections (e.g. extracts 5.8, 5.12) and it was the only issue where the majority of the participants adopted the meta-language. Even Hannah, who had initially been happy with the balance of everyday and academic language in her transcript (see above), continued to consider the relationship of horizontal/vertical discourses and the issue of accessibility (WS 3/4). In WS 4, for example, she reflected that, because she was prioritising practical examples related to students' horizontal knowledge, she was maybe concentrating too little on ensuring the students were "*grasping and using*" the vertical language. This issue of making subject vocabulary accessible and usable for her students remained a particular concern of hers and she returned to it in her snapshot recordings (see section 5.4.2).

Thus, while in WS 2 the moments of awakening had seemed tentative, the teachers' comments in subsequent sessions suggested that they had continued to reflect on the issues of accessibility, vertical/horizontal language and support. Some had even begun to make practical changes, thus suggesting they were appropriating their newfound knowledge and hence developing this aspect of their TLA further.

5.2.2   Subtheme 2: Visualisations

The next subtheme concerned a common CLIL accessibility strategy: the use of visualisations (e.g. Wildhage, 2003: 105; Coonan, 2007: 640; Hellekjær, 2010). This was much less controversially discussed than the use of horizontal discourse but is still noteworthy as an area of heightened awareness for one teacher, Elaine.

While extracts 5.1/5.2 have already demonstrated that visualisations featured in the teachers' pedagogical repertoire (Lydia's drawing of nuts/bolts; Violet's illustration of an interval), there were further instances where teachers discussed using visualisations as support strategies (e.g. Gareth, Hannah). Elaine, however, needed

to be prompted to become aware of the connection between visualisations and linguistic accessibility as extract 5.3 (l.8f.) shows:

Extract 5.3 WS2 AEL – 39.27-39.48
Context: Follow-up discussion to reflective task 1 (identification of horizontal/vertical discourse) in teachers' transcripts.

1	Elaine:	But I think, I certainly, definitely take a lot of things for granted, I mean
2		we talked about the Zeus culture and the spider's web **(laughs)**. We
3		talked about Zeus as a, as a god **(laughs)**, but the spider's web, I did not
4		even check to make sure they understand what a spider's web was
5		**(laughs)**
6	Sandra:	Did you, did you have it on a slide? [I can't remember]
7	Elaine:	[Yes, I did, on a slide, yes, mhm]
8	Sandra:	Yes, so, you know, there was a visual impression, which could have made
9		it very accessible.
10	Elaine:	Mhm, yes.

Again, this exchange was inconspicuous as a moment of developing TLA, yet our discussion must have triggered Elaine to reflect further on the use of visualisations. In WS 3 she revisited the idea of employing pictures, this time both as a support strategy and a discussion starter (see extract 5.8), and in WS 4 (and FG.3) she commented on her newfound appreciation for visualisations (extract 5.4).

Extract 5.4 WS4 GCEL – 11.38-12.35
Context: Recap from the previous session

```
1   Sandra:     What was the key message that you took away?
2   Elaine:     I mean, I think, the key message that I took away, I am not sure if this
3               was your intended purpose, but ahem, one of the things was, you know,
4               going back to original teacher training, about auditory learners and
5               visual learners and kinaesthetic learners and so on and making sure
6               you've got all of that in your lesson plan, because I think we, you know, I,
7               I, having done it for many years I get to the point where I have to get
8               these, they've got to understand this by the end of the session, but
9               without thinking about some of the different ways you could put that
10              across, and using pictures was a, particularly with the students that we
11              have got of course=
12  Teachers:   =/Yeah/yes/=
13  Sandra:     =Yeah, we talked about visualisation, didn't we [especially in your]
14  Elaine:                                                      [That's right]
15  Sandra:     lesson I remember that, how you said actually having a picture might
16              have really helped in that case.
17  Elaine:     That's right.
```

Extract 5.4 demonstrates how "*thinking about some of the different ways*" of supporting understanding (l.9) had led her to reconsider the significance of visualisations as a support strategy for different learner types, something she remembered from her teacher training. She realised that this was equally applicable on the pathway and particularly important for the "*students we have got*" (l.10f.) i.e. international students. This a good example of how the CLIL-RP workshops triggered the teachers to "reframe" their existing knowledge and how TLA can be influenced by previous professional experiences (Bright, 1996: 168; Andrews, 2007: 41) (see also section 5.3.3).

5.2.3 Subtheme 3: Balancing linguistic accessibility with subject demands

Colin, too, was concerned with the issue of accessibility of language throughout the workshop series. His views, however, were more conflicted than the teachers' mentioned above and are thus presented as a separate subtheme.

From the beginning of WS 2, Colin outlined that subject-specific terminology was an integral part of expressing economic concepts, explaining that even if students came across everyday language, it was likely to be used differently in academia. Still,

he claimed that if the technical language was a barrier to understanding, he would make it more accessible by paraphrasing. Nevertheless, he felt that he was limited in how much of this he could do as he worried about "*not achieving*" his content objectives if he focused on language for too long.

This concern of finding a balance between making the input accessible, conforming to subject-specific language conventions, and meeting content objectives, was an issue he revisited repeatedly. In WS 3, for example, he asked his fellow participants how they dealt with technical language and in WS 4 he commented that he still "*massively struggle[d]*" with the idea of accessibility as Economics was "*riddled with terms and I don't see a way around that*". He made a similar point in WS 5 (extract 5.5):

Extract 5.5 WS 5 VLC 7.30 – 8.55
Context: Recap of the previous workshop
1   Colin: Was that, one of the things that we, we discussed was trying to introduce a 2   range of ah technical words that are necessary for our topics, into, because 3   that was part of the discussion we had last time about the fact that, that we 4   want to communicate and help them to develop their, their language 5   knowledge through their subject, through subject teaching, and that's fine, 6   but we had a discussion about, the fact that that involves relatively simple 7   ah phrases and very <u>clear</u> language that is not too, too complicated in a 8   sense to maximise the clarity of understanding, but that is compromised in, 9   in subject learning by the fact that say in Economics, it's riddled with jargon 10   and so to be able to do that you would require to provide, you know, ten or 11   twelve simple words to explain that single term that provides that concept 12   in a, in a nutshell, you know, and, frankly I did not see a way out of that.

Extract 5.5 is interesting for various reasons. Firstly, here (also WS 4/6) it suggests that Colin's struggle was linked to his belief that the use of academic terminology was a particular challenge of Economics and that therefore his subject was inherently less accessible than others (a viewpoint Gareth and Lydia seemed to share – WS 2/5). It is notable however that Hannah challenged this belief (WS 2), and others talked about vertical terminology in their subject, too. Also, while there are indeed differences in how vertically organised knowledge structures in various subjects are (Llinares et al., 2012: 39; Airey, 2012: 67), in Colin's case at least part of the problem seemed to be the curricular requirements of his module, which prioritised

theory over practical application and therefore left little room to draw on students' everyday linguistic knowledge (see extracts 5.11/5.19).

Secondly, Colin repeatedly referred to the use of "*simple*" language (l.11) and worried about avoiding technical terms. I thus wondered whether he (mistakenly) thought he was supposed to avoid any subject-specific terminology and thus equated accessibility with academic simplification, something I assured him was not CLIL's aim (Coyle et al., 2010: 55; Coonan, 2007: 641). In WS 5, this led to a discussion about the provision of linguistic support or, as Lydia called it "*hand-holding*" (l.39), not only in Economics, but on the pathway generally (extract 5.6).

Extract 5.6 WS 5 VLC 14.06-17.11
Context: Follow-on discussion from recap of the previous workshop

1	Sandra:	And just to come back to your point, Colin, about having very simple
2		language, I don't think that CLIL says we should <u>only</u> ever be using simple
3		language, but I think it does say, you know, how do you develop from
4		making it accessible, to then getting them up to the level that they need?
5		So not <u>ignoring</u> the higher level but it's about thinking how can we make
6		links between simple and higher language to get them up there, but I think
7		if you, any content teacher would be very unhappy, like you clearly
8		expressed your unhappiness, and say, oh I don't want to get around this,
9		it is part of my subject, and I don't think we should be getting around it,
10		the question is just if we just <u>only</u> give them that, is it actually accessible or
11		how can we make these links? Yeah? Does that make sense?
12	Lydia:	Yes, yeah, it does, yeah
13	Colin:	I, I, would say one of the interesting things would be though, when they go
14		into the second year of university, there will be <u>absolutely</u> no attempt by
15		any lecturers or any of the materials they have to even address anything
16		you are [talking about.]
17	Lydia:	[Mhm, yes].
18	Colin:	There will be <u>no</u> attempt to do that. So, so, sorry,
19		from, and again, I am not arguing against what you are saying being
20		correct in, in an, not just in an ideal world, but wherever there is the
21		possible time and the capacity to do what you are suggesting, but, but if
22		we take them through that, over this year I am not sure, that that would
23		then prepare them for the world that they are going into year two of the
24		business school? How fit for purpose is a model where you provide a lot of
25		additional explanation for a student, to kind of signpost them towards the
26		meaning and the significance you are looking at, you know, that you
27		attempt, when I can assure you that they are not going to get any of that,
28		[they are gonna get]
29	Lydia:	[Yeah, yeah]=
30	Sandra:	=How do you feel about that Lydia?
31	Lydia:	I think, I think, Colin is absolutely right, because in a, in a sense, the
32		creating a preparedness for them to then sort of be able to progress is very
33		important so whether it is a conscious decision, really, in sort of semester
34		2 that we do, sort of, you know, make them, if you like, sort of more
35		autonomous, that's what it is isn't it? Because if they are not autonomous
36		learners by the time they leave us they are going to completely sink, in the
37		business school, you know, so the hand holding in a sense I think is
38		important when they start but then that sort of has to ease off a little bit,
39		doesn't it, so that they are able to sort of, you know, find language that
40		they don't understand, you know, and those sorts of things because they
41		are going to, as you say into a lecture, a very limited seminar, they don't
42		get the seminar support that they get with us.

Here both teachers voiced concerns that by providing support students would be insufficiently prepared for university as their lecturers would not put the same effort into making content and language accessible for them (l.14). This is important as it demonstrates how the teachers, despite appreciating the pedagogical point I (and CLIL) was making (l.13/20) were caught by the realities of their context. Not only were they constrained by time (l.21), but also by the precarious position of the pathway as a whole. As a transition course it must on the one hand take students' language learning needs into account (and thus consider means of additional support), and on the other hand provide a realistic HE experience. For the teachers, this was a difficult balancing act. I return to this in the discussion (Chapter 8).

Colin's reservations remained with him until FG.3, when they resurfaced in a discussion about visualisations with Elaine (see section 5.2.2). Still, he stated that for him one of the biggest learning points of the workshop series had been the importance of linguistic accessibility, thus indicating that, despite his struggles, he had developed this particular aspect of his TLA further.

5.3 Developing TLA in the collaborative workshops: Fostering students' linguistic and cognitive engagement

The second theme mirrored findings from the literature, namely teachers' growing realisation that, rather than transmitting information, "engaging ways" need to be found so that students can be involved in the learning of content and language (Coonan, 2008: 642; Kong and Hoare, 2011). More precisely, the participants developed their awareness of the interconnectedness between language and cognitive engagement and the need to foster students' opportunities to participate in meaning construction through appropriate language use. This was covered from various perspectives during the workshops, such as when outlining the advantages of a dialogic teaching approach (WS 3), the role of language in higher-order thinking activities and academic adaptation (WS 4), and the principles of classroom interactional management (WS 5). As with the previous theme, however, individual teachers' reflections varied. The first subtheme involved teachers becoming aware of the importance of dialogic activities to increase students' academic language use and participation in meaning construction; the second related to the role of teacher questions and further elaboration requests in creating space for linguistic and

cognitive engagement; the final subtheme dealt with some teachers' enhanced understanding of the benefits of extended wait-time.

5.3.1 Subtheme 1: Dialogic activities to stimulate linguistic and cognitive engagement

One of the teachers' concerns in phase one had been that students should explain and use the academic terminology rather than merely "*parrot*" it (see section 4.3). However, the observations had also revealed that not all teachers had provided opportunities for students to practise that. WS 3 therefore introduced the idea of different communicative approaches in the classroom and highlighted how a dialogic teaching approach and student-centred activities could provide opportunities for students to construct meaning and engage in academic language use (e.g. Llinares et al., 2012: 53ff.; de Graaff et al., 2007: 617; Coonan, 2008: 64; Järvinen, 2006). In the reflection tasks the participants examined who was using the academic language in their transcripts (teachers or students), compared the length of teacher/student utterances, and commented on the overall communicative approach used. For those lessons that had included group work, excerpts of students' conversations were provided.

The workshop discussions revealed that Hannah, Andrew and Elaine were generally pleased with how their students had engaged with the topic, particularly in the group phases. Elaine for example was delighted that the students "*are actually using the words, which is amazing.*" Both with Andrew in a partner discussion and later in the plenum, she reflected on her transcript (extract 5.7):

Extract 5.7 WS 3 EAGC 21.36-21.58/24.12-25.02
Context: Elaine discussed reflective task 1 (comparison of teacher/student utterances in their transcript) in a partner activity (with Andrew), and then shared her insights with the group.

1	Elaine:	You see, I think, when you think about it, the way we do it in terms of
2		getting them to do activities, and then they have to do a presentation,
3		they've got to use the concepts and they've got to be able to understand it
4		to stand up and do a presentation on it, so they have to, they have to
5		understand how it is put together.
6		
7		**(The discussion continues – at 24.12 Sandra invites the partners to share**
8		**their reflections with the rest of the group)**
9		
10	Sandra:	Can we just ahem share, how do you feel about it, you know, we're talking
11		about we have to develop our students' language skill, subject skills, ahem,
12		who is actually talking?
13	Colin:	Us, me is, for me is, I am dominating it.
14	Elaine:	It depends on which bit of it, doesn't it? Because we send them off to do
15		group work and then they are doing the talking, aren't they? Or if they
16		have to do a presentation then they have to do it. So it depends on
17		whether it is the instructional bit or whether it is the activity, the learning
18		bit, 'cause the learning bit is where they learn as opposed to us standing
19		and telling them things where they don't learn that.

Extract 5.7 demonstrates that Elaine understood that there was a clear link between classroom activity, students' language use and cognitive engagement, highlighting that there was a difference between teacher-centred instruction, where teachers were "*telling*" (l.19) the students about the content, and the "*activity*" (l.17), where students got a chance to "*use [...] and understand the concepts*" (l.3) and do the "*talking*" (l.15), and where consequently their "*learning*" (l.18) took place. While it is difficult to judge whether this was a new insight for Elaine or a verbalisation of existing (tacit?) understanding, her use of the phrase "*when you think about it*" (l.1) at least suggests a conscious noticing, and hence growing awareness, of the interconnectedness of task, language use and cognition.

Gareth and Colin came to the same conclusion, but from the opposite perspective. Reflecting on his transcript, Gareth realised that the lack of a collaborative student task had led to an "*awful lot of speaking*" on his part. Colin, similarly, referred to his transcript as "*chalk and talk*", a colloquialism for a teacher-centred, transmission approach, where he was "*dominating*" the classroom

conversation. He realised that "*there is just too much of it, it is just a constant stream of information*".

Later, after we introduced the idea of dialogic teaching and the need to create opportunities for students to practise the academic language, he reflected how the introduction of group tasks could have helped students to "*discuss [...] and establish that concept and its behaviour in their minds*", and, particularly if accompanied by more accessible language, how this could have increased the "*participation rate*". In WS 4 he continued to reflect on the dynamics of student-centred group tasks compared to teacher-led classroom conversations, commenting that the latter could "*absolve*" large parts of the class from "*thinking*" about the topic. Both instances suggest that he seemed to have gathered that through student-centred dialogic activities greater cognitive engagement and collaborative meaning-making can be achieved. Still, it is interesting that he continued to refer to "*concepts*" (rather than 'terms'), suggesting that his focus continued to be on the subject rather than on academic language use (see Tan, 2011: 332) (although, as seen in extract 5.5, terminology and concepts for him were inextricably linked). Andrew picked up on this in WS 5, reminding him that group work also created the space for students to actually practise the desired academic language.

Furthermore, it emerged that although Colin, as a consequence of our discussions, was committed to "*do more mini-discussions*" (WS 4) and had introduced student presentations for the new semester, this was unfamiliar territory for him. In WS 4 I was surprised when he asked me how group activities could be best organised. I began to wonder if it had been sufficient to increase teachers' awareness of the benefits of group learning or whether more support regarding the implementation of such activities should have been provided, particularly if teachers, like Colin, do not have extensive teacher training or experience, or come from subjects with less student-centred instructional traditions (see Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 269; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 343).

The WS 3 discussions did not only have an impact on Colin, but also encouraged others to reconsider their practice. When asked if they could have handled their activities differently, most teachers came up with ideas about how the use of academic terminology and/or student participation could have been increased in their classes. Andrew's and Elaine's reflections are found in extract 5.8.

Extract 5.8 WS 3 EAGC 1.01.15– 1.03.59
Context: Discussion of reflection task 3 (How could you have organised the task/the talk differently to allow for a more dialogic teaching approach?)

1	Elaine:	I, I was thinking, 'cause what they had to do mine, was, sort of thing, they
2		had to come back and do a little sort of flip chart thing on it, ahem, but I
3		was thinking, one of the things that I gave them in the handout was the
4		description of the diff-, the four models but there was a picture
5		associated with each one. And I did not, other than refer to the picture as
6		it's the net or it's the this or the that, I did not do very much with it, now,
7		bearing in mind some of them will be visual learners, I could have actually
8		said, right that is your model, <u>explain</u> it. And the other thing that you said,
9		or, 'cause I gave them a structure, you know you do a presentation and
10		these are your headings if you like, but rather than that, give them five
11		words and say those five words have to appear in your presentation, but
12		actually, it's the visual one, I was thinking, you know I made nothing really
13		of those pictures and those pictures encapsulate what that model is
14		about so that could have been used and it would have also caught on the
15		sort of the visual learners, yeah, yeah
16	Gareth:	What was the session on?
17	Elaine:	It was the gods of management, but you know they do the net and the
18		ahem, the, the, the spider's web and so on, I was using Zeus and Athena
19		and so on, but each one has a picture that is associated with it and that is
20		much more accessible, to them, I mean they have to get the Zeus and
21		whatever because people refer to that in the books but in terms of
22		introducing it to them it probably would have been much easier to use
23		the pictures
24	Colin:	Assuming that they knew the cultural reference of the pictures=
25	Elaine:	=Yeah, but I think a net or a spider's web they probably would get it,
26		wouldn't they? Even, anyway, they would have to start discussing it, and
27		that's the point isn't it?
28	Andrew:	((5))
29	Sandra:	Andrew, what about you?
30	Andrew:	I thought, there was probably more scope maybe for more horizontal
31		discourse, that perhaps I could have started you know before actually
32		presenting them with the marking criteria and identifying what we are
33		looking for, maybe starting with some more discussion, just of what they
34		thought was getting a high mark, or even thinking of previous experiences
35		as well, maybe to open up a bit more dialogue initially. It would have
36		been interesting to see how that would have affected the rest of the
37		lesson and whether we would have got where we needed to get to,
38		maybe we would have needed more time, I don't know, but it might be
39		interesting to experiment with that

Extract 5.8 demonstrates not only how the teachers came up with more dialogic tasks to engage students linguistically and cognitively, but also how the teachers

drew on ideas from the previous session. Elaine reflected on how she could have increased students' use of academic terms and explanations (l.8/11) and referred to visualisations as discussion triggers (l.26) and a means to increase accessibility (l.20 – see section 5.2.2); Andrew revisited the idea of using horizontal discourse and building on students' experiences to generate more dialogue and student participation (l.33/35). I took this as an indication that they were beginning to internalise some of the things we had talked about, using the meta-language (l.30) and bringing different aspects of the CLIL-RP activity together. Through this task they were challenged to rethink their practices, thus appropriating their new knowledge and developing their TLA further.

5.3.2 Subtheme 2: Questions and elaboration requests

WS 3 not only raised teachers' awareness of the benefits of group work, but also triggered some participants to reflect on how they had managed whole-class conversations. They realised that through their use of questions and handling of student answers (the Initiation and Feedback-moves in IRF – see section 2.3.1) they had encouraged different levels of cognitive and linguistic engagement, something which became even more obvious in WS 4 when we employed Bloom's taxonomy to examine the cognitive level of the questions and tasks set (see section 4.4)

When commenting on his communicative approach in WS 3, Colin for example said that the way he had asked questions resembled a verbal gap-fill exercise in which students only provided brief answers. Gareth, too, commented on how his "*simple*" questions had produced short responses. However, rather than reflecting on the impact of such questions on student learning, he brought up the lack of discussion time in the Economics curriculum (see section 5.6), and Colin commented that teachers were more concerned about exam preparation than classroom discussion, at which point I challenged them (extract 5.9):

Extract 5.9 WS 3 EAGC 34.18-34.56
Context: During a discussion of the various communicative approaches used in their transcripts, I challenged the teachers to think about the impact of their questions on student learning.

1	Colin:	But also, I mean, it does have, whether we like it or not, the reward that
2		they are going to get in the assessment, we're going to prioritise their use
3		of the appropriate concepts and applying them with explanations.
4	Sandra:	But isn't, isn't this the point, to come back to this **(the questions)**, isn't this
5		the point, you know, in their exams, we are asking them to apply and to
6		use and to explain, but if we, in a classroom situation, if all we are asking
7		for is a very short question that gives a one-word answer and at which
8		point, do they get a chance to explain?

My deliberate overgeneralisation provoked a response, not from Gareth or Colin, but from Elaine, who vehemently disagreed that teachers would only ever use "*questions and answers*" and reiterated the importance of student-centred activities. She added, however, that it was difficult to change students' cultural expectations of a more teacher-centred learning style.

We revisited the issue of academic adaptation in WS 4 when we examined the role of language in fostering higher-order thinking skills, for example through setting appropriate tasks and questions and familiarising students with related terminology. When I outlined these issues, Lydia and Gareth were confident that this is what they were regularly doing. While Lydia explained how she was spending a lot of time on introducing the language of higher-order command words, Gareth felt the fostering of thinking skills was inevitable in his subject: "*I think if you are doing Economics, virtually everything is analysis*".

However, when examining their transcripts, and particularly the questions they had asked, they realised that there was a discrepancy between what their intentions had been and what had actually come across in the classroom. Extract 5.10 demonstrates how Lydia's views on her language use were challenged.

Extract 5.10 WS 4 VLGE 53.08-56.52

Context: In her recorded lesson, Lydia had revised the lecture with the students and then put students in groups to read/discuss a case study. She had given them the following questions:
 	
    •   What is the core business activity of Innocent?
    •   What is Innocent's business strategy?
    •   What has been "crucial" to Innocent's success?
    •   What is Innocent's ambition as a business?
    •   Would Innocent branded fruit/water juice be successful?
    •   Would such a new product harm the Innocent brand?
 	
In WS 4 the teachers were invited to examine what kind of thinking processes had been encouraged during their lessons, for example through the questions and tasks set. This extract contains Lydia's comments on the above questions and on her lesson transcript.

1	Lydia:	I mean, I think what I am trying to do is sort of, ahem, use obviously
2		content from a lecture, and then apply that to sort of a case study, and
3		therefore I am trying to get them to recall some facts, then to apply and
4		then I am trying to, to get them to sort of build some of their higher order
5		sort of skills, really. More through I suppose application and not in how I
6		have used the wording actually, which is quite interesting, I am using
7		<u>what</u> is, <u>what</u> is, <u>what</u> has been, <u>what</u> is, <u>would</u> **(laughs)** you know they're
8		not traditional, Bloom words that I would then use sort of later on in sort
9		of essays, so that is interesting, I don't know why, why I haven't done
10		that, but you know, ahem, that is what I am trying to get them to do, I am
11		trying to get them to sort of build on that and apply it and think about it
12		and show some application, analysis and maybe even synthesis, really,
13		ahem because I am actually asking them to evaluate to find out would
14		Innocent branded fruit juice, or fruit, branded fruit water, wasn't it, be
15		successful, a new product they were going to develop, would it be as
16		successful an idea, so them coming up with, you know, an opinion on that
17		really, ahem so, yeah, ahem so I can see sort of what I am doing but I am
18		interested in why I've used just <u>what</u>, <u>what</u>, I am about to do this again
19		actually, ah, in week 3, so not next week but the week after and I think I
20		might revisit those questions **(laughs)** =
21	Sandra:	=So, you are saying you are trying to recall facts and thus [lower order
22		thinking]
23	Lydia:	[Clearly]
24	Sandra:	to help understand [the case study]
25	Lydia:	[Yes, yes]
26	Sandra:	and then you are building up.
27		Are you happy with the level of analysis that they are giving you back?
28	Lydia:	I am, in a sense, I am yes, I am. Because yes, I think, just, what it is, just a
29		new theory, which is obviously, sort of competitive advantage I think was
30		one of the things that they were thinking about, trying to get them to tell
31		me initially what that was, and then obviously we talked about it and
32		they read a tiny little extract from a case study and then sort of, and they,
33		also they applied some of the content from other things that we have
34		done as well, 'cause they are sort of linking to Coca Cola and and I don't

Extract 5.10 continued

35	Lydia:	know whether it is in this extract, but I know they talked about what we'd
36		done previously, no, there it is, things like iphones and smartphones and
37		things when we looked at strategies in other businesses, too. So that was,
38		sort of you know, so again they are using, they're using sort of
39		transferable type of skills there and sort of giving me examples from that
40		as well, so, I am <u>sort</u> of happy, but I am not happy with my own language
41		and the questions **(laughs)** which I am wondering why I have sort of done
42		that, but it seems sort of a bit dumbed down, it is not right, really.
43	Gareth:	I think what the problem with a lot of question is and I've come to that
44		myself, you try not to ask certain question such as can somebody answer
45		the following question or can somebody tell me and I certainly find
46		myself doing that a lot ahem, there is an art in asking a question in the
47		right way.
48	Lydia:	Mhm. And this is group 5, English-wise. So again, you know it's to try,
49		because we have such a range on **(course name)**, haven't we, in terms of
50		sort of language ability, so it is isn't it, it's trying sometimes to keep it
51		simple enough to be able to sort of deal with the content, really, rather
52		than fog it with loads of like Bloom words **(laughs)** but then we expect
53		them to use them later on, so there is a balance, isn't there? A fine
54		balance...

For me, Lydia's comments were particularly interesting as I had interpreted the sequence she was referring to differently whilst analysing her lesson transcript during phase one. The progression that Lydia described (l.1ff.) – from analysis to application, synthesis and evaluation – had been lost on me as through the way she handled the questions and student answers I had not actually realised that this is what she was doing. Lydia seemed to come to a similar conclusion. Although she was "*sort of happy*" (l.40f.) with the student responses and their level of application/synthesis (l.33/39), she was dissatisfied with her questions (l.18/41) and felt the sequence "*seems sort of dumbed down, it's not right*" (l.42). Additionally, she was surprised that there were none of the "*Bloom words*" she had expected to find (l.8ff.). She attributed her behaviour to the low language level of the class, which she felt prevented her from using the appropriate terminology and engaging the students at a higher level (l.50ff.). At the same time, however, she realised that therefore she was denying students the opportunity to get accustomed to the language required in the exam. I took her reflections as an indication that she had recognised that there was an inconsistency between her cognitions regarding what she thought she was doing (her expectations) and the reality of her practice. Although she remained

cheerful (l.7/20/52), remarking later that it was "*just a snapshot*" and that her behaviour would have been different had I recorded a stronger/more dynamic class, I had the feeling that she was a little troubled by this, maybe even experiencing a moment of psychological tension (cognitive dissonance) (Borg, 2018: 78). When I tried to prompt her to consider whether she could have done anything differently, she evaded giving an answer. I took her defensiveness as an indication that her awareness of her own language use and its impact on students' cognitive engagement had been challenged, but also as an example that RP can be, at least a little, unsettling for the participants (Dewey, 1933: 16; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 6; Reynolds, 2011: 6). Alternatively, she might have simply needed more time to think this through; in subsequent meetings she did revisit the relationship between questions and cognitive engagement, indicating that this was indeed an area where her TLA had developed.

Gareth, too, realised that his classroom conversation had turned out differently than intended. Drawing on his lesson transcript and Lydia's insights (l.43ff.) he began to understand that, although he had believed analysis was in the "*nature of Economics*", the way he had handled the questions ("*short, sharp*" – "*a or b?*") and his failure to provide discussion space had actually prevented the students from engaging in higher-order thinking. A similar awakening was had by Colin (extract 5.11).

Extract 5.11 WS 4 CA 1.04.51-1.09.20
Context: This extract includes Colin's comments on his lesson transcript and reflection task one, in which the teachers had to examine what kind of thinking processes had been encouraged (e.g. through the use of questions). Due to space limitations, the lesson transcript is not reproduced here; the interested reader is directed towards the appendix (D) where the first part of Colin's lesson transcript is reproduced (also see extracts 4.2 and 4.3).

1	Sandra:	What about yours, Colin?
2	Colin:	Well, I mean, I suppose it's the opposite **(coughs)** what you **(Andrew)**
3		have described in a sense that I'd say there's probably, there are a few
4		moments of higher order, but generally, it's dominated by, ah, relatively
5		lower order responses to qu-, responses to questions and the responses
6		to questions are extremely short, one or two sen- **(coughs)** two-word
7		concepts, ahem, nearly all the student responses are one or two words
8		**(coughs)** Or even in the homework, true or false. Their limited ability,
9		limited ah opportunity for them to, well I wouldn't say there is a limited
10		opportunity for them to talk, but the way questions are, are made to the
11		students, the way in which the questions were constructed, it's very
12		much, well, what's the answer, not asking them to consider more
13		broadly, ah, you know, well, what, can you, can you ah differentiate
14		between, you know, ah equilibrium and nonequilibrium, or something,
15		you know what I mean? Not give them an opportunity to expand and
16		develop their answer. Rather than just, ok what is equilibrium
17	Andrew:	Yeah, and how does that relate to, something else.
18	Colin:	Yeah. So there isn't really as much of that, and in a sense, what I am
19		seeking to do, is that very, it's that very didactic task where you got the
20		lesson plan that says well, you know, what are the components, how do
21		you arrive at equilibrium, ah, what are the, the, the changes in the
22		conditions of the market that lead to equilibrium and in each case there
23		is a summary concept, that describes a huge amount of activity and
24		those, and the follow up question when I find that someone gives me an
25		answer or doesn't know, I then, I̲ then seek to provide more detail, or
26		clues to what the answer, could be. So they get, they get, so I am creating
27		associations, not them=
28	Andrew:	=Yeah=
29	Colin:	= Because I am assuming they don't know. That's tending to be the way,
30		the way it was, it seemed to be working and, I am (3) **(sighs)** that is quite
31		depressing actually (2) Because obviously it is not the outcome I am
32		looking for. I mean they, in a sense it's playing into their own ah world
33		view which is that there is a, a single, perfect answer for everything and
34		that, in a sense they are, well they're just relying on me to say that's right
35		or that's wrong. And partly it's because of, and also, I mean also, it's
36		down to, and I have to be very frank about this, it's down to an <u>extremely</u>
37		limited set of theoretical tasks that have to be accomplished. Previous
38		work I did was far broader, far more opportunity for expansion and for
39		interpretation, and I been asked to limit that content because **(Colin and**
40		**Andrew discuss the curriculum/student workload)**

Here, Colin realised that a predominance of lower-order questions and the homework task (true/false) had limited students' opportunities to engage in higher-order thinking processes (l.4f./8). Although he still did not fully accept that his interactional management might have impacted on students' "*opportunity to talk*" (l.10), he raised another important point: it was not only his questions that prevented students from considering broader issues, but also the way he handled their short responses. Rather than prompting for further elaboration, he assumed they did not know and filled the gaps himself (l.25ff.). By "*creating associations*" (l.26f.) he was not only taking over the linguistic, but also the cognitive work. Even more than for Lydia above, this was an unsettling – "*depressing*" (l.31) – insight for him, particularly as it cast doubt over his role in students' academic adaptation. In phase one he had linked the students' behaviour to their educational experiences in their home countries (see section 4.3). But now he questioned whether his interactional management had contributed to him positioning himself as "primary knower" (l.32f.), rendering the students to a passive role (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 170) and hence enforcing rather than challenging their perceived cultural expectations.

Colin was not the only teacher reflecting on his management of student answers. Lydia commented in WS 3 on how she seemed to use student responses as a "*hook*" to supply more information, and how a more "*Socratic approach to questioning*" could have produced further elaborations. This resonated with Violet who conceded that she had a tendency to "*jump in with explanations*" but which, as a consequence of the discussion with Lydia in WS 3, she was now trying to avoid (WS 4). Her new aim, she said, was to get the students to verbalise their understanding first: "*[I] try to get them to say what do you want to have explained? Where have you got to in your thought process with this?*" Thus, through the workshop discussions and reflections on their transcripts, some teachers developed their awareness of the role questions and elaboration request play in students' linguistic and cognitive engagement further.

5.3.3 Subtheme 3: Extended wait-time

In WS 5 we revisited many of the points outlined in previous sessions under the wider perspective of classroom interactional competence and discussed the need to align pedagogical goals with appropriate interactional features (Walsh, 2006, 2011). One such interactional feature that caught the attention of several participants was extended wait-time, a strategy also considered particularly useful by the CLIL teacher

in Escobar's study (2013: 342, 348).

Lydia had already mentioned "*think time and silence*" in the phase one interview and the previous session and recapped in WS 5 that she had noticed not "*leaving enough time and giving the students the answer too quickly*", suggesting she was aware of the significance of wait-time in classroom interaction. Other participants needed to be introduced to this interactional feature, but quickly seemed to understand the relevance of this for international students (e.g. Hannah, Andrew).

It was Elaine, however, who reflected on the issue of wait-time the most. While she agreed that extending wait-time was important, she also felt it was difficult to do, partly because silence was "*uncomfortable*" and could be perceived as "*threatening*", but partly because teachers too often mistook it as a lack of understanding. She had already been aware of the importance of extended wait-time for native-speaker students, but WS 5 resulted in a new appreciation that language learners might need even longer pauses. This was something she revisited in the snapshot recordings when she put her new insights to the test (see extract 5.13).

5.4   Moving from reflection to action: The snapshot recordings (WS 6&7)

As mentioned above, some participants reported changes in their practice from the start of the CLIL-RP activity. Violet, for example, added a visualisation to her lecture and encouraged more student elaboration, Lydia wrote a revision glossary and Colin planned student presentations. While these were promising signs that the teachers were appropriating their new insights, applying them in practice and hence developing their TLA, I recognised that it can be difficult to translate reflection into action (Mälkki and Ylänne, 2012). Equally, engaging teachers in the planning of relevant activities and trying them out in the classroom are important means to help make connections between public and experiential knowledge and to develop TLA further (Morton, 2012: 301ff.; Andrews, 2007: 187). As outlined in section 2.4.2 the collaborative workshops were thus followed by one-to-one stimulated recall (SR) sessions where the participants applied the things they had learnt in practice and reflected on their efforts (WS 6&7). To provide some guidance and recognising that deeper reflection can be fostered when teachers are given context-specific reflection tools (Mann and Walsh, 2017, 2013; Walsh and Mann, 2015), I put together a CLIL-RP toolkit to be used by the teachers when preparing for the snapshot recordings and when commenting on the recording during the SR (see section 2.4.2). This

section thus first outlines how this tool was developed and then reports on how the teachers dealt with language-related issues during the planning of their snapshot recordings and the SR, illustrating to what extent they developed their TLA further during this part of the development activity.

5.4.1 The development and content of the CLIL-RP toolkit

In the CLIL literature various toolkits exist that provide teachers with guidance on planning or pedagogic strategies (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Chadwick, 2012). However, none of them are specifically tailored towards the pathway context and some of them are rather extensive. Considering that the CLIL-RP activity had been specifically designed around selected TLA development foci identified on the basis of the phase I data collection, I decided to put together a context-specific toolkit that would more adequately address the needs of the participants. Such a toolkit, I hoped, could potentially also be used by pathway teachers new to the sector or by experienced teachers seeking to develop their practice further and hence make a practical contribution to the sector beyond this study.

The CLIL-RP toolkit consists of two pages (see appendix F.2). The first page ("CLIL lesson planning tool") encourages teachers to reflect on the integration of content and language during the lesson planning phase. It sets out four main areas for consideration: Content, subject-specific language, academic culture and teaching approach. The first area, content, is deliberately left blank as this is the domain where subject teachers can draw on their existing academic expertise and pedagogical skills and where hence no guidance is required. The other three areas, subject-specific language, academic culture and approach, summarise the key points discussed during the first three collaborative workshops (WS 2-4). A list of questions in each area prompts teachers to consider a variety of pedagogical issues when planning a CLIL lesson; for example, what are the key words/phrases needed in the instructional register when discussing a specific topic, what are the academic and cognitive skills required by students or what is the extent to which a dialogic teaching approach can be fostered during the lesson. The meta-language introduced in the workshops is employed and for each area practical tools and examples of pedagogical strategies are provided (e.g. horizontal/vertical discourse, reference to Bloom's taxonomy, visualisations). The page is designed in such a way that each area is given the same prominence to reflect equality between these four domains in

an integrated approach and teachers are encouraged to consider content, language and academic culture first, before then deciding which particular teaching approach to take.

The second page of the toolkit is the "CLIL classroom interaction tool" and summarises the issues discussed in WS 5. It was inspired by the SETT framework, a self-observation instrument developed for the L2 classroom to help teachers increase their classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2006, 2011) (see section 2.4.2). The SETT framework is based on the recognition that if interactional features are aligned with pedagogical goals, opportunities for language learning can be created. This principle had been introduced to the teachers in WS 5 and is reflected in the design of the second page of the CLIL-RP toolkit: Three areas are listed to remind teachers that the integration of language in content classes can be realised differently; through a focus on language form (through input enhancement and corrective feedback) and through a focus on meaning (see e.g. Lyster, 2009 – section 2.3.1). Although these language foci can overlap in the classroom, they each serve a different pedagogical purpose and are realised through different interactional features. For example, if a teacher seeks to raise students' awareness of specific language forms (e.g. vocabulary, grammar), this can be achieved through typographical input enhancement and/or explanation of meaning. If a student has made a mistake and the teacher seeks to raise students' awareness of accurate language use, corrective feedback can be provided in various ways. If, however, the pedagogical goal is to engage students cognitively and linguistically in joint meaning construction, teachers should, for example, consider employing a variety of question types and be aware of the importance of creating space for learning through extended wait-time (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Walsh, 2011: 21 – see section 2.3.1). Page two of the CLIL-RP toolkit hence sets out the three areas how language can be integrated into content classes (focus on form through input enhancement, focus on form through corrective feedback and focus on meaning construction), outlines the main pedagogical purposes of each and lists the interactional features that can be used to achieve these goals. Additionally, a list describing each interactional feature mentioned on the toolkit is provided as I recognised that teachers would still need help with the meta-language.

The toolkit had been introduced to the teachers at the end of WS 5 with the request to use the first page (planning tool) when preparing their lessons for the snapshot recordings. During the one-to-one sessions we then discussed to what

extent they had managed to integrate a greater language focus during the planning phase and I encouraged them to use the interaction tool when reflecting on how they managed the classroom interaction during the SR of the snapshot recording. Thus, the toolkit had an important function during this part of the CLIL-RP activity as it sought to help teachers translate the declarative knowledge gained in the collaborative workshops into procedural knowledge and to hence develop their TLA further. Also, by trialling the toolkit the teachers were better able to evaluate it and provide feedback on whether they felt that it could indeed be used in future development activities at the study centre and beyond.

5.4.2 *Planning the snapshot recordings*

After the participants had been introduced to the toolkit and given the instructions for the snapshot recordings in WS 5, I met with each teacher two more times in one-to-one sessions to discuss how they had implemented what they had learnt in the collaborative workshops in practice (WS 6&7). Although I had encouraged the teachers to plan their lessons using the planning tool, it emerged that they had done so to varying degrees. While Hannah, for example, said in WS 6 that she read the toolkit before redesigning her lesson to include a pair work activity supporting students' understanding of everyday and academic vocabulary (see section 5.2.1), she only used the planning tool "*to a certain extent*" in WS 7 as she felt her time to integrate the proposed strategies was limited (see section 5.4.2). Violet similarly referred to particular aspects of the planning tool and for both snapshots altered her usual lesson plans. In WS 6, for example, she encouraged discussions of the term "*buffer stock*", explaining that this was inspired by the RP sessions as she was now "*more aware of [...] the fact that we are using terms*" and that "*you cannot assume actually they are listening [during a lecture] or picking up the kind of language as much as you hope*", suggesting that she had understood that learning and using academic terminology is not an incidental by-product of content learning but can be supported through appropriate activities.

Colin, too, only used "*some*" of the toolkit. He explained how for the snapshot recording in WS 6 he tried to find a compromise between making language accessible and using the "*jargon*" by explaining more and highlighting specific terms and their definitions on the board. He was further interested in "*the kind of dialogic approach*" and "*looking for [...] student interaction*" and added a pair work phase, thus

trying to avoid the teacher-dominant style he had found so disconcerting in WS 3/4. In WS 7 he returned to this issue but without using the planning tool. In terms of interaction, he was keen not to "*replace the student with the teacher*" and to achieve a higher level of analysis. Interestingly, he commented that he made the changes because he was "*conscious [he] was being recorded*", leaving me to wonder if the observer effect was a greater incentive to translate his newfound knowledge into practice than his belief in the relevance of CLIL.

Not all participants changed their lesson plans, however. Andrew taught the same lesson as usual as he felt they worked well – incidentally in WS 6 based on a lesson plan I had created previously – but commented on how he used the toolkit for retrospective analysis of the lesson plans. He explained how this had helped him understand how the lesson structure supported the progression of thinking skills in WS 6; in WS 7 he said he had become more aware of the intercultural nature of the topic (exam preparation). Elaine, too, stuck to the plans provided by the module leader. Still, she commented that before the recording she had been thinking about aspects of the interaction tool, particularly extended wait-time "*as something that really hit me in one of the previous sessions*" (see section 5.3.3 and below). Lydia claimed to have used the toolkit, but at least in WS 6 I suspected that she had not done so as she seemed unfamiliar with it. For WS 7 she chose specific terms that she wanted to focus on to make them more accessible, and said she attempted to include a more "*Socratic approach*" to questioning. Interestingly, none of the teachers set explicit language-oriented lesson aims except for Colin, who mentioned "*discussion*", and Hannah, whose lesson was completely remodelled around the understanding of key terms (see section 5.5.4).

Ironically, Gareth was the only teacher employing the planning tool to take a holistic approach to lesson planning – ironic, as he was not teaching that semester and hence unable to record any lesson snapshots. However, he was dedicated to the CLIL-RP activity and wrote lesson plans for a new module he was expecting to lead. Instead of the SR, he talked me through his plans, demonstrating how he had used the elements of the planning tool as building blocks so that students could share experiences in group discussions and draw on horizontal knowledge and language, before introducing them to vertical concepts. In terms of academic adaptation, he was keen to progress tasks from lower- to higher-order thinking. He had clearly been inspired by the CLIL-RP activity and keen to apply his newfound understanding, but in WS 7 I realised that he would have needed more practical guidance (extract 5.12).

Extract 5.12 WS 7 G 3.55-5.42
Context: Instead of a stimulated recall session, Gareth described his (hypothetical) lesson plan to me.

```
1    Gareth:    So, I approached it (the lesson plan) in exactly the same way, in terms of
2               identifying learning aims and outcomes, relevant websites ahem,
3               photographs, which obviously in architecture are key. And then I was
4               going to go into the next stage which would have been this plan. And this
5               is the bit where I suddenly started to ask questions of. The approach that
6               I took last time is an approach, that I would find very difficult to snap out
7               of. The building up on, in terms of, of what they'd been learning within
8               class, what they learnt the week previously. Horizontal knowledge, then
9               developing the vertical, going from ah, sort of understanding through to
10              evaluating, using three, or two or three tasks, where essentially that that
11              final task is where we are at the taxonomy of analysing and evaluating
12              ahem and my question, a question to myself is, would students by the
13              end of week 3 suddenly go, ah, I know what is going to happen, we are
14              going to have a little task and then we are going to have another task and
15              then we are going to have another task. Or we are going to have one task
16              and then another task. So, it's just a case of, me thinking about, am I
17              actually going end up (3) with very little variety in a way?
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I was surprised at Gareth's concern that his lessons might lack variety (l.17), but was reminded of a similar conversation with Colin, who had been uncertain about how to implement his new ideas in practice (see section 5.3.1). It seemed that both teachers lacked the pedagogical tools needed to employ a range of dialogic, student-centred activities. Thus, I realised that although the CLIL-RP workshops had succeeded in raising their awareness of the importance of a dialogic, student-centred activities, this was only a 'first step' and more pedagogical "savoir faire" was needed to actually "make it happen" (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 261; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 343). I return to this in the discussion (Chapter 8), when I explore implications for future professional learning activities. At the time, I reassured Gareth that there were many ways to bring variety to his lessons and gave examples, but we did not go into detail as he was not going to be leading this module after all, so our meeting remained brief.

Gareth aside, the data analysis revealed that the teachers had not used the planning tool as extensively or systematically as they could have done. Rather than integrating content and language learning in a holistic way, they had opted for a fragmented approach, with individuals focusing on what they had felt most strongly about during the collaborative sessions. Still, I took it as an indication of developing

TLA that at least some participants had been inspired to make changes in those areas they felt were most relevant to their practice or used the planning tool to reflect on the connection between language and content in existing lesson plans.

5.4.3 Reflection on Action: The Stimulated Recall Interviews

After outlining their planning decisions, the teachers commented on the snapshot recordings. This stimulated recall (henceforth SR) served as a tool for further data-led reflection and to deepen teachers' awareness of language-related matters in practice (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 38). To heighten their perception, focus their thinking and practise the meta-language, I encouraged the participants to use the interaction tool during the reflective commentary. Furthermore, in an attempt to enhance their ownership of the process, I invited them to stop the recordings as and when they saw fit; however, some teachers let the recordings run on for long stretches, so I sometimes intervened and encouraged further reflection.

Over the course of the 12 SR sessions (two per teacher), the participants commented on a range of language-related matters and interactional features. Those who had altered their lesson plans and/or interactional management pointed out relevant situations and we discussed how successful the changes had been. Elaine, for example reflected on her attempt to extend wait-time (extract 5.13).

Extract **5.13** WS 6 E		
Context: Elaine and I discussed the use of wait-time during her snapshot recording.		
Pre-listening discussion 6.36-7.18		
1	Elaine:	But I tell you what I was aware of yesterday, leaving more silence than I
2		usually do=
3	Sandra:	= Ok, that's really interesting=
4	Elaine:	= I prob', whether I have, 'cause I was, I was thinking, it's something
5		that I picked up last time, you know, we were talking about asking
6		questions and stuff, I am always conscious of that if they don't, if they
7		are not very forthcoming I jump in and say what about this and what
8		about that. Ahem, and I thought, no I am going to try this time and
9		actually say I'm going to leave it till you come back, so you've got
10		thinking time to actually come back. Now I did, and it did work a couple
11		of times yesterday but whether that's on these 10 minutes I don't know
12		**(Discussion on wait-time continues)**
Snapshot recording 11.15		
13	T:	Internationalism. What do we mean by internationalism?(4) **(Name)**
14		You said it.
15	S:	**(Explains for 8s)**
16	T:	Right. So it's not just business-to-business, is it? It's companies that
17		trade across the globe. Ok, that's one **(Elaine stops tape to ask a**
18		**question)**.Give me some more (7) **(Name)** (6)
19	Sm:	It's buying processes **(Elaine stops the tape)**
Reflective commentary 12.58-13.34		
20	Elaine:	See that's a long time for me, you know? I was really conscious, I am
21		conscious at the minute of trying to give them time to come back. So, if
22		they don't immediately come back then I will ask the question in a
23		different way or ask somebody else. Now I am tending more to just wait
24		for them to come back. And what I have said to them is, if you don't
25		know the answer, if you don't know it, just say I don't know so I am not
26		waiting and I am not putting them on the spot for something they
27		cannot respond to.
Post-listening discussion 31.14-32.00		
28	Sandra:	You talked about wait-time. Listening back to that now, are you happy
29		with the wait-time?
30	Elaine	Ah, in cert-, I mean, I don't use it all of the time, because I do think it is
31		pressure ah, you know, for people, but I have used it and I do think it
32		does work. Ahem, I think, I couldn't use it all the time, because I do,
33		probably it is just me that feels the pressure, but I feel like I am putting
34		somebody under pressure where I just wait and wait and they are not
35		going to come back with something. But I have used it and it does work,
36		it does work and it is particularly for these students, ahem, you know, it
37		is amazing that they can actually formulate something in a different
38		language and you don't appreciate until you step back and think about
39		it how difficult that must be.

For me, extract 5.13 confirmed that Elaine had indeed developed her awareness of the significance of wait-time as a result of our workshop discussions (l.5). For the snapshot recording she had consciously changed her usual habit of "*jump[ing] in*" and provided more "*thinking time*" (l.7ff.). When listening to the recording, she demonstrated her heightened consciousness of this interactional feature (l.20ff.), afterwards concluding that the strategy had worked well (despite ongoing reservations about putting undue pressure on students). Interestingly, she also seemed to have gained greater appreciation of the challenge of studying in a foreign language (l.37ff.), suggesting not only her TLA but also her empathy for the students had risen as a result of the activity.

Violet, too, had taken some of the workshop discussions on board. She was keen to create more opportunities for the students to engage with specific terms and had also thought about their level of cognitive engagement (extract 5.14).

Extract 5.14 WS 6 V 21.16-24.46		
Context: Violet and I discussed her first snapshot recording.		
Snapshot recording		
1	T:	Buffer stock. So, what do you think buffer stock is?
2	S:	((10))
3	T:	Extra, yeah, extra stock. Absolutely. Buffer stock is extra, additional
4		stock. And we have to think carefully about buffer stock when we
5		include this, because buffer stock is extra stock in addition to what we
6		order, ok? So we need to work out how much buffer stock we're gonna
7		need in additon to how much we are actually ordering. If you think
8		about a company, such as McDonald's, for example. McDonald's. Do
9		you think they keep buffer stock, what do you reckon?
Reflective commentary		
10	Sandra:	**(Sandra stops tape)** Do you know what kind of question you are asking
11		there?
12	Violet:	Well, ahem, I am trying to get them to apply their kind of general
13		knowledge, so I am trying to get them to think about a specific
14		situation. To begin with when I formulated the question, when I first
15		put the PowerPoint slide together I had it much more generalised and
16		much vaguer, kind of, what kind of buffer stock do you think this would
17		have? And I thought actually that's going, the level was jumping too
18		high up and I was expecting them to move too far up, so I brought it
19		down a bit, to kind of a much more specific example but still wanting
20		them to think and apply it. So, there was a kind of reasoning behind it,
21		so it's probably a level higher than I would normally have asked. I think
22		in the past I would have stopped at, what is buffer stock? And when
23		they said extra stock, I would have said, yep, you are right, it's extra
24		stock in addition to stock that we order, so it is taking them, kind of
25		making them think further along the chain.
26	Sandra:	I thought it was quite interesting because when, you know when we
27		talked about different question types, we talked about, we've got these
28		like display questions, where you're kind of ahem asking questions that
29		you know the answer to. So, for example, what is buffer stock, well it is
30		extra stock, and referential questions where you are not quite sure,
31		what the students will actually say. And I think the question was
32		something like <u>What do you think</u>, would they keep, you can't know
33		what they think. I just thought it was a really nice change in the type of
34		question to actually, like you say get them to apply and get them think
35		for themselves.
36	Violet:	Yes. I mean I was concerned 'cause it is a change from what I normally
37		ask them and there was a point of thinking are they actually just gonna
38		sit and look at me and kind of go **(laughs)** don't know, in a kind of blank
39		manner, but actually, they, I was very pleasantly surprised with what
40		they came out with.

When outlining her planning decisions, Violet had already outlined that she had added this discussion to ensure the students were engaging with the term buffer stock (see section 5.4.2). In extract 5.14 I then stopped the tape to prompt her to also specifically reflect on her use of questions in this instance. Her response demonstrates that she had consciously considered Bloom's taxonomy to gage where the question level should be to match the students' cognitive effort (l.14ff.). To make it more accessible, she provided a specific example for support (l.19) but was still keen to make them "*think further*" (l.25), hence verbalising her understanding of the link between her own question behaviour and students' cognitive engagement. I also tried to get her to think about the specific phrasing of the question (although slightly misquoting the actual question she did ask l.9/32), reminding her of the differences between display and referential questions (feeding in the meta-language) and that the way questions are phrased can have an impact on student engagement. Like Elaine, Violet was "*pleasantly surprised*" by how well the students responded to her change in practice (l.39).

However, not all teachers were equally positive about the changes they had implemented. In WS 6 Hannah included a pair work task to ensure students would be able to understand and apply key terms. Although she was confident that she had achieved this goal, she was unhappy with the time it took to get there, commenting that due to the class being so "*poor language-wise*" there was "*no way in reality that we can do this in an ongoing situation*". Hannah's frustration about the time-consuming nature of her task, her weak group and the pressure to get through the content led her in WS 7 to work on vocabulary in a whole-class situation. Although she was still keen to encourage students to participate through a range of interactional features, the students were not forthcoming, and she ended up dominating the discussion. In reflection she concluded that with a weak group "*You need to be quite strong and lead it rather than it being more student-led because they would just sit and say nothing*".

This belief was echoed by Violet, who – despite the fact her previous fear that students might remain silent in a discussion had been disproved (l.38, extract 5.14) – thought it was not possible to achieve the same level of discussion with a weaker group. Hannah's and Violet's views match findings from the wider literature, suggesting that teachers might be more reluctant to promote discussion and debate if international students' language skills are perceived to be lacking (Arenas, 2009: 624). This raises important questions. Firstly, we might wonder whether Hannah's

students' reluctance to participate in the discussion was indeed down to their lack of language skills rather than a reflection of their unaccustomedness to the task, or even a combination of both. And, more importantly, would this consequently mean that those students who are perceived to be in greatest need of language development remain trapped in a teaching-style least conducive to language learning? How can we support teachers to create student-centred activities, even for weak groups? Again, I return to this in the discussion.

The SR sessions also showed that some participants found it harder than others to concentrate on language and interaction, commenting on content, culture or class dynamics instead, suggesting that language-related matters were still not at the forefront of their consciousness. Colin's case was particularly curious. Despite commenting that he had planned for a more dialogic teaching approach and tried to alter his question/feedback behaviour so as not to "*dominate*" the classroom conversation in WS 6 (see section 5.4.2), he failed to notice during the SR that he seemed to have fallen back into his old behavioural patterns, asking mainly display questions, nominating students after short wait-time and thus not really providing space for more dialogic meaning construction. Extracts 5.15 and 5.16 illustrate this.

Extract 5.15 WS 6 C 43.07-43.37
Context: Transcription of parts of Colin's snapshot recording.
Snapshot recording

1	T:	We've talked about aggregate demand. Is this the only part of growth we might
2		be looking at or might we be considering other areas of growth? (1) **(Name)**
3		what do yout think?
4	S:	(4)
5	T:	Along with short run, what does short run growth consist of? (2) Is it only
6		aggregate – **(Colin stops tape)**

When listening to this snapshot extract, most noticeable to me was the short wait-time before the student's name was called (l.2), then Colin's reformulation of the question once the student was not forthcoming (l.4f.), followed by another short wait-time and yet another reformulated question (l.5). Colin's reflections, however, were not on the interaction: he described the incident as a "*rabbits in the headlight situation*" and mainly commented on the content of what the answer should have been, students' failure to prepare their readings, and what he continued to perceive

to be their cultural predispositions ("*They only memorise, that is the way they learn*").
He did not use the interaction tool either and was only prompted to think about the
impact of his interactions when I raised the issue of wait-time (extract 5.16).

Extract 5.16 WS 6 C 46.42-47.55
Context: As Colin did not comment on the interaction in Extract 5.15, I prompted him to think about wait-time and we listened to the episode again.
Reflective commentary
1   Sandra: I am also, I am not sure whether it was at this question but ahem the,   2   the amount of time the student had to think about it =   3   Colin: =I did not give them enough time you mean?   4   Sandra: I am not quite sure, shall we listen again?   5   6   **(We listen to the recording again; stop at l.4)**   7   8   Sandra: What do you think? You ask a question and say **(Name)**.   9   Colin: Well, to me that's just, I am expecting students are paying attention. It   10   is the start of the class, they still got their full attention span, ahem, I   11   don't think, I don't really see a distinction there. I mean, I don't, I don't   12   think I created any artificial barriers or anything by doing that, I have   13   posited a question and I have asked somebody to answer it. So, so,   14   what do you mean?   **(We discuss the benefits of extended wait-time from a L2 learners' perspective)**

Even when listening a second time, Colin initially did not accept his interaction
had created "*artificial barriers*" (l.12 – also extract 5.11, l.9f.) and the idea of extended
wait-time seemed genuinely new to him. Although my subsequent explanation
regarding the benefits of wait-time for L2 learners seemed successful – at least he
commented how he should have "*waited a bit longer*" in instances not only a few
minutes later, but also several times in WS 7 – there were also other situations that
indicated that Colin continued to find it difficult to focus on interaction. At the end of
WS 6 for example, when I asked how he could have handled the conversation
differently, his first suggestion was to set up a writing task; only when I prompted him
to think explicitly about interactional management did he concede that he could have
asked his "*question of somebody else rather than answering it [himself]*", but also
cited class dynamics ("*I think it is down to how the class emerged on the day*") and
time constraints as to why he had not done so.

In WS 7 it further transpired that Colin felt nervous about the observation, which he felt had impacted on his interactional management: "*You are conscious you are being recorded and so you want to get a result, you are going to move it along until we get a result.*" I took this as an indication that he was keen to demonstrate his (content) teaching skills, but in the attempt to "*move it along*" his attention was diverted from the interactional management, suggesting that he still lacked full understanding that this was <u>the</u> crucial tool to create language and content learning opportunities and to therefore achieve the desired "*result*". He himself attributed this to his teaching style, conceding he was more teacher- than student-centred.

Despite such struggles, for Violet, Hannah, Elaine and Colin, who had all made conscious efforts to implement at least some of the CLIL strategies, the SR sessions thus provided good opportunities to explore their main concerns further and reflect on the changes made. But even for those teachers who had not actively altered their plans/behaviour, the snapshots offered further insights. Andrew, who had been fairly happy with his practice throughout the collaborative workshops, used the opportunity to get to grips with the meta-language of the interaction tool, asking for clarification whenever he was uncertain and picking up on a few instances when he could have encouraged more peer feedback (WS 6). Lydia , too, was generally content that the students had achieved the learning outcomes but realised after both SR sessions that she "*talked too much*", which she partly attributed to her interactional management, but also to her linguistically weak group in which dominant characters prevented others from speaking, thus reiterating some of her colleagues' concerns. Elaine, who in WS 7 did not have a specific reflection focus in mind, commented on how she had become more aware of the extent to which she used paraphrase to make academic language more accessible.

The findings of the SR sessions therefore show that although the teachers had implemented changes in their planning and interactional management to varying degrees and with differing success, they all gained further insights into the role language played in their classrooms. However, it has to be acknowledged that the teachers mainly commented on the same issues as in the collaborative workshops, but not on others. Furthermore, after applying the CLIL strategies in practice some participants also voiced concerns about their suitability (time, weak students). Finally, Colin's example has also shown that some teachers continued to find it difficult to focus their attention on language-related issues, commenting on content and other factors instead. He also still did not seem to have fully understood the link between

classroom interactional management and the creation of learning opportunities. I return to some of these issues in the next section, where I explore the limitations of teachers' engagement with language-related issues further.

5.5   Limitations of the development of TLA

While the above extracts are evidence of participants' moments of awakening TLA, at least in certain areas, the CLIL-RP activity covered further aspects that the teachers did not reflect on or implement in practice. These areas are now explored further to provide a balanced view on the extent to which the teachers' TLA had indeed developed.

5.5.1 Focus on lexis

Part of the workshops' aims was to raise teachers' awareness that classroom language goes beyond subject-specific terminology (see section 4.1). While the teachers picked up on this in relation to the use of horizontal/vertical discourses (section 5.2.1), they hardly ever reflected on linguistic structures beyond lexis. Although in WS 2 teachers were invited to examine the accessibility of grammar structures in addition to key vocabulary, few did so, and then only briefly. Andrew, for example, questioned to what extent a phrase he had used to set up a task had been clear to the students. Colin similarly commented that in his transcript there were incomplete and thus potentially confusing sentences and economic stock phrases that could appear "*quaint*" to non-native speakers (WS 2). In the few cases where I highlighted grammatical features, such as the use of the passive voice, teachers remained even more muted. Thus, our discussions concerning accessibility of language continued to predominantly revolve around lexis, indicating that most participants were still not aware of linguistic structures beyond vocabulary or did not consider them important enough to explicitly focus on them. I return to this issue in section 7.5 when I reflect on my own language use in this context.

5.5.2 Corrective feedback

The issue of corrective feedback did not seem to resonate with the teachers either. While most of the participants diligently worked through the examples in WS 5 and

some made good observations – Lydia for example grasped the potentially problematic lack of salience in recasts (see Lyster, 2007: 96f.; Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 77; Li, 2014: 197) – most discussed corrective feedback in similar terms as in phase one, with some participants showing reluctance to undermine students' confidence and others reiterating that they felt they could not help but correct mistakes (even though the recordings had shown there was little difference in their actual practices – see section 4.5). Colin once questioned whether linguistic feedback was part of his remit as a subject teacher. Despite my input on the benefits of corrective feedback for language development and teachers' analysis of the data examples, none of the participants thus seemed particularly concerned about this and no one addressed it during the snapshots/SR sessions. In fact, Andrew was the only one who stopped the tape to discuss error corrections (WS 7), and there were only a couple of instances where other teachers touched on the issue when asking about the difference between recasts and reformulations. I took this as an indication that for the teachers this was not a pressing issue and that, overall, they had not developed their cognitions or practice further.

5.5.3 *Adoption of meta-language*

Furthermore, teachers' adoption of the meta-language – an important tool for creating a common language to enable discussions, build understandings and hence increase TLA (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 13; Llinares et al., 2012: 25; Morton, 2012: 17) – was fragmented. While most teachers picked up on horizontal/vertical discourse, other terms were not used at all. Some even caused confusion rather than provided clarity: when talking about instructional and regulative registers, for example, many teachers repeatedly conceptualised instructional as 'giving instructions', thus mixing it up with the regulative register, an easy mistake to make, but one which led Colin to conclude that the term was not "*helpful for non-language professionals*" (WS 6).

During the SR sessions, the use of meta-language in relation to the interactional features was unevenly distributed, too. While Andrew diligently used the interaction tool and clarified any terminological uncertainties, Colin only ever did so when I reminded him (except when commenting on extended wait-time after I had raised the issue – see extract 5.16). Hannah, Elaine and Lydia mainly adopted the meta-language to comment on extended wait-time, elaboration requests and

reformulations, but I also regularly fed in and helped with the terminology. It therefore needs to be acknowledged that the acquisition of meta-language as an indicator of increased TLA remained fragmented and depended on the individual.

5.5.4 Planning for language development

Throughout the workshops I had tried to raise teachers' awareness that language development is not an incidental by-product of content learning but can be fostered through planning. This was part of the reason the teachers were encouraged to use the planning tool for their snapshot recordings. However, as demonstrated in section 5.4.2, not all the teachers altered their lesson plans, and those who did often chose to focus on specific aspects of the toolkit only. This suggests that some participants did not see the need to change their routines and adopt a more systematic way of integrating language development into their lesson planning.

The question of planning was also briefly addressed in FG.3 when the teachers, as part of their diamond ranking task, discussed the extent to which they felt lesson planning should involve setting specific language aims/outcomes. Lydia and Andrew were reluctant to do so, arguing that they did not consider content and language learning aims as "*being two distinct things*". The other teachers had not ranked this statement highly either, except for Hannah, who was the only one supporting the idea. She considered it an important break from previous habits: "*Unless you are actually thinking about [language] and planning for it you tend to go back into your old ways*". However, even she remained unclear as to what extent she would make language learning aims explicit in her lessons. Despite some tentative signs that for the teachers language was no longer an "assumed" part of learning (Moate, 2011: 338) (e.g. see Violet, section 5.4.2), this suggested that for the participants language development continued to be a rather "diffused curriculum concern" and that content learning remained their primary focus (Morton, 2012: 70).

This became even more obvious when I compared the main areas and limits of their TLA development. If we conceptualise the TLA development foci on a continuum of 'more vs. less content-relevant' language-related matters, it is evident that the participants mainly engaged with those issues that can be considered most obviously relevant for subject learning. Accessibility and linguistic and cognitive engagement are both key areas that support meaning construction and therefore learning of content. Focus on form through corrective feedback, attention to linguistic

structures beyond lexis, teachers' use of the meta-language, and explicit planning for language development, on the other hand, can be found on the less obviously 'subject-relevant' end of such an imagined continuum. Thus, although there were promising instances that suggested that the teachers had developed selected aspects of their TLA further, I realised that they, just like participants in other studies (e.g. Karabassova, 2018: 5; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 151; Tan, 2011; Walker and Tedick., 2000: 17), remained predominantly focused on content-related meaning making and far away from adopting a "counter-balanced" approach (Lyster, 2007).

5.6   Wider concerns: Contextual barriers to the implementation of CLIL

Finally, the analysis of the workshop transcripts revealed that the participants often veered away from linguistic matters, discussing contextual issues instead, which they felt impacted on the practical implementation of the suggested CLIL strategies. We have already seen that Colin and Lydia (extract 5.6) had reservations about using support strategies as they felt this would not provide a realistic HE experience, and Hannah, Violet and Lydia questioned whether a more dialogic teaching approach or the engagement in higher-order thinking tasks could be achieved with linguistically weak students (extract 5.10; section 5.4.3).

One of the major concerns, however, seemed to relate to the issue of time (extracts 5.6/5.8; section 5.4.3). This corresponds with findings from other contexts, where teachers were worried about time-consuming lesson planning in CLIL (Pladevall-Ballester, 2015: 51; Fortune et al., 2008: 85; Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 258; Coonan, 2008: 638; Tatzl, 2011: 261) and detracting time from content to accommodate language learning during lessons (Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 153; Johnson, 2012: 61; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 340; Fortune et al., 2088: 89). In this study, it was the latter that was more widely discussed. In an extract from FG.3, Violet and Hannah commented on the pressures they were facing (extract 5.17):

Extract 5.17 FG.3 8.08-9.37
Context: During the FG.3 meeting I asked the teachers what they felt they had learnt about CLIL during the activity. This is Violet's response.

1	Violet:	I think I'm taking a lot less for granted with their, with their knowledge. I
2		think there's certainly assuming more than I do now. So I am being more
3		careful to explain, define, ahem, look at what's being, what they are
4		being asked, even just the questions. We put things in questions actually
5		that seem so, you know, standard, a standard example of something and
6		then you think actually, do they know what that is? Not sure they do. So,
7		you have to go back and just make sure that they do. But I think with,
8		with the maths, the big issue with it is the limited amount of time. There
9		isn't a lot of time for discussion. We literally have ten minutes in a
10		seminar which can be used for talking or for discussion and then the rest
11		of it has to be practice, practising the numbers. So, it is quite tight time
12		wise to be thinking about language in that way.
13	Hannah:	I think that is the case across us all, isn't it? Certainly it's the exp-, it's
14		more to, in your situation, but certainly I feel that, you know, we have so
15		much content to cover but equally we have got to teach them how to
16		think and how to understand the language, so it is new learning styles,
17		new language, new subject. It is asking a lot I think. **(laughs)**
18	Lydia:	It is, it is, yeah.

In this (and other) extracts, the issue of time was inextricably linked to the volume of the syllabus (l.15), again something discussed as potentially problematic in other CLIL contexts (Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 340; Morton, 2012: 203; Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 128). In phase one, Lydia had already described the syllabus for the international year one students as "*massive*" and the intensity of the course had been noted by Elaine as a key challenge for the students. This issue repeatedly resurfaced in phase two, with Gareth in particular questioning the impact of an overcrowded curriculum on teaching and learning (extract: 5.18).

Extract 5.18 WS 4 VLGE 13.38-15.04
Context: At the beginning of WS4 I asked the teachers what key message they had taken form the previous workshop. This is Gareth's answer.

1	Sandra:	Was that the key message for you, Gareth?
2	Gareth:	It was slightly different, because I am in sort of curriculum development
3		mode rather than sort of lesson planning, ahem, and whether it is a
4		message, it certainly is a thought, don't get hung up on a curriculum that
5		tries to deliver everything. **(For 30 seconds he talks about the specifics of**
6		**the Economics curriculum)** We try to get through a full text book in a
7		year and you could probably do that with English students. But you can't
8		when there are all of these issues...and even then, you would have to
9		question whether somebody at the age of 18, 19 has got the
10		understanding of the way how Economics works in the real world. So, it
11		was a question, rather than a message, which is how much do they need
12		to know and are there ways of giving them knowledge, the knowledge
13		that they need without having to have a series of 24 lectures each one on
14		a different subject that builds on the other?
15	Lydia:	So, you're thinking of deeper learning as opposed to much more content-
16		[wider curriculum]?
17	Gareth:	[I suppose, yes.] **(Discussion on curriculum continues)**

It is notable how Lydia (l.15) responded to Gareth's doubts about the amount of content covered by linking it back to one of her main concerns during the development activity, the issue of cognitive engagement (see extract 5.10), suggesting that as a result of an overcrowded curriculum students might be left with potentially wider knowledge, but also a more superficial level of learning. Hannah shared a similar concern; however, she not only blamed the syllabus, but also some module leaders' tendency to overfill sessions and not "*being realistic about how much you can put in.*" She reflected that as teachers "*this is something we are probably all guilty of because we want to, I don't know, impress with our knowledge and our skills*" and that we hence, despite good intentions, left students overwhelmed (WS 4).

Having to deal with an overcrowded syllabus and unrealistic lesson plans was not the only issue raised by the teachers. Some also cited the perspective taken to teach the curricular content as problematic regarding the implementation of some CLIL strategies. The Economics teachers, in particular, reflected how their modules had been redesigned to focus on theory rather than on practical application. Colin thus felt there was little scope for drawing on students' horizontal (linguistic) knowledge (extract 5.19).

Extract 5.19 WS 2 CH 41.56-45.00
Context: Follow up discussion to reflection task 1 (identification of horizontal/vertical discourse in teachers' transcripts and accessibility of the language used)
1   Sandra: Colin, how do you feel? Do you think yours is accessible to the students? 2   Colin: I think part of the problem is that, we have a, the approach that we 3   adopt, the microeconomics course in the first semester is very 4   fundamentalist theory. So, what the programme manager's insisted on is 5   back to basics theory which basically means not, it means very limited 6   discussion, very limited if any kind of films or contextual material and 7   basically, what is the definition of a concept? How do you apply a 8   concept, how do you graph that concept? How can, how does this 9   concept relate to other related groups of concepts within the same area, 10   within the same topic area? And it strikes me as, previously I would have 11   given them a lot more material and allowed them to let them to work 12   through it at their own pace outside the class and I would have identified 13   a number of key bits of the theory that I would highlight and, in a sense, 14   it is virtually sink or swim. This is what I consider important but this 15   background material is also important and you need to get the 16   opportunity to read it and I would sometimes sacrifice, ah some focus on 17   core theory to, I mean we have had this conversation, to talk about an 18   example from industry [or with a film or a newspaper article] 19   Sandra: [So what Hannah has done] 20   Colin: or whatever and I basically have been asked to go back to the theory. 21   This is how the theory operates ah this is how you could apply it in a 22   number of contexts but when you do that, you're gonna test their 23   understanding by giving them a worksheet, with a number of questions 24   and answers. Not by, by a set of discussions. Just the way, the way it's 25   being handled. I am not blaming anybody, I am simply saying it is a 26   different style, a different approach. Now that has its advantages and its 27   disadvantages obviously. From my perspective it, it gives me less scope in 28   my opinion to be as horizontal **(laughs)** that's a ridiculous way of putting 29   it as my (discursive) approach because it does not allow me to do the 30   same degree of ah of, kind of, we should call it common sense, 31   contextual.

Equally, the focus on theory meant that there was less scope for interdisciplinary or contrastive considerations across the programme, which Colin felt led to limited opportunities for higher-order thinking activities (WS 5). He explicitly linked this curricular approach to the decisions of the programme manager (l.4). He further revealed that the programme manager not only limited teachers' agency in terms of what to teach but also how to teach, as they had been provided with a series of worksheets that Colin felt left little room to linguistically engage students (l.23; also extract 5.11). Furthermore, he said certain support strategies such as the provision of

glossaries were not permitted on his programme to encourage students to take notes and become independent learners (WS 2). Gareth raised a similar issue, commenting on how difficult it was to work with other module leaders' materials, particularly if they had a teacher-centred approach (WS 4). Thus, time, the syllabus and programme/module management were considered by some participants as key obstacles for putting their newly acquired TLA and CLIL strategies into practice.

5.7   Summary

In response to research question II.1, the analysis has shown that during the CLIL-RP activity the participants gained new insights into the role language plays in the subject classroom. Their reflections and moments of awakening centred mainly around two themes: accessibility of language and students' cognitive and linguistic engagement. Each theme consisted of several subthemes, such as the use of horizontal/vertical discourse and visualisations, the importance of student-centred activities to foster a dialogic teaching approach and the role of questions, elaboration requests and extended wait-time as interactional features to encourage greater student engagement. However, the subthemes were not equally relevant for all participants as each teacher seemed to find their own specific area(s) of concern. Hence, while all teachers did develop their TLA further, this development remained fragmented and varied from individual to individual.

It has further been illustrated that these insights did not come easy to the participants. Reflecting on their classroom evidence and realising that there were discrepancies between what they thought they were doing (their cognitions) and what they were actually doing (their practice) were challenging for some (e.g. Lydia, Colin). Colin further seemed to struggle to combine the idea of accessibility strategies with what he believed to be the demands and norms of his subject. Equally, he did not seem to fully grasp the link between classroom interactional management and the creation of (language) learning opportunities.

When planning the snapshot recordings, it also became clear that most participants had taken a fractional rather than holistic approach to applying the CLIL strategies in practice. If they made changes to existing lesson plans at all, they mostly focused on very specific issues only. While the SR sessions provided further reflection opportunities, they (and other instances of self-reported behavioural changes) also revealed that some teachers found it more difficult than others to focus

on language-matters and commented on content and other factors instead. Some participants (Colin, Gareth) might also have benefitted from more guidance on how to implement their newfound understanding in practice. Other participants (Hannah, Violet, Lydia) raised concerns about the suitability of certain CLIL strategies, particularly when working with weak students.

Furthermore, the participants were noticeably less concerned about language-related matters, which were not obviously linked to the construction of subject meaning. For example, they did not develop their cognitions and practices regarding corrective feedback strategies and continued to talk about subject-specific language mainly in terms of lexis rather than any other linguistic category. The adoption of the meta-language remained fragmented, too. This and the lack of commitment to systematically plan for language development and identify language-specific lesson aims suggested that the teachers continued to consider content learning to be their primary focus, while language learning remained a more "diffused curriculum concern" (Morton, 2012: 70). Furthermore, the discussions also revealed that the teachers perceived some factors linked to the institutional context, such as time pressure, the syllabus and module/programme management, as barriers to the implementation of some CLIL strategies. Colin and Lydia at one point questioned whether CLIL was a suitable pedagogical framework for the pathway sector as they feared it would not provide a realistic HE experience for the students.

Overall, despite some promising moments of awakening and attempts to appropriate and apply their newfound knowledge, the development of the participants' TLA therefore seemed to be individualised, fragmented and remained limited. This raises questions about how TLA development activities can be organised in the future, an issue which is further informed by the next chapter, where I explore how the participants themselves evaluated the CLIL-RP activity.

Chapter 6. Phase II Findings:
Teachers' evaluation of the CLIL-RP activity

6.1   Introduction

While research question II.1 explored the extent to which the participants' TLA developed, RQ II.2 investigated how they evaluated the CLIL-RP activity. This was not only important from a pragmatist viewpoint to give participants a voice (see sections 3.2.2 and 3.5), but also because little is known about how teachers view RP development activities in CLIL generally and the pathway sector in particular. Such knowledge, however, can inform the design of similar activities in the future. Unlike the analysis of the previous research question, the analysis here was guided by pre-conceived themes: teachers' evaluation of the learning that took place, of the toolkit and of data-led RP. The findings are based on the data collected during the workshops, FG.3 and the online survey (see section 3.8.3 and 3.9.6).

6.2   Learning

In FG.3, the teachers were asked what they had 'learnt' about CLIL during the development activity. Some responses have already been cited above but are revisited here to confirm that all participants were positive they had learnt more about language-related matters in their classrooms. Colin, for example, remarked on the importance of accessibility of language (section 5.2.3), Elaine on the use of visualisations (section 5.2.2), Violet on how she questioned her assumptions and took "*less for granted*" now. Lydia, more generally, said the activity had made her "*think about the language that I am using in a [...] classroom setting or the language that we use to maybe construct activities*". Similar comments were made in the online survey, where participants stated the activity had helped them "*consider in more detail the way I phrase questions and organise activities to get the most out of our students*" and "*consider dialogic preparation much more carefully*". Another claimed they were "*more aware of the language that I use; I have found myself being more careful to explain the terms which I use and take less for granted where the students' language knowledge is concerned. I have started to question and check the students' knowledge and understanding of the terms*". These statements not only suggest that the teachers themselves felt they had developed their TLA further, but the range of

comments also corroborates the argument made above that they felt strongly about different issues and that therefore the development of TLA had varied from individual to individual. This was further confirmed by one of the survey tasks, in which the teachers ranked the 'usefulness' of the collaborative workshops. The answers varied again, indicating that the participants felt differently about which development foci had been most valuable to them.

Furthermore, there were two instances that suggested that the CLIL-RP activity had challenged some teachers to reflect on language learning in the wider context of the pathway programme: Andrew remarked on how for him the activity had "*re-emphasised*" (l.1) the fact that language development was not an isolated occurrence, which had an impact on how he considered his role and responsibilities (extract 6.1).

Extract 6.1 FG.3 3.50-4.43
Context: At the beginning of the final focus group meeting (FG.3), I asked the participants what they felt they had learnt about CLIL during the development activity.
<table><tr><td>1</td><td>Andrew:</td><td>I think for me it has re-emphasized the fact that students are developing</td></tr><tr><td>2</td><td></td><td>their language all of the time and, you know, it is not a sort of self-</td></tr><tr><td>3</td><td></td><td>contained thing in other classes. It is something that is going on all the</td></tr><tr><td>4</td><td></td><td>time and we need to, yeah, play our part in helping them to develop that.</td></tr><tr><td>5</td><td>Sandra:</td><td>What do you mean, play our part in that?</td></tr><tr><td>6</td><td>Andrew:</td><td>That we are, as subject teachers, content teachers, whatever you want to</td></tr><tr><td>7</td><td></td><td>call us we are, we are the same, part of the team that is helping them</td></tr><tr><td>8</td><td></td><td>achieve those goals, yeah, that it should not be left to somebody else to</td></tr><tr><td>9</td><td></td><td>take care of those things.</td></tr></table>

Andrew had made a similar comment in the first focus group, saying he tried not to see a "*massive difference*" between EAP and subject teachers as both should "*be working together to try to develop students' skills*". At the time, however, he had only commented on the need be "*aware what's going on*" on each side of the programme, while now he went further, explicitly saying that subject teachers should "*play [their] part*" with regards to helping students develop their language further (l.4/7). For me, this was evidence that Andrew was beginning to embrace an identity not only as a subject teacher but as "one who supports the needs of English language learners" (Winkle, 2014: 195).

Elaine, too, mentioned how the activity had challenged her to rethink her teaching role, this time from the student perspective. She explained how the recordings in particular had been an "*eye opener*" regarding what it must feel like to be a student in her class and how this had helped her develop greater "*empathy*" (FG.3). She made a similar point in WS 6, explaining that she now had greater appreciation of the fact that students were studying in a foreign language and that their linguistic needs had to be addressed (extract 6.2).

Extract 6.2 WS 6 S 32.55-33.27
Context: At the end of WS 6 I asked Elaine to evaluate the toolkit. In her answer, she reflected on the whole development activity.
1   Elaine: I think for me one of the most important things that has come out of this, 2   is, the, is putting to the front of my mind that these are international 3   students as opposed to these are students. 'Cause I've taught for years, 4   so these are students where I need to, you know, discuss certain things 5   or whatever, ahem, putting it to the front of my mind and in terms of 6   using language and trying to explain, making sure they understand the 7   language before they even understand the theory and so on. All of that 8   is, I suppose has made me, going through this process has made much 9   more aware of that.

Despite such positive responses that the participants had gained greater insights into language-related matters, there was acknowledgement that the practical application of these new insights remained "*work in progress*" (Violet, FG.3) and that a long-term view of the CLIL-RP activity's impact could only be taken once planning for the new academic year started (Andrew).

The absence of a longitudinal perspective in the study was further criticised as some felt it impacted negatively on the learning opportunities created. Lydia, for example, complained that in the collaborative workshops there had been an "*overreliance*" on data collected from one recording only, which she felt did not sufficiently reflect the teachers' varied practices and thus constituted a "*limitation*" of the study (WS 5). In FG.3, she further expressed concerns that there had been little time between the SR sessions to try out and reflect on the proposed CLIL strategies (extract 6.3).

Extract 6.3 FG.3 53.46-54.59
Context: Towards the end of FG.3 I asked the participants about the impact the CLIL-RP development activity had made on their practice.

1	Sandra:	So overall, how do you feel, this activity, the workshops, listening to the
2		recordings, doing the workshops, looking at the toolkit, ahem, how do
3		you feel what impact has all of this this made on your practice?
4	Lydia:	I think it is difficult to say because, I think what you have done has been
5		really, really good but I think it needed to be a little bit more, ahem,
6		longitudinal? Because obviously some of the stuff was very truncated,
7		you know, you did a recording one week and then you did a recording the
8		next and it would have been nice to have taken that, you know, say that
9		recording maybe a few weeks before and then sort of looked at how you
10		would effect a change in between but I think it was all a bit (swodged) up.
11		It would also probably have been nice to also look at the same subjects
12		over time, so you would have actually got a sort of more scientific
13		approach, you know, cause I was doing it with different classes, which
14		also has its, same idea, but I suppose having the luxury, maybe other
15		people did that I don't know, maybe they used the same group, I don't
16		know. That would have been, from <u>my</u> point of view that would have
17		been good, but you may have got that from your other research. So
18		maybe just a little bit sort of ahem longer to sort of like affect a change
19		and reflect on it yeah, you know, and then (put that into) practice would
20		have been good.

Hannah agreed with Lydia but further added that because of the considerable time difference between the first recording and the two snapshots for the SR sessions, it was difficult for the teachers to compare the extent to which they had effected changes, particularly with regards to interaction, as students' language skills had also improved over the course.

Questions of time were further raised in relation to the collaborative sessions. Hannah, for example, criticised how some sessions had been too full; in the survey suggestions were also made that sessions should have been reduced in length or that alternatively some issues could have been better tackled in a longer training day to maximise teachers' opportunities for learning.

Elaine further felt that more voices should have been included and more guidance provided. Not only was she critical of the fact that students had not been involved, as she was interested in hearing from their point of view what they found "*helpful*", but she would have also preferred more input from me regarding areas for improvement (extract 6.4, l.22ff.). This suggested that rather than being involved in processes of self-reflection and -discovery, she might have preferred an "instructor's

voice" or at least more salience in my responses (Mann, 205: 107; Calderhead, 1989: 47).

Extract 6.4 WS 7 S 28.56-30.37
Context: During WS 7 I asked Elaine for her feedback on the toolkit.
1 Sandra: Any feedback you would like to give on the toolkit itself, anything that 2   struck, anything that you think mhm needs changing, or this needs 3   highlighting, or? 4 Elaine: I think what you need to do with the toolkit, I think things like facilitation 5   of peer feedback and so on, I think we use a lot of these things, I think 6   what is really important in the toolkit is that we become more conscious 7   of them. Ahem I mean some of the things we may not use, and therefore 8   yes it might be a new thing that we are learning but I think a lot of these 9   things basically is <u>good teaching</u> no matter who you are teaching. I think 10   with the toolkit, I think we need to be made much more aware of when 11   we are doing it and when we are not doing it, and you know, and how we 12   can actually fit that into our teaching and things. But I think, I think it 13   certainly, the whole thing if you like has made me much more conscious 14   of the way I put things across, the way I wait for answers, the way I try to 15   explain things, the information I get back from the students and so on. It 16   has made me much more conscious of that. Definitely. 17 Sandra: So, when you say, oh, we need to be much more aware, we need to be 18   much more conscious of when we're doing it and when we were not 19   doing it, ahem, would you like to have had <u>me</u> [comment on that?] 20 Elaine: [Yeah, yeah] 21 Sandra: rather than, ok= 22 Elaine: =I think that would have been useful if you had sort of said, right, you did 23   that, you should have done that, or that would have been better there or 24   have you not thought about, do you know what I mean? So getting 25   feedback that way raises our [awareness as well] 26 Sandra: [Ok, ok] 27 Elaine: when we're using it and 28   when we should have been using it and so on. That would have been very 29   useful.

Other teachers, too, felt that further improvements could have been made to maximise teachers' learning. In the survey, one participant suggested showing videos of good practice, and Colin (WS 7) and Hannah (FG.3) both stated they would have liked to have more opportunities to "*learn across the group*" and get "*different views and opinions*" on how to deal with a variety of issues. Thus, the collaborative learning aspect that had been so central to the conceptualisation of the CLIL-RP

activity, but that had diminished due to the institution's failure to provide us with a meeting slot, was indeed missed by the teachers.

6.3   Toolkit

In addition to the learning opportunities created in the workshops in general, we also discussed the CLIL-RP toolkit in particular. Again, teachers' evaluations were largely positive: Carolyn for example described it as "*good*" (WS 6), Lydia as "*quite useful*" (WS 7), and Elaine's comments in extract 6.4 show that (despite the lack of input from me) the toolkit had helped her become more "*conscious*" of her language use (l.13/16). In WS 6 Andrew similarly said it had triggered him to think about his routines in "*different ways*" and that "*it did help me to break things down and to think about different components that I otherwise would not have given much thought to*". He repeated this in WS 7: "*[The toolkit] has been quite helpful in highlighting what I am doing and make me think about what I am doing, the questions that I am asking, think about the particular approach I am taking*".

While the toolkit thus seemed to have fulfilled its purpose to support reflection and raise awareness of specific language-related issues in the context of this study, I also proposed the idea of using it for further staff development activities or staff induction. The teachers generally seemed to support this proposal (see extract 6.7), except for one participant, who in the survey stated that they had reservations about using the toolkit with new employees as "*you need to have some direct experience of teaching our students as a sort of baseline from which to work*".

Again, however, there were various suggestions about how to improve the toolkit. Lydia, for example, felt it was not extensive enough as further aspects on group dynamics, culture, confidence and learning styles were missing, all of which she considered important issues in the "*particular environment*" of the pathway (WS 7). Gareth, too, suggested further additions to the toolkit as he would have liked more practical help with how to implement the CLIL strategies: "*ideas perhaps about how to deliver these things*".

However, not all participants felt the toolkit was incomplete. On the contrary, there were critical voices suggesting the volume of the information included and the scale of its design were obstacles to its practical application. Hannah in particular raised the issue, saying it needed to be more "*user-friendly*" (FG.3; WS 6/7). This led to an interesting discussion in FG.3 that showed how on the one hand the teachers

valued the "*completeness*" of the toolkit and appreciated the broad approach, but on the other hand they were also concerned about integrating this new approach into their already busy workload and wanted a toolkit that was "*briefer*" with clearer "*signposting*" to help them focus on specific issues for different groups. Colin even suggested that the focus of the toolkit/theoretical input could be significantly reduced (extract 6.5).

Extract 6.5 FG.3 51.47-52.45
Context: During the final focus group meeting (FG.3) the discussed the toolkit and whether it needed to be made more concise.

1	Colin:	But the completeness, the completeness of the ahem theory, and having
2		the framework on one side of A4 or whatever is =
3	Hannah:	= It's good, yeah =
4	Colin:	=It's great. However, it is like most things in life, the kind of Pareto
5		principle applies, doesn't' it? You know, so you got an 80/20 rule and you
6		know. 80 percent, you know, 20 percent of scenarios happen 80 per cent
7		of the time you know (laughs). So identify what those are, and focus, I am
8		not saying that you're gonna focus on them and exclude everything else
9		but I would assume that that helps you with the usability of the theory.
10		What are the things like you were saying that come up time after time
11		after time in different contexts? And identify those and that gives you
12		your 20 per cent of the theory that is going to be used all the time.

While the teachers' suggestions to enhance the user-friendliness of the toolkit were important and valid points, the requests for further sign-posting and quick access for specific issues, and particularly Colin's comment to identify the "*twenty percent*" most common "*scenarios*" to increase its usability (l.6ff.), left me wondering what the teachers were actually looking for. Rather than engaging with the toolkit as a holistic instrument to transform their planning and interactional practices, it seemed they were interested in an easy "problem solving tool", a "bag of tricks" almost (Short, 2013: 124), to swiftly address a variety of problems in all kinds of situations and with various groups. I will return to this in the discussion (Chapter 8).

6.4 Data-led reflective practice

Finally, teachers' comments also revealed their opinions regarding the fact that the activity had been designed as data-led RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017). During the collaborative workshops, there were several instances suggesting some participants initially had to get used to encountering evidence from their own practice. Some for example explicitly stated the reading of the transcripts had them "*smiling and blushing*" (Gareth, WS 4) or made them "*cringe*" (Colin, WS 2), while others conveyed a sense of unease by laughing or joking (Hannah, WS 2).

Despite such moments of awkwardness, however, all the participants were positive about this form of RP: Elaine for example commented that the SR had been the "*most useful*" part of the development activity for her "*because you don't really get the opportunity to listen to yourself*" (FG.3). Similarly, Colin and Andrew commented positively on the detailed insights the combination of toolkit and transcripts/recordings had provided: "*It is not a case of generating your own kind of insightful moments. You are actually confronted with the reality*" (FG.3).

However, although Colin once explicitly mentioned the toolkit as a part of the reflective process (FG.3), there was another instance when he questioned whether the theoretical framework, CLIL, in which the toolkit was conceived, was indeed relevant (extract 6.6):

Extract 6.6 FG.3 40.43-41.16
Context: During FG.3 I asked the teachers which part of the workshop had been the most useful for them.
1   Colin: To be honest any-, anything that involves replaying your practice and 2   giving you an opportunity to deconstruct your practice is going to be 3   useful irrespective of the theoretical context in which you discuss it. So 4   yes, I found that, I learnt, I learnt a lot more about what I was doing right 5   and what I was doing wrong, by listening to the tape than through, with 6   all due respect, the workshop interaction.

Elaine had made similar remarks in phase one as well as in extract 6.4, wondering to what extent CLIL was offering any new pedagogical insights into the teaching of international students or whether it was simply about "*good teaching*" (see van Kampen, 2016: 2). This was also picked up in extract 6.7 when Hannah remarked that the development activity had not only been about CLIL but had generally contributed to raising teachers' awareness of their practice (extract 6.7).

Extract 6.7 FG.3 1.02.57-1.05.45
Context: During the final focus group meeting (FG.3) I asked the teachers to what extent they felt CLIL helped address the pedagogical needs of pathway students.

1	Gareth:	Well my reaction is, there's two sides to it. One is all of our teachers
2		should be doing this. So that's probably evidence to suggest that it is
3		extremely useful, and the second thing is more of a whinge, which is it's a
4		shame that we are not more module leaders from a variety of
5		programmes in your focus group. So that is how valuable I think it is. I am
6		not saying it should be made compulsory but it should be nearly
7		compulsory=
8	Hannah:	=It is essential, personally=
9	Andrew:	= Yeah, for me it's about what you just said, just making you aware of
10		what it feels like for the students and just all of the detail of, like you say,
11		all the things on the toolkit you have to think about, just making you
12		more aware of everything.
13	Colin:	I have got two kinds of perspectives on this. One is there should be an
14		induction, [staff induction]
15	Lydia:	[I think that would be really useful]
16	Colin:	But not, not in this format
17		but the kind of 20/80 format I talked about. So what are the scenarios,
18		what are the approaches you can adopt, because at the end of the day it
19		is all about integrating language learning into subject teaching. That is
20		one side. The other side is, all these teachers have been teaching forever,
21		who maybe are not aware of how they are teaching. They lack that self-
22		awareness and some CPD around this, not a lot, a couple of workshops,
23		more than enough. Do the tape **(laughs)**. I mean it is scary, quite scary,
24		isn't it in that context?
25	Hannah:	I think it is essential, I think it should be an ongoing thing, I think it should
26		be a regular thing, I think. And a lot of it is not just about CLIL it is about
27		videoing us, and yeah we have people come in and watch us but we don't
28		really get much feedback we certainly don't see ourselves and it is about,
29		you know, it's about us being watched and us being videoed and about
30		us being able [to see]
31	Andrew:	[I agree]
32	Hannah:	It is about the visual side of it that we talked
33		about, it is about the content and how much there is of it and it is the
34		whole thing for me=
35	Andrew:	=Yeah and I think there is a very big difference between reflection and
36		it's just an overall impression, like you say some observers will take notes
37		and say in their overall impression how the lesson went but the detail of
38		how exactly you phrased a particular question and all of that comes from
39		the recording and I thing that is the most valuable thing, yeah it should
40		be an ongoing thing.
41	Colin:	I mean there is something really powerful both about listening to
42		something and seeing a transcript at the same time, I mean the two, I
43		mean an oral stimulation and a visual stimulation you know and it is, it
44		has made a real impact **(laughs)** on yourself awareness.

Given that the whole activity was designed as data-led RP centred around CLIL and the development of TLA, it is impossible to deconstruct whether the participants gained more insights through the introduction of CLIL strategies or through the engagement with the data as both were inextricably linked throughout. However, particularly when taking extract 6.7 into account, the participants' comments are testament to their positivity towards data-led RP and their desire to get together as professionals on an ongoing basis, to share their experiences and develop their self-awareness of their practice further. This was confirmed in the survey, where five out of seven teachers stated they would recommend the development activity either for new starters at the centre or for continuous professional development for existing staff. This indicated that, overall, the data-led RP activity had been a useful experience for them.

6.5   Summary

Considering the teachers' responses, their overall evaluation of the CLIL-RP activity was positive. They all confirmed that their awareness of language-related issues had grown and that they had gained useful insights into their practice. The participants' responses with regards to the toolkit further suggested that it fulfilled its purpose and helped teachers to focus their reflection and sharpen their perceptions of certain interactional features. Finally, the teachers also commented positively on the fact that the activity had been data-led and involved examination of teachers' own practice. They expressed their desire for further, ongoing teacher development activities.

Still, despite this apparent success, there was acknowledgement that the integration of a greater language focus into their practice remained "*work in progress*". Equally, there were many suggestions about how the workshops could have been improved. The activity was particularly criticised for not providing any longitudinal insights. Furthermore, some teachers suggested reconsidering the length/format of workshops and would have preferred more collaboration between colleagues. Elaine further commented negatively on the lack of student involvement and suggested that greater learning could have been achieved had I provided more evaluative feedback. The toolkit also attracted advice for improvement: while some teachers suggested it was not extensive enough, others felt its design/volume was too unwieldy for everyday use. Such comments left me wondering to what extent the teachers were interested in a 'quick fix' tool, which could be applied in all scenarios,

but without having to undergo the holistic transformation of practice required by CLIL. This was further compounded when some participants questioned to what extent the introduction to CLIL had actually provided them with greater insights, or whether it was the reflection on practice evidence that had proved most valuable.

Despite such varied opinions, however, the majority of the participants supported the idea of implementing a similar activity for new and existing staff and suggested some form of data-led RP should be a continuous feature for professional development at the pathway centre. Before the discussion explores options about how this can be done on the basis of the study's findings, however, the next section focuses on one final factor impacting on the development of the participants' TLA: my role as CLIL-RP facilitator.

Chapter 7. Self-reflection:
Becoming aware of the impact of the CLIL-RP workshop leader role(s)

7.1 Introduction

This chapter examines my role in the development activity. As initiator of this research project and designer of the CLIL-RP workshops, I have made my methodological and pedagogical decisions transparent in section 2.4.2 and Chapter 3. Equally, by using the first person, I am highlighting my authorship of this thesis and emphasising my interpretation of the events. Still, there is a need to add this critical self-reflection as to understand the extent to which the CLIL-RP activity triggered the development of the participants' TLA, my role as workshop leader must not be overlooked. Although this might seem obvious, it was only through applying the principles of RP that I myself became increasingly 'reflexive' –i.e. that I critically examined my own subjective positionality as a key member of the development sessions (Mann, 2016: 15ff.). Hence, I developed a fuller understanding of the different aspects my role involved. Reflecting on the institutional factors framing the project in general and the workshop recordings in particular, I recognised that my involvement in the development activity was actually fivefold and oscillated between being a workshop organiser, facilitator, colleague, RP communicator and student-researcher. I became increasingly aware that the way I handled the demands of each of these roles was inextricably linked to how reflection opportunities for the participants were created. Thus, my own (in)experience as CLIL-RP workshop leader impacted on their TLA development. Although these different roles overlapped, I address them one-by-one to illustrate my point.

7.2 Workshop organiser

As outlined in section 2.4.2, I had originally planned to organise small workshop groups with a stable membership where trusting relationships conducive to collaborative learning could develop. However, the study centre's failure to provide us with timetable slots to facilitate such meetings had profound effects on me as well as the project overall. The first effect was administrative as I consequently took on the role of organiser, which for each workshop involved the time-consuming task of

navigating various room booking systems and the mental burden of tracking participants' continuously changing timetables. Due to programme demands, workshops frequently had to be rescheduled, and although we tried to meet only every three weeks, there were instances when I only found out on the day who was (un)able to attend a session and whether another meeting needed to be arranged. Equally, I often had to chase participants for timetables or confirmation of attendance, sometimes leaving me with the uneasy feeling that they felt (understandably) hassled by me. Thus, the lack of timetable slots not only left me with a substantial additional workload – and therefore sometimes quite stressed – but also a sense of guilt that I had put undue pressure on my colleagues. Consequently, I felt more obliged to make the experience enjoyable and useful for them (see section 7.3).

Secondly, the lack of timetable slots also resulted in everchanging group membership, meaning that there were few opportunities for participants to exchange and develop ideas with the same person from one workshop to the next. The impact this had on individuals cannot be judged, but I certainly felt concerned that trusting relationships fundamental to collaborative learning (see section 2.4.2) were difficult to form. Thus, while I regularly encouraged the participants to discuss their insights, I felt reluctant to organise tasks that would require them to swap transcripts. It was only in the final collaborative workshop (WS 5) that I put together a small selection of short extracts from across the group to illustrate various interactional features. Consequently, teachers' opportunities to share and reflect on a wider variety of evidence and to discuss issues collaboratively were restricted, something that at least Hannah and Colin considered a drawback of the activity (see section 6.2).

7.3   Facilitator

The lack of timetable slots also resulted in smaller group sizes than intended; sometimes I met with two participants at a time or even one-to-one. This changed the whole nature of the CLIL-RP activity as its core principle, the creation of professional learning opportunities through peer collaboration, was diminished. Consequently, my presence became more prominently felt. Rather than feeding off each other's experiences and exploring issues as a group, there were a couple of instances where teachers seemed to seek a more instructive voice and relied on me to explain how strategies could be applied in context. As this involved disciplines I was not an expert

in, this was not always easy. In WS 4, for example, Hannah asked me how she could integrate a greater focus on intercultural learning into Marketing and how this would benefit her subject. Instead of engaging with her and her subject, I gave an example Violet had related in another session about how her intercultural awareness had grown as a result of our sessions and how she had discussed marking expectations with a student. In hindsight, this example did not address Hannah's question sufficiently (extract 7.1).

Extract 7.1 WS4 H 56.11-57.18
Context: During WS 4 we discussed CLIL's stance on culture and that students need to be encouraged to reflect on intercultural learning. In this extract, Hannah asked me how she could build this into her Marketing lessons.

1	Hannah:	This intercultural thing, I don't really, I am not quite sure what I might,
2		how I might do that, or how I might encourage it more, or what I might
3		get out of it, ahem, in terms of Marketing, learning about Marketing?
4	Sandra:	Ahem, just this morning, ah, it came up with one of the teachers who
5		said, you know I asked them, did you try to use any of this since we met
6		last time? And she said, actually I was very much reminded of this
7		intercultural awareness thing because there was an issue about marking
8		and there was an issue about expectations of marks. A student got into
9		the 90% or something but was really disappointed that the final few
10		marks were actually missing - I have got an 80 and the final 20 marks are
11		missing- and just came and said, well, you know you've told us that it is
12		different here but my parents are really disappointed with me now. And
13		so they had this long discussion about what can be expected in terms of
14		marking and what can't be expected in terms of marking **(discussion**
15		**continues)**

Equally, as the groups were smaller there were fewer examples to draw on when examining the data and discussing the implementation of CLIL strategies. Thus, the onus was on me to provide suitable illustration, something I did not always succeed in. Extract 7.2 is an example where, in a one-to-one session, I was keen to get Hannah to reflect on the impact of various question types on students' language production, but because of the lack of examples to draw on, the opportunities to do so were limited. An extract from her lesson transcript and the reflective commentary are provided for illustration.

Extract 7.2 WS 3 H 21.55-23.41		
Context: During WS 3 Hannah and I discussed the length of student utterances in her transcript.		
Lesson transcript: LO.H 6.30-8.30		

1	T	I want to have a quick look now before we move on to do an exercise
2		and look at soup. Does everyone know what soup is first of all, yeah?
3		'Cause I've had a group in the past that did not know what soup was.
4	Ss	**(laugh)**
5	T	So soup is the liquid food that you have, yeah, in a bowl, ok. So can you
6		tell me what you think the benefits of these different soups are. So
7		what's this one? Do you know what this is, have you seen this one or
8		something similar?
9	Sf	**(mumbles)**
10	T	What is it?
11	Sf	It's a powder.
12	T	It's a powder, yeah, so why is that potentially a benefit **(Name)**What do
13		you think?
14	Sf	It's quick to cook.
15	T	Quick to cook, yes. It's also cheap, easy to carry, yeah? I've got another
16		one here. This is similar. But it's, remember we talked yesterday about
17		sachets and I showed you a sachet, yeah.
18	Sf	Paste.
19	T	It's like a paste in a sachet yes. So how do you think that is different to
20		that one?
21	Sf	Small.
22	T	It's smaller, yeah. What do you think about the quality? Do you think
23		the quality will be better? Or less, less good?
24	Ss	**(mumble)**
25	T	Well, I'll tell you. It's meant to be better quality 'cause powder is seen
26		as lower quality, yeah? 'Cause it's more processed, it's more dried out.
27		This is actually in a puree form, so it's meant to be higher quality, you
28		just add water. But again it's portable, it's easy to carry, yeah that's
29		what we mean by portable. This one?
30	Sf	Can.
31	T	It's a can. Anything special about that can?
32	Sm	You don't have to add water.
33	T	You don't need to add water to that one. What does it say ahem on the
34		top?
35	Sf	Sainsbury's basic.

Reflective commentary		
36	Sandra:	What do you think triggers a longer or a shorter answer? (6) Why do
37		you think their answers, their answers are so short? (3)
38	Hannah:	Mhm (6) I don't know.
39	Sandra:	Do you think it's because, just simply because they are new? Or has it
40		to do with how you are asking the questions?
41	Hannah:	Well, I am not asking closed questions, particularly. Ahem, I am asking
42		them what do you think? Ahem
43	Sandra:	And that gets a longer answer, doesn't it? It's quick to cook.
44	Hannah:	Yeah?
45	Sandra:	It is actually one of the longer utterances, [isn't it]?
46	Hannah:	[Yeah]
47	Sandra:	What do you think?
48		Oh I think it is quick to cook. That triggers a longer answer, doesn't it?
49	Hannah:	Yeah (2) I guess maybe there are some closed questions there, but (2)
50		yeah there is a mixture of closed and open there and certainly the open
51		ones do get, it's a can, is there anything special about this can? You
52		don't have to add water.
53	Sandra:	What does it say on the top? Basic.
54	Hannah:	Mhm?
55	Sandra:	The next one - what does it say on the top? [Basic]
56	Hannah:	[Yeah]
57	Sandra:	Sainsbury basic,
58		yeah? So, I think there is a lot of interaction here and I think there are
59		different length of student utterances and you know other people's
60		**(transcripts)** were probably much clearer than this, but overall it was
61		actually quite obvious, closed answer **(question)** - one word.
62	Hannah:	Mhm.

There are several aspects of this extract, which, in Colin's words (section 6.4) make me "*cringe*" – not least my incomplete explanation that merely refers to "*closed questions*" (l. 61 – I later introduced other question types) and my interactional management which, by asking a range of suggestive questions (l.39ff.) and by making an instructive comment (l.58ff.), restricted the 'space' for true co-construction of meaning to take place (Walsh and Li, 2013) – but also the fact that in my eagerness I overlooked that because we only had her transcript available there were insufficient examples to convincingly illustrate my point. While it was technically true that the "*What do you think*?" question (l.12f.) triggered a complete sentence as opposed to a one-word answer, it was still a short response unsuitable to demonstrate the different potential inherent in various question types (see section 2.3.1), particularly as similar questions (l.19/22) did not produce longer answers.

Reflecting on this exchange, I realised that because of the lack of further evidence I had failed to provide a reasonable rationale or "sense of plausibility" regarding why it might be a good idea to include a variety of question types (Prabhu, 1987: 105 cited in Hayes, 1995: 256). Unsurprisingly, Hannah did not seem convinced (l.51/58f./75)

However, it was not only the lack of collaborative learning opportunities and varied evidence that impacted on my role as facilitator. Following Lydia's comments that the first lesson recording was just a snapshot and hence not representative of her overall practices (see section 5.3.2), I wondered to what extent my decision to provide the teachers with pre-selected data extracts from phase one had drawbacks from a group dynamic and learning point of view. For practical reasons I had taken on the task of transcribing and selecting the transcripts for the collaborative workshop discussions myself (see section 2.4.2). Yet, I began to understand that by doing so I had removed the need for the participants to make their own decisions about what evidence to collect or which particular incidents to discuss. Thus, I had not only taken agency away from them, but also created a situation in which they might feel 'caught out' or that the example was atypical of their practice, thus potentially leading to a reluctance to critically engage with the data.

Thus, a range of factors contributed to the fact that in some sessions my role became more instructive and less facilitative than intended, leaving fewer opportunities (or even less necessity) for teachers to critically reflect on and engage with their classroom data and the topic under discussion. This was not only ironic, given I tried to get the teachers to move away from transmission styles of learning in their own lessons, but also meant that the character of some sessions was reminiscent of the 'top-down' training approach I had originally wanted to avoid (see sections 1.5 and 2.4.1). This became particularly obvious when comparing the WS 3 transcripts when in one session I met with Hannah one-to-one and in another with four participants. In the latter constellation, I easily slipped into the facilitator role as the group dynamic enabled greater collaborative discussion (see extracts 5.7-9).

7.4   Colleague

Smaller groups also meant my relationships with individual participants came to the fore more noticeably than anticipated. I had worked with some teachers more closely in the past than with others, and some I even considered friends. The need to therefore include an anonymous survey for the evaluation has already been

discussed (see section 3.8.3); however, there were instances when I was conscious that not only I but also the other participants were picking up on the change in roles (and power?) between us. Hannah for example jokingly called me "*Miss*" (WS 3) and Andrew a "*teacher's pet*" when I positively affirmed one of his answers (WS 5). While such banter was in good spirit, I was still concerned about whether I was perceived as patronising or too critical, particularly when challenging teachers or pointing out areas for improvement.

My desire not to appear too critical was partly linked to my attempt to avoid the deficit model of training and to encourage self-development (see sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2), but also partly to the fact that my colleagues had voluntarily taken on the extra burden of the workshops. Thus, I wanted to ensure the activity was a positive experience for them. However, I quickly realised there were situations where, to trigger further reflection, I needed to probe more rather than rely on the evidence to "speak for itself" (Timperley and Earl, 2009: 121). I found this balancing act difficult and realised how "very hard" such challenging conversations can indeed be (ibid.: 124). I was conscious that at times I was reluctant to appear too critical and that I neglected to probe teachers for further elaboration. Hence, the discussions of individuals' transcripts at times remained superficial and opportunities for deeper reflection and learning were missed. At other times, maybe even in an attempt to overcompensate, I put them on the spot too much and participants became defensive (e.g. the use of an overgeneralisation in extract 5.9). In extract 7.3, for example, I repeatedly focus on Gareth's transcript to emphasise the importance of dialogic teaching (l.1/8). As a result, he understandably diverted the attention away from himself and towards the module leadership and curriculum (l.12ff.).

Extract 7.3 WS4 CLGE 59.20-1.01.23
Context: This extract is from WS 4 when teachers were invited to reflect on the cognitive level of the questions/tasks set during their observed lessons. Although Gareth had previously reflected how in hindsight he should have added a group task and formulated his questions differently, I repeated his point and re-emphasised the shortness of the student answers in his transcript.

1 2	Sandra:	Because when you look at the language, ahem the language that you are getting back is very, very short.
3 4 5 6	Gareth:	Initially, in the beginning, yes, which is what I wanted. Do you understand what stock is, do you understand what a share is, what's the difference? Ahem, but I was not later on getting any longer answers because the question was not formulated in the right way=
7 8 9 10 11	Sandra:	=Yes, yeah and this gets us back to last week, doesn't it? If, if like you said, probably if you had allowed them this discussion time in little groups, built their confidence, talked about it and then said, right, justify the answer to me and you could have probably pushed the output a bit more=
12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28	Gareth:	=I have to defend myself here I mean, the second half of the semester I dropped the module leadership and therefore had to deliver the seminars according to somebody else's way of doing things. I had, to claim some credit, tried very hard in the first semester to make each seminar similar in terms of structure. There were 5 mins in the beginning to recollect what they had been told, they were all in little learning groups to ask me any questions. They had 5 mins to, to give me the opportunity to re-explain something they had been done before in the lecture. Then they were given activities in groups and they were two parts to it, a ((1)) activity and at the end they would all respond, and then they were given the second part of the activity where they would all respond and it was very much on the basis that they were given plenty of time, they discussed amongst themselves and I'd walk around the groups ahem, but when you are given somebody else's curriculum and you got to deliver all of that in this, this week, all of this goes out of the window, which you mentioned it before, ahem the idea of the, the curriculum. In some modules what on earth are we trying to do? Why?

While I was conscious of this balancing act during the development activity, I only became fully aware of the extent of the impact of these conflicted feelings when listening to the recordings and reflecting on the transcripts. There seemed to be a pattern that indicated that particularly (but not exclusively) when working with participants I was not close to or who were senior to me in their teaching experience, I appeared reluctant to challenge them further. For instance, while Elaine in WS 3 commented on her student group work, I never challenged her to reflect on the impact of a long stretch of teacher talk in the same transcript. Similarly, Lydia

repeatedly cited the weakness of her group as a factor in why she had planned certain activities or handled the interaction in a specific way, but I never insisted she come up with concrete solutions about how she could have handled the interaction in WS 4 differently (see section 5.3.2). Thus, I potentially missed an opportunity to move her beyond her existing assumptions towards practical change (see Timperley and Earl, 2009: 122).

Furthermore, the data revealed another pattern I had been unaware of: in instances when I did point out areas for improvement, my unconscious approach often seemed to be to contextualise the situation as a collective issue or to link it to my own practice. Thus, attention was deflected from individuals' behaviour and critique was depersonalised. Extract 7.4 is an example from WS 4, where I was trying to make the participants aware of the impact lower order questions might have on student learning without calling out individuals.

Extract 7.4 WS4 CLGE 1.15.38-1.18.40
Context: Following the participants' reflective discussions of their transcripts om WS 4, I summarised my thoughts on the questions and tasks set across the group.

1	Sandra:	I highlighted all the questions and I highlighted all the tasks and what
2		really struck me was, how much pure knowledge questions there were.
3		So literally, you know, revision, we talked about this, what is this, what is
4		this, what is this? And they can be answered in one-word sentences. I
5		think what was the most were things about understanding, explain, why,
6		give me an example. So the students were fairly <u>trained</u> in doing that, ok?
7		And they could do that and they could probably do that in a sentence.
8		What I really could not see so much as I was going over the transcripts <u>as</u>
9		<u>a whole</u> was this higher order, it was things like analysis, it was things like
10		evaluation and I could see that this is probably how the lesson was
11		intended to be, like you said, well I wanted them to analyse, or like you
12		said I wanted them to evaluate and at the end of the lesson this would be
13		a good idea for them to diversify or not, but for some reason or another
14		that very often fell short. Yeah? I think it was different in yours Elaine,
15		because you had it as part of the group work, you had it integrated into
16		the task, tell me, what is good about it, what is not good about it? And
17		you gave them lots of time to discuss it. And I really reflected on my own
18		teaching 'cause I do exactly the same. I build my lesson up, thinking right,
19		what's the key area I need to cover, the key knowledge, what is the key
20		understanding and then in the end we come to the analysis and the
21		evaluation and how often do you fall short because then the lesson is
22		over and you realise, oh actually, oh, they took so long over the
23		understanding I'll quickly give the input. And it really made me think,
24		because I thought in our minds this is about analysis, like you said, Lydia,
25		this is about analysis, this is about bringing it all together, this is about
26		lots of different strategies, but is it actually clear to the students that this
27		is about analysis? Because if they only ever get questions like what is
28		this? What is that? What does it mean? Give me an example? At what
29		point do they know, like you just said, Gareth, at what point do they
30		know in my writing this is not enough? It is <u>not</u> enough to give that one-
31		word answer, to give that one sentence, but to actually draw on all these
32		things and it really made me think because I thought well, we have this
33		idea of what they <u>should</u> be doing and how independent they should be,
34		how much analysis, that they should be arguing, but am I giving them this
35		opportunity in my classroom? Am I really doing that? **(continues)**

While from a perspective of saving participants' face and operating within the boundaries of our professional/personal relationships, such deflection of attention (l.1/8f./17ff./32ff.) might seem reasonable, I realised that from a learning perspective my behaviour was no different from some of the teachers' reluctance to openly correct students' language mistakes in case they might undermine their confidence

(see sections 4.5 and 5.5.2). Consequently, on reflection, I wondered if I was similarly limiting participants' learning opportunities by not being salient enough with my critique. In the SR sessions, too, I relied on the participants' self-reflection and mostly abstained from making overt evaluative judgments. This lack of salience was later criticised by Elaine (see section 6.2) who would have preferred more explicit evaluation of her behaviour and suggestions for improvement.

7.5   RP communicator

The data analysis also triggered me to reflect on my own classroom/workshop interactional management (see my comment on extract 7.2 above). As my attention towards the interactional features displayed by the teachers sharpened, I became equally sensitive to how I myself employed the features under observation, including the use of wait-time, questions, and elaboration requests. Thus, I realised that, although there were numerous instances where I managed the workshop discussions successfully, there were other situations when my interactional management hindered the participants from reflecting further and thus limited the development of their TLA.

For example, I noticed that at times my questions were confusing as I asked too many at once (e.g. extract 5.7, l.10ff.) and some were even impolite. For instance, in WS 4 I asked Hannah if there was anything she was 'unhappy' (!) with, which, on reflection, came across rather rude (and she consequently did not answer). Furthermore, I did not always seem to keep my pedagogical goals in mind as at times I failed to prompt for appropriate elaboration or justification, therefore potentially hindering deeper reflection (see Engin, 2013: 13; Earl and Timperley, 2009: 2). In WS 5, for example, Gareth and Elaine worked diligently through the examples, but I should have asked them to explain more about the impact the various interactional features had on student learning. Equally, when inviting the teachers to think of alternative classroom behaviours, I could have prompted them to outline more specifically how this supported language learning or even how this could be translated into language-related lesson aims. In the SR sessions I also sometimes caught myself concentrating more on the content that I was listening to, particular if it was a subject I was not familiar with, so that I missed opportunities to ask further reflection questions. In FG.3, my question skills let me down when I failed to prompt the participants sufficiently about their reasoning in the diamond ranking activity.

When listening to the recordings, I also noticed how despite intending to enhance teachers' awareness that subject-specific language goes beyond vocabulary and despite raising this point in WS 2, in the remaining sessions I unwittingly adopted their habit of mainly talking about 'terms' and rarely referred to other linguistic structures, thus unconsciously reinforcing rather than challenging their view that subject-specific language is mainly represented through lexis (section 4.2). This was the case in WS 5, for example, when I recapped the previous session with Gareth and Elaine but only referred to language learning in terms of learning "*concepts and terms*", and in extract 7.5 with Colin.

Extract 7.5 WS 7 C 4.25-4.37
Context: Before listening to the snapshot recording, I asked Colin about his lesson planning.
1   Sandra: You said you were not using the toolkit but at the back of your mind 2   were you actually thinking, well what are the terms I expect them to 3   use, what are the terms I would like them to use?

Thus, I realised that the way I managed the conversational interaction and referred to linguistic concepts at times suggested that, just like the participants, I too lacked the awareness and skills needed to encourage further reflection and to raise TLA in others. In hindsight, I wish I would have had the opportunity to transcribe and analyse the workshop recordings while the project was still ongoing as this would have provided me with the chance to reflect and work on my classroom interactional competence at the time. Sadly, this was not possible and my moments of awakening regarding my own TLA and interactional management only occurred whilst analysing the data for this thesis.

7.6 Student-researcher

My role as workshop leader was further affected by being a student-researcher. Although I had been critical of the vast TLA 'wish lists' proposed in the CLIL literature (see section 2.3.5) and had designed the workshop 'syllabus' on the basis of the phase one data analysis, I realised when listening to the recordings and revisiting the workshop materials that the volume of issues covered was still far too big for the time available. Despite my original intentions I had not succeeded in restricting the

development foci sufficiently. Although it might be understandable that as a student-researcher I wanted to ensure that I translated CLIL theory into practice as comprehensively as possible, on reflection I wondered whether I had become so involved with the literature that I had fallen into the trap described by Hannah who had claimed that as teachers we were prone to overfilling our classes to "*impress*" with our knowledge (see section 5.6). Given that confronting teachers with too much information too quickly can be a key limiting factor in teacher development (Tomlinson, 1988: 18; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 93), I thus realised that the volume of content covered in the workshops might have had a negative impact on the teachers, something they also commented on during the evaluation (section 6.2).

There were further instances when my roles as student-researcher and facilitator conflicted and I was unsure how to balance the two. For example, in my capacity as facilitator I was enthusiastic about CLIL and encouraged the teachers to implement the proposed strategies – as a researcher, however, I was wondering how far my advocacy could go and how 'objective' I should remain, for example, when teachers were reluctant about some of the strategies. Should I have simply noted their reservations or been more persuasive? Equally, given I was interested in participants' cognitions surrounding the implementation of CLIL, I sometimes found it difficult to decide whether and when to intervene when discussions went beyond language-related matters. While such 'digressions' were interesting from a researcher point of view as they often revealed how teachers perceived contextual factors, as facilitator I was conscious that this meant teachers spent less time reflecting on the linguistic matter at hand. Often I had to make ad-hoc decisions about what to focus on and which discussion to cut short, and while the data revealed several situations where I navigated this conundrum successfully, there were others where I wish I had brought the teachers back to the language discussion earlier, or vice versa, where I had explored their views further.

7.7   Summary

Reflecting on the findings from the data analysis, the demands inherent in the workshop leader role and the institutional circumstances, I began to appreciate how much resilience, adaptability and commitment the participants and I had shown during the CLIL-RP activity. We had all been confronted with new roles and responsibilities and stretched to develop our knowledge and skills further. I realised

not only that I was as much a learner as the participants, but also that there were significant parallels in our "co-learning" experience (see Table 6).

	Participants	*Sandra*
Context		
New role / responsibility	• Unfamiliar challenge of balancing the demands of subject and language learning through CLIL	• Unfamiliar challenge of balancing the demands inherent in the workshop leader role
Learner diversity	• Pathway students have varying language skills and different educational experiences; the teachers felt some would struggle more than others with the proposed CLIL strategies	• The participants had various subject backgrounds and levels of professional training/experiences; some struggled more than others with the implementation of the CLIL strategies
Syllabus	• Some considered the "full" curricula as a hindrance to the implementation of CLIL and deeper student learning	• CLIL as a pedagogical framework and TLA as an attribute of CLIL teachers are vast concepts; I did not limit the development foci sufficiently, overfilled the sessions and thus hindered deeper learning opportunities for the teachers
Time	• Time pressure was considered a problem; some teachers felt CLIL would take teaching time away from the subject	• Time pressure to organise the activity so that it would not interfere with teachers' workload • In the sessions I had to take ad-hoc decisions which discussions to pursue in the time available
Institutional support	• No teaching remission for the participants; CLIL-RP activity added to their usual workload	• Failure to provide meeting slots impacted on the nature of the CLIL-RP activity and my role as facilitator
Language Awareness		
Focus on lexis	• Teachers focussed on lexical items rather than phrases/grammar	• Except for WS 2 I mostly referred to lexis rather than other linguistic items
Need to improve interactional competence	• Some teachers needed to enhance their interactional competence to encourage linguistic and cognitive engagement	• I needed to improve my interactional competence to encourage deeper reflection
Lack of Salience	• Some teachers preferred recasts over more explicit forms of error correction to avoid undermining students' confidence	• I depersonalised critique rather than pointing out areas for improvement

Table 6: 'Co-learning' experience of the facilitator and the participants

This self-reflection therefore confirms that engagement with data-led RP can also lead to greater understandings of practice on the part of the facilitator/educator and that it is beneficial to "practise what you preach" (Mann and Walsh, 2013: 302; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 21; Engin, 2013: 18). It demonstrates that I became more reflexive and aware of the various roles I was confronted with as CLIL-RP workshop leader. I not only realised that the institution's failure to provide us with meetings slots had significantly altered the nature of the CLIL-RP activity, but also that the way I handled the demands of my various roles had a key impact on teachers' reflections and learning. At times, the discussions remained superficial and veered away from language-related matters so that opportunities for deeper, sustained reflection and learning were missed. Thus, a "genuinely critical engagement" with their classroom evidence and CLIL theory as well as reflexivity on behalf of the participants were insufficiently achieved (Bright, 1996: 165; Farrell, 2018: 1). This, along with the phase two findings, raises important questions regarding how future CLIL TLA development activities can be organised and what role the institution and educators/facilitators can play to support teachers' professional learning. These issues will be further explored in the discussion in the following chapter.

Chapter 8. Discussion

8.1   Introduction

Following the data analysis and my self-reflection, this chapter discusses the implications of the study's findings. The project's rationale was based on the assumption that to be able to follow my former employer's suggestion and adopt CLIL, pathway teachers would benefit from RP-based professional development to foster their TLA. However, given that there is a research gap regarding the practice of such teacher development in CLIL generally and the pathway setting in particular (see sections 1.1 and 2.4.3), this study aims to reach beyond the local context and seeks to make a contribution to the wider research field. I therefore now highlight how the key insights of this research can add to the academic discussions surrounding the practice of CLIL TLA development. In line with the pragmatist principle that the practical consequences of an inquiry need to be carefully considered (Marshall et al., 2005), I also outline three scenarios suggesting how future development activities for pathway professionals could be organised. The chapter concludes with a discussion of future work and research the study could potentially instigate in a variety of fields and an overview of the study's main contributions to different disciplines.

8.2   The study's key contributions to the research field

8.2.1 CLIL TLA development is a relevant issue for pathway teachers

Given there has been little research into pathway teaching, phase one provided rare insights into teachers' language-related cognitions and practices. Despite some differences between European CLIL and pathway settings (see section 2.2.3), the findings of the data analysis suggest that pathway and CLIL teachers share similar development needs when it comes to TLA. Chapter 4 outlined how some of the participants' language-related cognitions and practices mirrored those of their CLIL counterparts reported in the literature (e.g. predominant focus on lexis regarding subject-specific language, fact-based questioning/appearance as 'primary knower', and lack of salience in corrective feedback). The only difference seemed to be the participants' high value placed on academic cultural adaptation, which is less prominent in the (mostly school-based) CLIL literature. This can be easily explained

given the pathway sector's context and it mirrors observations from other studies focusing on international students' adjustment to UK HE (e.g. MacGregor and Folinazzo, 2018; Bird, 2017; Gorry, 2011; Turner and Robson, 2008). Furthermore, it was shown that although teachers were keen for students to demonstrate that they were able to actively use and explain subject terminology and engage in discussions, critical debate and higher order-thinking, the ways in which activities were organised and classroom interaction managed were not always suited to achieve that end. Thus, the assumption that the development of TLA is a relevant issue for pathway professionals was confirmed by the phase one findings. This is an important insight for the CLIL and pathway communities as it adds practical evidence to the theoretical argument made in section 2.2.3 that CLIL research and practice are applicable to the relatively new educational setting of pathway provision and that, in turn, pathway research can add to our understanding of CLIL.

8.2.2 *Development of TLA was individualised and fragmented*

The phase two data analysis then explored to what extent the participants developed their TLA during the CLIL-RP activity and how they evaluated the workshop series as a whole. Based on the phase one findings, I had chosen four development foci that offered themselves for further reflection and collaborative learning: subject-specific language and accessibility; teaching approach; academic adaptation; and classroom interaction. Although the relevance of these foci had been confirmed by the participants in WS 1, the data analysis revealed that not all of them attracted the same level of reflection and discussion. The teachers seemed most concerned about two areas: accessibility and student engagement. Each of these themes, however, consisted of various subthemes and the analysis suggested that each participant found their own individual TLA development issue(s). This was not only evident from the transcripts of the collaborative workshops but also from the SR sessions, where those teachers who had made changes to their lesson plans mostly focused on specific, often singular aspects rather than taking a holistic approach. Also, some moments of awakening remained tentative; at other times teachers struggled to come to terms with their new insights. Thus, the study's findings suggest that as a result of the CLIL-RP activity all participants increased particular areas of their TLA further, yet this development appeared to be individualised and fragmented.

When trying to find potential reasons for such individual development differences, it must be noted that it is not uncommon for teacher education programmes aimed at cognitive change to result in "variable outcomes" as teachers can have different interpretations regarding the practical relevance of such programmes (Borg, 2003: 91). This study therefore suggests that "individual development pathways" (ibid.) also exist for the specific development of TLA, particularly as its results further correspond to the findings in Lo's (2017) recent multi-case study on the development of three CLIL teachers' TLA in Hong Kong. She demonstrated that, despite attending the same development course, her participants underwent different levels of change. She reasoned that such variations might be best explained by contextual factors related to teachers' previous learning/teaching experiences and students' language ability, as well as teachers' subject-related epistemological beliefs (ibid.:13). A similar point was made by Andrews (2007: 41) regarding the influence of professional context and experience on TLA in L2 classrooms. Such an explanation might also apply to my study, considering that the participants came from various subject backgrounds, had different professional experiences and levels of training and dealt with a variety of student groups. We have for example seen that Elaine drew on her initial teacher training when reflecting on the importance of visualisations and extended wait-time, while Colin was unaccustomed to these ideas and took longer to take them on board. He also struggled with the integration of accessibility strategies, which seemed at least partly due to his beliefs in the nature/demands of his subject, whereas for teachers from other disciplines this was less of an issue. Furthermore, for Lydia (and others) the weak language skills of some student groups was a recurrent concern, leaving her sceptical about the implementation of a more dialogic teaching approach for such students.

While my study's results are thus consistent with the findings and reasoning in the wider literature, it still needs to be considered whether the set-up of the CLIL-RP activity might also have played a role in effecting the observed individual development differences. Given that for each participant only one lesson was recorded during phase one and that this lesson then provided the transcripts for the collaborative workshops, the participants drew on a limited 'data-base' to trigger their reflections. This had originally not been considered a problem as the activity had been planned on the principles of collaborative learning (see section 2.4.2). Due to the institution's failure to provide us with timetable slots, however, we met in smaller groups than anticipated and consequently fewer opportunities arose to exchange

participants' transcripts and experiences. Had we been able to share our data and reflections more collaboratively, I wonder if the participants might have found more overlapping issues and developed their TLA in a more similar or holistic way. Thus, further explorations are necessary to understand how the observed "individual development pathways" for TLA in CLIL contexts can be accounted for and how we can ensure teachers develop awareness of a variety of issues rather than a select few (Borg, 2003: 91).

8.2.3 *Moving from declarative to procedural TLA: Cognitive, pedagogical and institutional barriers to the practical implementation of CLIL*

Furthermore, the analysis suggested that even when participants developed their declarative TLA further and began to rethink some of their established routines, their moments of awakening did not necessarily mean teachers were able to translate their new insights into practice. Colin for example was unsure about how to organise more student-centred activities and Gareth seemed to lack the pedagogical imagination to integrate a variety of tasks without becoming repetitive. Hannah in WS 7 reverted back to a teacher-centred approach as she was unable to find a time-efficient interactive task for her weak student group. Additionally, the participants regularly cited institutional barriers, particularly time pressure, an overcrowded curriculum and programme/module management directives, to explain why they felt they could not implement the proposed CLIL strategies in their classrooms.

Many of these issues have not only been raised in the general literature on RP in HE – Mälkki and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011: 39f.) for example have shown that time restrictions, teachers' epistemological beliefs in the nature and pedagogy of their subject, lack of knowledge of alternative instructional strategies and department-level expectations of pre-set teaching formats are key obstacles when it comes to translating reflection into action – but also specifically in the context of CLIL. Here, concerns over diverting time away from subject content to accommodate language teaching and full curricula are recurrent issues in the literature (e.g. Karabassova, 2018: 5; Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 153; Pladevall-Ballester, 2015: 56; Johnson, 2012: 61; Morton, 2012: 203; Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 257). Teachers' lack of student-centred teaching methods facilitating the integration of language into the subject classroom has been noted elsewhere, too (Pérez-Cañado, 2016: 269; Fortanet-Gómez, 2012: 59).

A key implication of my study therefore is that it is not enough to raise teachers' TLA through RP – more support regarding pedagogical tools, strategies and activities is necessary to effect practical changes. However, it would be equally insufficient to merely concentrate on classroom teachers. As this and the above-mentioned studies have shown, the "realities of the work place" (Borg, 2011: 220) – the institutional context as well as managerial decision-making – play a key role in how teachers view their opportunities to put the proposed strategies into practice. Thus, the academic leadership is called upon to create an environment in which teachers feel able to exercise their TLA if an integrated approach is to become a reality on pathways. Suggestions for how this could be done will be outlined in section 8.3.3.

8.2.4 Limitations of TLA development: Roles and responsibilities

The study further sheds light on the limits of the participants' TLA development. Development foci that were most obviously content-relevant were reflected on and discussed more and led to greater "lightbulb moments" (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 41) than those that concerned language form (e.g. grammar, corrective feedback) or could be associated with linguistic knowledge/theory (e.g. meta-language). The participants' development of TLA was thus predominantly meaning-focused and the notion of a counter-balanced classroom (Lyster, 2007) remained far off. Equally, except for Hannah, the participants stayed reluctant regarding the setting of language-specific learning aims. While some had made changes to their lesson plans for the snapshot recordings, a more holistic and systematic approach to integrating a language focus was, overall, not adopted. I took this as an indication that for most participants language development remained a rather "diffused curriculum concern" (Morton, 2012: 70).

Even though during phase one and the final focus group some participants had acknowledged that subject teachers could/should support students' language development, this suggests that most participants, like many subject teachers in other CLIL contexts (e.g. Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 151; Tan, 2011; Fortune et al., 2008: 17) remained predominantly focused on their established roles and responsibilities as content teachers. In fact, it was only Andrew who hinted that the development activity had led him to reconsider his role, emphasising the shared responsibility between subject and EAP staff to support students' language development (extract 6.1). This finding therefore suggests that the development of

TLA is closely related to how teachers see their roles and responsibility, i.e. their identity, something that has already been highlighted in other studies dealing with cognitive change, general CLIL development and pathway teaching (Kubanyiova, 2012: 45f.; Nikula et al., 2016: 14; Winkle, 2014: 195). Thus, again, simply raising teachers' awareness of the need for systematic language-focused planning is not enough; further means must be found to get teachers to reconsider which areas of language development they can or should support, what their roles and responsibilities are in that respect, and how they can integrate them systematically in their classroom. Again, I will return to this later.

8.2.5   The impact of the facilitator: Role and relationships

The study added a new dimension, largely neglected in the CLIL literature, to the discussion of TLA development: the impact of the facilitator in professional learning activities. While the significance of trainer-trainee relationships and interactions has been highlighted in the context of L2 teacher education (Wright and Bolitho, 1993: 299; Andrews, 2007: 187; Engin, 2013; Borg, 2018: 80) and the need to research the impact of power imbalances between educators and trainees on RP has been raised (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 251), there has to date been little insight into how such roles are played out in the context of CLIL TLA development. Yet, my self-reflective commentary has demonstrated that my involvement in the workshops played a major role in how opportunities for reflection were created or obstructed.

Lindahl and Baecher's (2016) study is a rare example that partly addressed this issue. It showed that in university-based CLIL teacher training, trainees received little language-specific feedback from their supervisors, leading them to argue that supervisors themselves might benefit from professional development to increase their own TLA before being able to raise such awareness in others. This is reminiscent of my own realisation that the way I handled the workshop discussions and how I referred to linguistic matters indicated that the exercise of my own TLA, at times, needed improvement (section 7.5).

The role of the teacher educator is further addressed in He and Lin's (2018) recent ethnographic case study set in Hong Kong. Like me, they realised that the educator's involvement was the "critical driving force" behind the teacher's TLA development (ibid.: 186). They repeatedly describe the educator's involvement as that of a "consultant", "supporter and partner" and "co-learner", concluding that the

collaborative, non-hierarchical relationship between teacher and teacher educator was crucial for the learning that took place (ibid.: 166, 180, 186). Whilst my experience in this study supports such an observation, it also shows how difficult it can be to create and maintain such partnerships. Although the relationships in my study were, at least formally, as equally non-hierarchical as the ones described by He and Lin (I was working with colleagues, while the teacher in their study collaborated with a university-based teacher educator), at times I was still drawn into a more instructive role and led the sessions much more 'top-down' than I had intended. This was partly due to the institutional set-up, which made it harder to foster collaborative relationships, but also by the fact that the teachers themselves seemed to seek a more directive voice (see section 7.3 and extract 6.4).

A closely related point is the recognition that my facilitator role was influenced by the reflective approach I had chosen and by my personal relationships with the participants. To avoid the "deficit" model of training (Johnson, 2012: 53) I had tried to encourage self-reflection rather than taking on an evaluative/instructive role. Over the course of the development activity, however, I realised what a conundrum that was, given the whole project was built on the assumption that a deficit in TLA exists for subject teachers. This dilemma was further pronounced as I was working with colleagues and I realised that I reacted differently depending on how close my personal/professional relationships were with individuals. With some I found it easier to address critique than with others. Farrell (1999) raised a similar point in the context of EFL collaborative teacher development groups, commenting that relationships can have an important impact on the professional learning that takes place. Based on Schultz (1989: 113 cited in Farrell, 1999: no page) he outlined the inherent dilemma: to what extent should group leaders focus on the task at hand or on building relationships, and to what extent should they challenge the group members or uphold "good terms" (see also Timperley and Earl, 2009: 122 on the interplay between respect/challenge in evidence-based learning conversations)?

Although Lindahl and Baecher's (2016), He and Lin's (2018) and my study are located in different settings (supervision of MA students and school-university collaboration vs. CLIL-RP 'in the wild'), they all raise important, to date under-researched, questions regarding the role that the teacher educator – particularly the facilitator – take on in the context of CLIL TLA development, what knowledge and skills are necessary on their behalf and how issues of relationships and group

dynamics can be potentially addressed so that more opportunities for deeper, critical reflection are created.

8.2.6 Teachers' desire for continuous professional development

Despite many struggles, the participants rated the development activity mostly positively. This was not only evidenced by the fact that, despite their busy workloads, seven out of the eight recruited teachers completed the activity, but also by their comments in FG.3 and the online survey (Chapter 6). Most participants supported the idea that the CLIL-RP activity should become a regular feature at the centre, for staff induction as well as CPD. This not only confirms that the activity was deemed both meaningful and useful by the teachers, but it is also an important insight for the wider pathway community where no sector-specific pre-/in-service training exists. Clearly, there is a desire for further teacher education, and subject staff are keen to engage in professional development beyond their disciplines.

In the evaluation, the teachers expressed their appreciation for the data-led element of the RP workshops as they felt it had provided valuable insights into their practice. This finding suggests that this type of contextualised activity could indeed be a way forward for CLIL TLA development in general and pathway professionals in particular. However, the participants had further ideas about how the activity could have been improved. Proposals varied from the inclusion of the student voice to the implementation of long-term activities to be able to reflect on the impact of pedagogical changes made. The toolkit attracted opposing opinions during the evaluation: while some argued it was not extensive enough, others thought it should be reduced to make it more practical.

These findings therefore raise questions about future teacher development activities. This is discussed in the next section, where I outline how, based on this study's experience, pathway centres could take the idea of developing their staff's TLA and the implementation of CLIL further.

8.3   Implications for the pathway sector

8.3.1 Scenario 1: The abandonment of TLA development activities

When considering the study's implications for pathway professionals and providers, we can take various stances. From a sceptical viewpoint, we might argue that given

the time and effort invested in the development activity, both by me and the participants, the results are rather discouraging. Although all participants gained new insights, the development of their TLA remained fragmented and limited and more support would have been necessary to help teachers translate their new understandings into practice. Equally, little can be said about the activity's long-term impact and whether it has brought about "significant" change that makes a difference to student learning (Richardson, 1990). Thus, we might wonder if it makes sense to pursue such development activities further; if pathway providers are keen to implement CLIL, should they not better focus on recruiting dually qualified English/subject teachers as is common in other CLIL contexts (e.g. Germany and Austria, see Nikula et al., 2016: 15)? Alternatively, could pathway teachers not receive basic TEFL/TESL training, for example by obtaining a *Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages (CELTA)* in the hope that this might provide them with sufficient levels of TLA to support their students?

While such scepticism might be justified, the ensuing argument has major drawbacks. Firstly, it is uncommon in the UK and in HE for teachers to be dually qualified in a subject and English language teaching. Thus, the recruitment of suitable staff might fall short due to the reality of the employment market. Equally, there is no guarantee that staff holding both qualifications are indeed able to effectively combine their skill-sets in the specific context of the CLIL classroom (Tedick and Cammarata, 2012: S48). While some studies have demonstrated that dually trained teachers were more successful in creating language learning opportunities (Dafouz and Llinares, 2008; Wannagat, 2007), this was not the case in Dalton-Puffer's (2007) study. Despite having both qualifications, many of the Austrian teachers she observed did not create optimal conditions for CLIL, for example when it came to the practising of academic language functions, management of IRF and setting of language learning aims (ibid.:127ff., 275). Furthermore, it is questionable whether the knowledge and skills gained from a TEFL/TESL course can be transferred to pathway classrooms given the development of TLA in such courses is mainly focused on grammar (Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 222). Thus, looking for dually qualified pathway teachers to implement CLIL might be neither achievable nor effective.

Also, taking such a sceptical view of the CLIL-RP activity disregards the fact that it was an exploratory, short-term project and that we may have to readjust our expectations of what outcomes can reasonably be considered 'successful'. Although

the development of the participants' TLA was indeed fragmented and more support should have been provided to help the participants translate their new declarative into procedural knowledge, we must not overlook that some development did actually take place. Aspects of participants' TLA were indeed 'awakened' and some adjustments in classroom practice were reported. That such steps remained tentative, I would argue, has more to do with the short-term nature of the activity, my handling of the workshop leader role, and the institutional framework, rather than the principles of CLIL RP as such. Equally, we must not ignore that the teachers themselves valued the activity and expressed their desire for CPD in the future; therefore, from their perspective, the development of their TLA was "worthwhile" (Richardson, 1990). Further development activities thus seem to be the logical consequence: we just need to consider how to improve them.

8.3.2 Scenario 2: TLA development 'light'

If we accept that it is indeed worthwhile to continue with some form of TLA development for pathway teachers, we can consider how this can be done based on this study's experience. One way forward could be to consider Colin's suggestion that the greatest benefit of the workshops was the insight gained from the data-led RP, but that the theoretical input on CLIL could be mostly refocused on the essential "*20 per cent*" to enable teachers to deal with the most common "*scenario*s" they are likely to encounter (see extracts 6.5 and 6.7).

Although it is hard to imagine a similar activity with considerably less theoretical input on CLIL – after all, any reflection needs some kind of focus (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 12) – such a 'light' development version holds undeniable attraction. In an environment as busy as the pathway sector – where teaching allocations are higher than in other HE settings, where the academic year is extended to accommodate multiple student intakes, and where marking periods often overlap – it is understandable that teachers (and institutions) might seek quick pedagogical guidance that can be predictably used to support international students' learning without having to fundamentally change any customary instructional approaches.

Based on this study's findings, such 'light' TLA development should probably best focus on reducing the development foci to those areas that seemed most obviously relevant for the construction of subject meaning and that attracted the most interest by the participants, i.e. issues regarding accessibility and student engagement. The

other areas that we covered but that received little consideration from the participants might as well be disregarded. We could, for example, envisage a series of workshops where teachers are given a checklist/examples of good practice in CLIL and guidelines for their implementation. Specifically, teachers could be familiarised with the difference between horizontal/vertical discourses, encouraged to consider whether they are accessible for the students, and given concrete examples of support strategies. In terms of student engagement, we could draw teachers' attention to the benefits of dialogic teaching and provide guidelines about how to efficiently organise collaborative tasks.

Considering that some of the participants developed their awareness regarding the importance of interactional management, another option might be to resort to existing reflection tools such as the *Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk* grid (SETT), which has been proven to be an effective means to help teachers enhance their classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2013, 2011, 2006). It is based on the idea that by reflecting on their classroom transcripts with the help of the SETT grid, teachers become aware of the most common micro-contexts ('modes' - i.e. managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context modes) in the L2 classroom and realise how the use of specific interactional features creates optimal language learning opportunities in each. SETT has recently been adapted to fit the specific requirements of English-medium classrooms (e.g. at the English Language Institute in Singapore) and its use in CLIL classrooms has been advocated (Escobar and Walsh, 2017: 203; Walsh, 2006: 104). Thus, there is great potential to employ it on pathways, particularly as its notion of micro-contexts/modes would probably satisfy Colin's desire to concentrate on the most common teaching "*scenarios*". Also, the data-led RP element that was popular with the participants would be retained. Therefore, a lighter version of the CLIL-RP development activity, focused on a select few aspects of TLA, could indeed be a possibility to avoid overwhelming teachers with a wide range of other development foci that, at least in this study, have not resonated with the participants.

However, while the reduction of development foci is indeed a viable option and Colin's desire for efficient, predictable solutions to address the complexity of pathway teaching is understandable, such a 'light' version of TLA development is still not as straightforward as it seems. Even if we only focused on one or two select areas, the teachers would still need some level of awareness about why the proposed language foci and related strategies are important in their context and what their impact is.

Without such understanding, the provision of a 'checklist' of standardised strategies becomes meaningless: no educational setting is the same and it is part of the professionalism of teachers to be able to use pedagogic tools appropriately within context. Taking SETT as an example, the teachers would still need to familiarise themselves with the framework, consider whether its 'modes' need to be adapted to apply to their subjects and acquire the relevant meta-language. Also, the application of SETT is based on the fundamental principle that interactional features and pedagogic goals are aligned (Walsh, 2006: 130). This, however, assumes teachers are aware of the need to set relevant language-specific learning aims in CLIL and do not consider language learning a by-product of the content classroom. Thus, although there is scope to potentially reduce the number of development foci or to employ existing self-reflection tools, TLA development remains complex and a quick-fix, standardised set of pedagogic guidelines cannot do justice to the complexity inherent in the teaching of content to L2 learners in the demanding setting of HE preparation. An integrated approach cannot "simply be pasted on or plugged into" existing practice but requires fundamental change of habits and routines (Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 339) – and this, consequently, necessitates more professional development.

8.3.3 Scenario 3: Embracing the complexity of TLA development through institution-wide collaboration

Thus, finally, we might imagine a scenario in which we consider this study a first step in a longer and more complex journey for the teachers and the study centre; after all, small increments can eventually also lead to innovation (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 103). Rather than seeking to reduce the CLIL-RP activity, we thus acknowledge that this one-off, short-term initiative was not extensive enough to enhance pathway teachers' TLA sufficiently. In such a scenario, the idea of teacher learning as an ongoing, integral part of teachers' professional lives needs to be embraced. This has far-reaching consequences for all stakeholders involved and raises questions about how a more extensive TLA development programme can be realised.

The first observation is that TLA development would profit from becoming an ongoing and long-term feature on pathways. As we have seen, part of the problem of the CLIL-RP activity seems to have been that too many TLA development foci were introduced in a short time, leaving teachers sometimes overwhelmed. Equally, some

participants criticised the study's set-up as the timing of the recordings did not allow much scope to evaluate effected changes. By taking a longitudinal approach, teachers would thus be given more time to explore the relevance of each development focus for their practice, try out strategies with different student groups, and observe any long-term changes (Borg, 2018: 80; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 343; Dafouz et al., 2010: 16; Escobar, 2013: 348; Short, 2013: 122; Cordingley et al., 2003: 5).

Furthermore, the collaborative nature of the workshops could be strengthened and strategically exploited. This means focusing on TLA development areas that are relevant for larger groups of staff – we can again imagine an initial focus on the major themes identified in this study: accessibility and student engagement – so that a common knowledge base and collective development aims can be established, but at the same time accommodating the fact that pathway teachers come from a variety of professional backgrounds and that the development of TLA occurs in individualistic ways. While this might seem an oxymoron, we could organise this in such a manner that regular group meetings – for example in subject-specific constellations – are organised and input on the aspects of CLIL pedagogy provided. Thus, staff could familiarise themselves with a specific development focus and collaboratively share ideas how to implement the issue under discussion. In between such group meetings, however, more informal sessions could be organised where peers or "buddies" get together (Beddall, 2014 cited in Mann and Walsh, 20017: 93), take snapshot recordings of their lessons and explore the impact on their practice one-to-one, before reporting their experiences back to the group later. Once teachers feel changes have made an impact on their students, further development foci can be introduced. Thus, a reflective cycle could be established that is ongoing, collaborative and data-led – all aspects the participants deemed valuable – but that is also flexible to allow individuals to appropriate the new knowledge in unique ways (Borg, 2003: 91).

In the context of this study we could consider the following example: to raise teachers' awareness of accessibility of subject-specific language, subject staff from one discipline could get together and compile a list of key terminology. The teachers could share their experiences of how past students have coped with these terms, whether recourse to horizontal discourse was helpful or not, and what kind of support strategies could be employed without lowering academic targets. The teachers could

then individually decide which strategies to try in a particular class, take a snapshot recording and discuss it with their buddy before reporting back to the group.

Such activities could be further enriched by taking an even wider, interdisciplinary approach, drawing on the EAP teachers' expertise. As Andrew noted, the responsibility to support student learning should be a joint one and collaboration between subject and EAP staff could prove particularly fruitful in the context of TLA development (Costa, 2012: 43; Taillefer, 2013; Lin, 2016: 150; Nikula, et al., 2016: 13; Lasagabster, 2018: 401). To return to the example above, EAP teachers could highlight what kind of relevant vertical/horizontal discourses the students might already be familiar with or which support strategies might be particularly suitable. Beyond terminology, EAP staff could point out associated phrases and grammatical structures typical of the relevant genres under discussion. Even if subject staff were not to introduce the rules governing such structures, such collaboration could potentially increase their awareness of what might be problematic for students and help them plan how to respond in the classroom should difficulties arise. Alternatively, EAP and subject staff could team up as buddies for the one-to-one reflection.

Such collaboration might be particularly fruitful when considering pedagogical strategies conducive to language learning. Given that communicative approaches are common in language teaching, EAP teachers are likely to have a broad repertoire of and routine in setting up interactive, dialogic tasks. Sharing such expertise might be particularly beneficial for those subject teachers who come from 'less verbal' disciplines where instructional traditions might not involve student-centred activities or who have little experience/training of such approaches (Lo, 2014: 141,155). Equally, EAP staff might be able to advise how to support particularly weak student groups, something that was a concern for some participants in this study, so that they could also profit from more interactive ways of learning. Sharing such expertise might therefore increase subject teachers' awareness of how strategies and tasks conducive to language learning can be integrated, not as time-consuming 'extras', but as integral parts to support students' subject and language learning. After all, when it comes to socio-cultural approaches to learning, often "what is good for language [...] is also good for content" (Dalton-Puffer, 2008: 150).

However, such a cross-disciplinary approach to developing TLA might sound easier than it is to realise. Dalton-Puffer (2007: 5) has reported that "rivalries" between content and language staff exist, and Lo (2014) explored tensions not only

between teachers' beliefs regarding the nature of their subjects and their roles as content/language teachers, but also in their willingness and attitudes towards collaboration. Winkle (2014: 182; 240) and Fortanet-Gómez (2012: 58) also reported on HE lecturers' reluctance to collaborate with English language colleagues, and Airey (2012: 76) warned that inter-disciplinary collaboration can lead to conflicts and misunderstandings. Indeed, we can imagine that it is not fruitful for a collegiate environment if some staff groups are considered to have more valuable skills than others. Thus, an atmosphere needs to be created in which EAP teachers are neither considered the 'experts' who know better than the subject teachers about how a particular discipline should be taught, nor should they be seen as support staff at the beck and call of content teachers. Rather, it needs institution-wide acknowledgement that to support student learning both sets of expertise are equally required and that language teachers, too, might need support in their quest to redefine their identity and teaching focus in a bilingual setting (Dale et al., 2018; Nikula et al., 2016: 16; Pavón and Ellison, 2013: 74).

Also, we need not assume that EAP staff do not need to enhance their TLA themselves. When it comes to gaining insights into subject genres or to assessing their own classroom interactional management, for example, they might also profit from dialogic, data-led RP. Thus, rather than considering such an extended development approach only as a means to address a 'deficit' in the TLA of subject teachers, we should consider it as a means for both sets of staff to gain greater understanding of the context in which they work and to develop their professional knowledge and skills further.

While there is thus a potential to build on and extend the CLIL-RP activity employed in this study, it needs to be acknowledged that alternative approaches to professional development might also offer a way forward. Considering that in the workshops – for various reasons – opportunities for collaborative, critical and deep reflection were at times missed, we need to ask whether other ways could have been employed to engage the teachers. One such suggestion proposed in the CLIL/RP literature refers to the use of technology. Video-based observations (e.g. through the VEO app) in particular, have been found to be an effective tool to encourage deeper and more (self-)reflection and enhance teacher learning in a time-efficient way (Hockly, 2018; Mann and Walsh, 2017; Kong, 2010). Coyle et al. (2010: 70ff) similarly propose the use of video evidence in conjunction with collaborative discussion groups through LOCIT (Lesson Observation Critical Incident Technique).

Finally, we could reconsider whether there might, after all, be scope to engage teachers in conducting their own practitioner inquiries. This idea was originally dismissed for practical reasons (see section 2.4.2). However, in light of my own professional learning as part of this inquiry and particularly when considering that the CLIL-RP activity did not always generate sufficient deep and critical reflection on behalf of the participants (see Chapter 7), this decision needs to be revisited. Given there is evidence that systematic, practitioner-led inquiries, particularly when undertaken in collaborative settings where critique and scrutiny by peers are encouraged, can enhance engagement with theory and pedagogy, foster critical reflection, and hence lead to greater transformation of practice (Robson et al., 2013; Andresen, 2000), an inquiry-based approach to TLA development might indeed be a way forward (Figure 5).
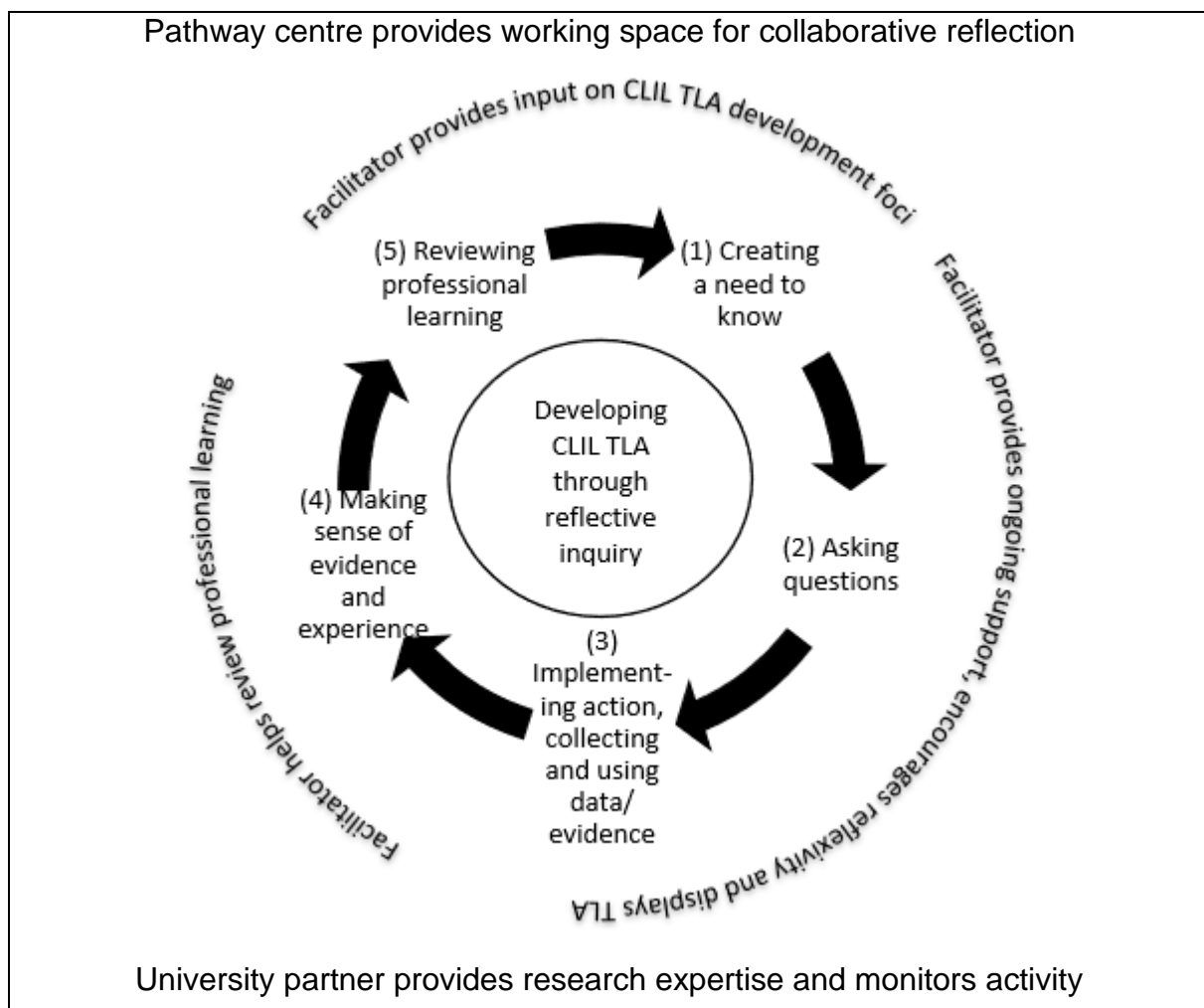
Figure 5: Developing TLA through ongoing reflective inquiry

Model adapted from: http://www.ec4slt.com/induction.html

Taking the above example into consideration, Figure 5 illustrates how the facilitator in such an inquiry-based approach would not only provide initial input on a specific TLA development area, but also continually work alongside the teacher 'buddies' to provide guidance regarding suitable inquiry questions, the reflective tools/evidence to be used and the practical implementation of CLIL strategies (1-3). At a later stage, the facilitator and the various buddy teams could then come together, share their experiences and reflect on the impact the changes have made on their practice and on student learning (4). Finally, they would review the professional learning that has taken place (5): does the inquiry process need to be refined? Are teachers ready to proceed to the next TLA development focus? If so, what new focus is of interest? Hence, the cycle would start anew.

In such an approach the teachers would have greater control over what to focus on and how to research it in a way that is suited to their practice and field (Robson et al., 2013: 93f.; Cordingley, 2003: 5). At the same time, peer collaboration and sustained facilitator input/support would be combined to create the conditions necessary for continuous professional learning that is embedded in teachers' practice (Cordingley, 2003: 5). If participants were further encouraged to publicly share their findings (e.g. staff conferences/publications), such an inquiry-based reflective approach could thus act as a "catalytic tool" to engage teachers in theorized practice and potentially lead to greater empowerment and professional growth than the workshop-based sessions employed here (Robson et al., 2013: 100; Andresen, 2000: 147; Wyatt and Ager, 2017: 171, 180; Borg, 2011: 216).

The model is framed by two references to the pathway centre and its university partner. This indicates that for any kind of teacher development – but particularly for such ongoing teacher professional learning activities as proposed here – to work in practice, the institutional context and academic leadership must not be overlooked (Taillefer, 2013; Tatzl, 2011: 268; Errington, 2004: 42; Short, 2013: 124; Lin, 2016: 150). The experience from this study – the centre's failure to make timetable slots available – illustrates poignantly how institutional barriers can limit the "working space" needed for collaborative reflection and hence obstruct teacher learning (Leat et al., 2006). Equally, the fact that the participants took on the CLIL-RP activity as an additional burden to their usual workload should be an exception, not the norm, as teachers' efforts to develop their TLA/CLIL teaching skills should be rewarded (Tatzl, 2011: 268). This consequently requires resources and adjustments to the institution's workload model. Given the competitive nature of the pathway sector (see section

1.2), where centres' strategic decisions, particularly when in private ownership, are likely to be driven by market forces, this might be a challenge. However, if there is a genuine interest in developing pathway pedagogy and in making an integrated approach a reality for the benefit of students and staff, institutions need to commit time, effort and resources to staff development and professional learning (Taillefer, 2013; Tatzl, 2011: 264). After all, the ability to demonstrate that pedagogy and teaching excellence are at the heart of creating a positive student experience might even constitute a competitive advantage when it comes to student recruitment.

The financial side, however, is only one aspect where institutions can support the development of TLA and the adoption of CLIL. We have seen that many of the factors that the teachers considered obstacles to the implementation of the proposed strategies were linked to context: time, syllabi and managerial directives. All these issues can be tackled by decision-makers above the ranks of ordinary teachers. Regarding time and syllabus, for example, academic directors/programme leaders should seek dialogue with their university partners (Manning, 2018: 247). The amount and depth of the content to be covered on pathways need to be seriously considered. A realistic balance has to be found that allows students to gain content knowledge and receive support in developing their language and academic skills, while at the same time providing an authentic HE experience. Of course, how this can be achieved depends on the specific programmes the students progress to. However, given many participants considered the curriculum a problem, this is an important issue that needs addressing.

Furthermore, any future CLIL/TLA teacher development or professional learning activities should include academic leaders, too. This has not only been raised in the literature (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 263), but also became apparent in this study, where programme managers had been excluded for ethical reasons (see section 3.5). Given the participants revealed that some programme managers held great sway over how content was taught (see section 5.6), it is essential that they also become linguistically aware to be able to devise appropriate lesson plans. They play a particularly important role when it comes to setting language-specific teaching aims. In her Austrian study, Dalton-Puffer (2007: 275) argued that the lack of explicit language goals was not so much due to the failure of individual teachers, but a systemic issue in the programme's description overall, where language goals had only been stated in very general terms. Consequently, the teachers set equally vague aims for their classes. A similar observation was made by Leung (2001) and Creese

(2005, 2010) in the context of UK EAL provision. While I cannot speak for any other pathway programme, it was certainly true that information handed down to me by previous module leaders included generalised descriptors of language goals. Thus, programme/module leaders are called upon to set out more precisely what the language-related aims of the programme/each module are, so that teachers can focus on them in their planning and enact them in their lessons (Tatzl, 2011: 261; Lin, 2016: 150; Lozanao and Strotmann, 2015: 853). Again, this could be approached in collaboration with EAP colleagues and HE partners.

A related point concerns teachers' beliefs regarding their roles and responsibilities, which are largely assigned to them by the institution (Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 148; Tan, 2011). At the pathway centre in my study clear distinctions between EAP and content teachers were made, which might encourage subject staff to leave the responsibility of language teaching "*at the door*", to cite Violet (see section 4.2). Given Cammarata and Tedick (2012: 257; also: Winkle, 2014: 195) have argued the journey of becoming an immersion teacher involves an "identity transformation" whereby teachers accept the new responsibility of providing language support, we might wonder if the study centre could encourage the adoption of an integrated approach by 'officially' redefining subject staff as CLIL teachers. Such a reassignment (alongside appropriate development) might challenge "fixed roles" and encourage debate about where the responsibilities of EAP and subject staff lie (Skinnari and Bovellan, 2016: 157f.). Academic leaders therefore need to consider what kind of subject and language integration they want to achieve – Leung and Morton's (2016) matrix outlining different integration models might provide some guidance – but it is important that the ensuing roles and responsibilities are discussed and reshaped in collaboration with staff, relevant aims set, and development opportunities provided.

We also need to ask who can lead such extensive professional development. Given my experience in this study and the impact my role, (lack of) language awareness and relationships with individual colleagues had on the development of the participants' TLA, we might wonder if it would be better to draw on 'outside' expertise (e.g. TESOL trainers). Yet, the lack of insider experience has been cited as a potential reason behind why supervisors failed to raise their trainees' TLA in Lindahl and Baecher's study (2016: 36). Thus, ideally, we need CLIL teacher educators with experience of the specific context – however, they do not exist for the pathway sector. This is a conundrum that cannot be easily fixed.

However, given that pathway centres do not exist in isolation, the solution might be for providers to seek strong collaborative ties with their HE partners, not only with regards to recruitment as is currently done, but also to share pedagogical expertise (see Manning, 2018: 259ff.; Rahily and Hudson, 2018: 272). Pathway centres could for example profit from collaboration with experienced researchers and teachers in Education and Applied Linguistics departments as they could assist in setting up, facilitating and monitoring the effectiveness of the development and professional learning activities proposed above. They could help equip pathway staff with the skills and tools needed to explore how language-related issues affect their practice and consider how to implement relevant CLIL strategies. Thus, by providing expert guidance and relevant reflection tools (rather than imposing on teachers what to do – see Mann, 2005: 104; Cordingely et al., 2003: 52), we might enable teachers to integrate (self-) reflection into their daily lives and empower them to take charge of their own professional growth (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 111f).

Such cooperation might be equally beneficial for the HE institutions as they would not only gain a better understanding of (and have an impact on?) how their prospective students are prepared for university entry, but also potentially find valuable insights about how to develop their own pedagogies for international students further. Given that teaching excellence is increasingly important in the sector this could be a powerful motivator for universities to explore the development of relevant teaching skills for their own staff (see Robson et al., 2013: 92) and to reconsider their relationship with (often 'associated') pathway teachers. Rather than merely considering them as 'support staff', they should see them as collaborators when it comes to exploring the practice of academic, linguistic and cultural preparation and teaching of international students. Given that discussions surrounding pathway provision are often linked to negatively connotated discourses about the neoliberal marketisation of HE (see section 1.2), this might require a considerable change in outlook. However, in the spirit of creating a "shared vision and shared working habits" (Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 344; Earl and Timperley, 2015: 37) or even a "community of practice" (Wenger, 1998; Buysse et al., 2003; Robson et al., 2013: 95) it is time that pathway providers and their partner institutions come together and explore the opportunities their partnership brings in terms of fostering a pedagogical outlook fit for internationalised universities (see Wihlborg and Robson, 2018 on the "opportunities" of the internationalisation agenda). The recently

founded University Pathway Alliance[3] might provide a springboard for such activities, yet it remains to be seen to what extent this organisation does indeed focus on pedagogy and publicly shared pathway research or whether as a strategic conglomerate of university-owned pathway providers its main aim is to protect its stakeholders against further private-sector competition.

8.4 The study's main contribution to different disciplines and potential future work and research

So far, this chapter has discussed the study's key findings and their practical implications mainly from the perspective of pathway and CLIL provision. However, the question also arises to what extent it can contribute to different disciplines and what potential future work and research it could instigate beyond the immediate context. This will be addressed in the following sections, while a schematic illustration summarising the study's key contributions to the wider research field is presented at the end of the chapter (figure 6).

8.4.1 International education including HE and EAL

While the study was firmly rooted in the context of pathway provision, it is potentially also of interest for a variety of other settings where international students are required to study academic content in English. In section 8.3.3 it has for example already been argued that closer collaboration between pathway centres and their university partners in professional learning activities could potentially help HE institutions develop their own pedagogies and practices further when striving for teaching excellence. However, it is not only HE lecturers who encounter increasing numbers of international students and who could potentially profit from CLIL TLA development. More and more school teachers are also faced with the challenge of teaching children from linguistically diverse backgrounds in mainstream classrooms (Lindahl, 2019; O'Toole and Skinner, 2018). Calls for teachers to employ a 'culturally responsive pedagogy' that considers the cultural and linguistic needs of immigrant children who learn English as an additional language (EAL) have been made in the hope that this will help close the achievement gap between L1 and L2 learners (O'Toole and Skinner, 2018). Yet studies from both the UK and the US have reported

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[3] https://www.universitypathwayalliance.org

that subject teachers often lack the language-related knowledge and skills needed to provide EAL students with adequate linguistic support (Lindahl, 2019; Skinner, 2010). Often, it seems, teachers receive very limited, if any training, and are expected to learn 'on the job', leaving them feeling "unprepared" for the challenges involved (Lindahl, 2019: 86; Skinner, 2010). Hence, there are strong parallels between their situation and the one of CLIL/pathway teachers and it is not far-fetched to assume that this study's findings can also make a valuable contribution to discussions surrounding teacher education in EAL settings. For example, it needs to be investigated what specific TLA development needs subject teachers in EAL settings have, how they compare to CLIL/pathway teachers and whether and how they can potentially be addressed through introducing teachers to CLIL pedagogy and dialogic data-led RP.

8.4.2 Teacher cognition/TLA research

Beyond HE and EAL provision the study also makes a contribution to the field of teacher cognition, and specifically to TLA, research. Firstly, it was shown that similar to other teacher development studies concerned with cognitive change, the participants followed their own individual development pathways as each teacher seemed to find their particular TLA development issue(s) (see section 8.2.2). Still, it was acknowledged that the set-up of the CLIL-RP activity, for example the fact that teachers drew on limited classroom data and had few opportunities to share transcripts with other participants, might have also played a role in effecting the observed development differences. Similarly, teachers' established identities as subject specialists and how they perceived their roles and responsibilities also seemed to impact on their TLA development as the participants were more concerned with TLA development foci obviously relevant to subject teaching than those linked to more language-related issues.

These are important insights for teacher cognition and TLA research as they shed light on the interplay between teacher cognitions, identities and education. Still, more research is needed to explore how the observed individual development pathways can be accounted for. Considering that pathway teachers come from a variety of backgrounds, future investigations could, for example, explore how teachers' cognitions are influenced by previous training and experiences and how this then impacts on TLA development. Similarly, we need to investigate how teachers'

customary identities can be reshaped to embrace the additional responsibility of language teaching. Kubanyiova (2012: 45f.) for example, has shown that teachers' mental representations of their 'possible selves', i.e. the idealised versions of the kind of teachers they would like be, can play a key role in language teacher education. Future work and research could hence explore how such notions of 'possible selves' can be made use of in the context of teacher education generally, and the development of CLIL TLA development specifically.

Finally, the study has also highlighted that there is a need for the TLA field to consider whether a unified, mutually accepted definition of CLIL TLA can be devised as currently such a conceptualisation does not exist. The literature review has demonstrated that TLA has been linked to a wide range of - often rather loosely defined - language-related knowledge and skills, making it difficult for practitioners to draw on a concise knowledge-base (see section 2.3). Hence, it is important for future work and research to consider how TLA can be defined in CLIL settings and to "re-examine" whether a conceptualisation can be found that is both theoretically sound and practically useful (Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226; Andrews and Lin, 2018: 66).

8.4.3 Second language learning

From a second language learning perspective, the study provided insights into the challenges faced by L2 learners and their teachers in the growing sector of pathway provision. It also highlighted how much CLIL and second language learning pedagogy have to offer subject specialists working in such settings. For example, one key area in which some participants developed their TLA concerned the appreciation of dialogic teaching - an approach also commonly employed in language classrooms. However, it was also shown that some participants lacked the pedagogical tools and strategies needed to implement such teaching in practice (e.g. Gareth, Colin). Section 8.3.3 has thus already argued that future work and research should consider how English language and subject teachers can be brought together as 'buddies' in professional development activities so that subject teachers can benefit from their L2 colleagues' pedagogical expertise regarding the use of communicative and interactive ways of teaching. At the same time, such collaborative activities and research could also help English/EAP teachers and second language researchers gain a deeper understanding of the kind of academic

discourse pathway students encounter in various disciplines and of the linguistic knowledge and skills that need to be fostered when preparing international students for university entry. Hence, such work could make a contribution to such second language learning fields as EAP and ESP.

Additionally, it is important that the field of second language research continues to explore the links between TLA and student learning. This study was based on the assumption that teachers with a high level of TLA are better equipped to provide L2 learners with much needed language support; however, whether the CLIL-RP activity actually did have an impact on students' language learning or not was not explored. This is a crucial missing link not only in this, but also in many other TLA studies and in teacher development research generally: We assume that heightened TLA and/or professional development have positive effects on student learning; yet whether this is indeed the case is difficult to prove (Andrews, 2007: 179; Morton, 2012: 303; Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226f.). It is therefore crucial that teacher cognition/TLA research continues to explore what the links between TLA and second language learning are and whether or not professional development in this area has an impact on student achievement.

8.4.4 Teacher education/professional learning

Beyond the field of second language learning, the study also contributes to discussions in the field of teacher education more broadly. For example, it demonstrated the potential inherent in dialogic data-led RP as a way forward in teacher education (also see section 8.4.5) and shed light on some of the practical problems that can impact on teacher development activities and related research. Most importantly, it highlighted that the institutional framework is key in fostering effective development activities: Despite the fact that the idea for the CLIL-RP activity had been borne out of a company-wide initiative, it became clear during the workshop series that institutional factors restricted teachers' TLA development in several ways (e.g. lack of timetable slots for meetings; overcrowded syllabus, decision-making at managerial level). These are important insights for teacher education generally as they highlight the need for institutions to provide adequate working space if professional development and pedagogical change are truly desired. Future work and research should hence be concerned with the question how the creation of such working space can be fostered. Suggestions how this can be done in

the pathway sector have been provided (see section 8.3.3), but it is important that such efforts are also brought into the public domain to allow practitioners/teacher educators to learn from others' experiences.

Still, it was acknowledged that the institutional framework was not the only factor restricting the participants' TLA development. In my self-reflection in chapter 7 I have shown that the way that I designed the workshops and how I handled the collaborative discussions at times also limited opportunities for deeper learning. Again, these insights are of relevance beyond this study as they highlight the importance of the facilitator in teacher education more generally. Research is needed to explore how this role is played out in different settings and particularly how facilitators influence the way that reflective discussions 'get done' (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 254). Such insights can enhance our understanding of how relationships between facilitators and participants in teacher education activities impact on professional learning and of the role interaction and language play in reflective processes. Thus, a knowledge-base can be created for teacher educators and facilitators regarding the effective management of dialogic teacher development activities (see also sections 8.4.5/6)

Finally, it has also been suggested that should expert facilitators not be available (as is currently the case in the context of pathway provision), teacher education should focus on equipping teachers with adequate self-reflection skills and tools (see section 8.3.3; Mann and Walsh, 2017, 2013; Walsh and Mann, 2015). This study sought to make a practical contribution to the field in that respect by designing the CLIL reflection toolkit that the participants used in the preparation of the snapshot recordings and the SR sessions (see sections 2.4.2, 5.4.1). While the teachers' evaluation showed that overall this toolkit fulfilled its purpose, it also indicated that some participants felt its format needed improvement (see section 6.3). Hence, more research is needed to explore whether and how the proposed toolkit can be adapted to be used in teacher education activities at other pathway centres and in different international education settings (e.g. EAL - see section 8.4.1), or whether the use of existing self-reflection tools (e.g. SETT) might be more suitable.

8.4.5 RP

Closely connected to teacher education, this study also makes a contribution to the field of RP. It not only demonstrated that through dialogic data-led RP moments of

awakening TLA can be created, but also showed that the participants evaluated this particular form RP overwhelmingly positively. Some teachers for example highlighted that the activity had helped them gain a greater understanding of their work context and more empathy for their students (e.g. Elaine). Considering that most RP literature involves written and individual forms of reflection (e.g. Borg, 2006: 293ff.; Mann, 2005: 110; Farrell, 2007, 2018; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 18).), these findings constitute an important insight for the research field as they provide evidence for the claims made by Mann and Walsh (2017) that dialogic data-led RP can indeed be an effective and promising way forward in teacher development and education.

Still, the study also drew attention to areas where more work and research are needed. In section 8.3.3 it has for example been suggested that future research should compare the impact of different forms of RP (e.g. journal writing, inquiry) and of various types of classroom data (e.g. video evidence) on CLIL TLA development. Similarly, my self-reflection (see chapter 7) highlighted the need to better understand how opportunities for reflection can be created or obstructed through the interaction between facilitators and participants in dialogic RP, an issue that will be discussed further in the next section.

8.4.6 Linguistics

Finally, the study also contributes to and highlights the need for further research in the field of (applied) linguistics. Specifically, the data collected during phase II provided insights into dialogic data-led RP 'in action' (see previous section). My self-reflection revealed that the way how I handled these discussions and particularly how I managed the interaction between myself and the participants impacted on how opportunities for deeper reflection were created – or, indeed, at times obstructed (see chapter 7). Future work should hence be concerned with detailed analyses of how such collaborative reflective discussions 'get done' (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 254). Researchers in the field of (applied) linguistics are called upon to investigate the language used in data-led, dialogic RP and to provide fine-grained descriptions of how reflection is "framed, encouraged and achieved" through the means of interaction and language (Mann and Walsh, 2013: 292). This area could, for example, involve the close inspection of reflective discussions using methods associated with conversation analysis and discursive psychology (see e.g. Morton, 2012). Findings from such linguistic analyses could then inform a knowledge and

skills base for teacher educators and facilitators of professional learning activities involving RP generally and CLIL TLA development specifically.

8.5   Summary

This chapter discussed the study's main findings in relation to the current research gap. I highlighted how phase one confirmed that pathway and CLIL teachers share similar TLA development needs and that thus CLIL research and pedagogy are relevant for pathway teachers, and that, vice versa, investigations into pathway settings are relevant for the wider field of CLIL. Phase two demonstrated that while all participants developed their TLA as a result of the CLIL-RP activity further, this development, just like in other education programmes aimed at cognitive change (Borg, 2003: 91; Lo, 2017) seemed individualised and remained fragmented. This was attributed to the participants' varied backgrounds and experiences, but potentially also to the set-up of the development activity. Additionally, this study's findings confirm the results of other RP/CLIL studies where cognitive, pedagogical and institutional barriers as well as teachers' beliefs regarding their roles and responsibilities had an impact on how reflection was translated into action. This gave rise to questions regarding the impact of teacher identity on TLA development and the need for institutional support to enable teachers to put their newly acquired knowledge into practice. The study further highlighted that more research is needed to explore the role of the educator and particularly that of the facilitator in TLA development activities, an issue that has so far received little attention in the literature. The participants' evaluation and particularly their positive response regarding the data-led RP element of the activity suggest that there is a desire amongst pathway teachers to engage in further professional development.

The second part of the chapter outlined three different scenarios about how the study's findings could inform future decision-making in the pathway sector with regards to TLA development. While the abandonment of TLA development initiatives in favour of recruitment of dually qualified staff was discussed but eventually dismissed, both a light or an extended, inter-disciplinary version of TLA development seem viable options for the pathway sector. While the former option might be less time and resource-intensive, it has been argued that it is only the latter that might provide a mutually beneficial way for all stakeholders to come together and form a

'community of practice' with the aim of exploring ways to best prepare international students for university entry.

Finally, the chapter concluded with a discussion of future work and research the study can potentially instigate in various fields, including international education (HE/EAL), teacher cognition and TLA research, second language learning, teacher education, RP and linguistics. A schematic illustration summarising the study's main contributions to different disciplines is provided in figure 6.

The study's main contributions to different disciplines

CLIL
- The study showed that "**family resemblances**" exist between CLIL and pathway settings: The CLIL research **field has been extended** to include the pathway sector.
- Insights into the under-researched area of **CLIL TLA development** were provided, demonstrating the value of **dialogic data-led RP** and highlighting the role of the **facilitator**.

Pathway
- The study provided insight into the **under-researched area** of pathway provision.
- It showed that pathway and CLIL teachers share **similar TLA development needs**; professional development needs to be implemented.
- **Institutional factors** influence how reflection is translated into action.
- **Suggestions for future development** activities have been provided.

International education including HE and EAL
- CLIL pedagogy and TLA development are potentially also relevant for subject teachers working with international students in a variety of other educational settings, including **HE** and **EAL**.

Teacher Cognition / TLA research
- The study showed that **individual development pathways** exist for TLA development.
- Teacher **identity** has an impact on TLA development.
- A practically usable **definition of TLA** is needed.

Teacher Education / Professional learning
The study showed that:
- TLA development/professional learning activities need to be organised in such a way that **dialogic data-led reflection** is encouraged and that teachers can **appropriate knowledge in individual ways.**
- Institutions need to provide **working space** for teacher education/ professional learning opportunities.
- **Skilled facilitators/educators** are needed to support TLA development/professional learning activities.
- If facilitators are not available to support professional learning activities, teachers need to be educated regarding the use of **self-reflection tools.**

Reflective practice
- The study showed that through **dialogic data-led RP** moments of awakening TLA can be created.
- Data-led RP helps teachers gain greater understanding of **context** and develop greater **empathy** with students.
- **Facilitator** is important to encourage deeper reflection.

Second language learning
- The study provided insights into the challenges teachers and L2 learners face in the pathway sector.
- More research is needed to investigate the **impact of TLA awareness on student learning.**

Applied Linguistics
- The study provided insights into **RP in action** and highlighted the important role of the facilitator in reflective discussions. More research is needed to explore **how reflective discussions 'get done'.**

Figure 6: The study's main contributions to different disciplines

Chapter 9. Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

This final chapter revisits the key issues covered in this thesis. It summarises the practical and theoretical rationale that led to its conception and outlines what the aims of the study were, how it was undertaken and what its main findings were. The study's limitations are discussed and suggestions for future research made.

9.2 Overview of the study

This thesis documented how I designed and conducted a CLIL-RP teacher development activity with a group of HE pathway teachers. The rationale for this practitioner-led research project was twofold. Firstly, it originated as a local initiative in response to my former employer's suggestion to adopt CLIL as a pedagogical strategy across its study centres. Based on the assumption that subject teachers employing such an approach require a high level of TLA and considering my own experiences as a CLIL teacher, I offered to organise a relevant staff development activity. Secondly, I recognised that although researchers have frequently called for CLIL teacher development/training to focus on the enhancement of TLA and suggested that this could be done using RP (e.g. Morton, 2012: 291, 301ff.; Costa, 2012: 43; Marsh et al., 2012), there have been few studies reporting on how this has been done in practice (e.g. Escobar, 2013; He and Lin, 2018). Furthermore, professional development studies are generally lacking in the pathway sector, where the need for subject staff to receive pedagogical training in the teaching of L2 learners has been recognised (Winkle, 2014: 243). Hence, this study sought to contribute to the discussions surrounding CLIL TLA development beyond the local context and to provide practical guidance for pathway professionals interested in designing similar activities.

Based on the review of the literature in the fields of CLIL, TLA and RP, the CLIL-RP activity was organised on the principles of dialogic, data-led RP (Mann and Walsh, 2017, 2013; Walsh and Mann, 2015). This, I argued, would allow the teachers to develop their TLA collaboratively and on the basis of their classroom evidence. The study consisted of two phases: phase one explored the participants' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study to establish context-relevant

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TLA development foci; phase two investigated to what extent the participants developed their TLA during the activity and how they evaluated the process.

Regarding the methodological decision-making, I adopted a pragmatist stance. Given pragmatism's premise that all knowledge derives from action and reflection on action (Hammond, 2013: 607), this tied in with the principles guiding the CLIL-RP activity and suited the practice-oriented, reflective nature of the study overall.

9.3   Key findings

The exploration of participants' language-related cognitions and practices at the onset of the study (phase one) revealed that the teachers were keen for their students to acquire the subject-specific language of their respective fields, to use/explain academic terminology and to adapt to Western styles of learning by, for example, acquiring critical discussion skills. Yet their various teaching approaches and the way they managed classroom interactions were not all equally suited to achieve that (e.g. lack of dialogic activities, teacher-dominated IRF). Furthermore, there was variability in the use of support strategies and how teachers approached the issue of corrective feedback. The assumption that pathway teachers can potentially profit from TLA development was thus confirmed and four TLA development foci defined (subject-specific language/accessibility, teaching approach, adaptation to academic culture, classroom interaction). Particularly noteworthy was that the participants' cognitions and practices often mirrored observations made in other CLIL settings (e.g. focus on lexis, attitudes regarding corrective feedback). This is an important insight for both the CLIL and the pathway communities, confirming that CLIL research is indeed relevant for pathway professionals and that, vice versa, pathway research can inform CLIL.

Phase two then explored to what extent the participants' TLA developed during the CLIL-RP activity. It was shown that teachers' reflections and moments of "awakening" (Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 260) regarding the interrelationship between content and language revolved around two themes, accessibility and student engagement. However, both themes consisted of various subthemes and each teacher seemed to find 'their' own specific development issue(s) that they were particularly concerned about. Additionally, TLA development was restricted to those areas that were notably more 'subject-relevant' (e.g. accessibility, means to foster student engagement), while more 'language-oriented' issues were of less concern for

the teachers (e.g. adoption of meta-language, corrective feedback). Some teachers' reluctance to change existing lesson plans for the snapshot recordings or to set language-specific learning aims further indicated that their main focus continued to be on subject content, while language remained a more diffused curriculum concern. Overall, this suggested that the development of the participants' TLA was individualistic, fragmented and limited.

Furthermore, even in areas where the teachers had experienced moments of awakening TLA, the translation of reflection into action was not straightforward. At times, this was hindered by teachers' lack of pedagogical tools or by their beliefs regarding CLIL's (un)suitability for the subject/course/specific student groups. Institutional factors, such as time, full curricula and managerial directives were also considered obstacles in the implementation of CLIL by some. Still, the evaluation suggested that overall the participants found the CLIL-RP activity useful. The teachers expressed their desire for more professional learning opportunities of this kind, commenting particularly positively on the data-led element of the CLIL-RP activity. They also had many suggestions about how it could be improved.

The discussion offered explanations for the observed findings. The individualised, fragmented and limited TLA development was linked to teachers' varied professional backgrounds and experiences, but also to the fact that their reflections were based on the limited classroom evidence collected during phase one. Their focus on predominantly subject-relevant issues was considered an expression of their customary identities as subject teachers. I also acknowledged, however, that my inexperience in handling the various demands inherent in the workshop leader role, paired with the institution's failure to support the meeting groups with suitable timetable slots, had a considerable effect on participants' TLA development as opportunities for deeper reflection and learning were sometimes missed. This self-reflection not only enriched the study by highlighting my perspective as a co-learner during the CLIL-RP activity but also raised questions regarding the knowledge and skills required on behalf of the facilitator in CLIL TLA development more generally as this role has to date received little attention in the literature.

Chapter 8 further discussed various scenarios regarding how CLIL TLA development can be addressed in the future; from the abandonment of staff development over a 'light' version focused on selected TLA development areas only, to the conclusion that the way forward might be to accept the complexity of the undertaking involved and to expand the development activity. More long-term,

interdisciplinary and institution-wide collaboration and commitment are necessary so that a shared vision of pedagogical practice can be created, professional learning activities devised, and the integration of content and language learning further fostered on pathways.

9.4   Limitations of the study

The study's first limitation lies in its selective nature. As outlined in sections 2.3.1-2.3.4, the array of knowledge, skills and conceptualisations related to CLIL TLA in the literature is so wide that for the CLIL-RP activity to work in practice, the number of development foci had to be restricted. Although my attempt to do so was not wholly successful – I still covered too many issues in the workshops (see section 7.6) – this effectively meant that some cognitions and practices linked to TLA were not explored at all. For example, we did not address teachers' understanding of the role of language in assessments, the fostering of students' writing skills, curriculum design, or look more closely into helping teachers gain an in-depth understanding of their respective academic genres or of specific academic language functions (see e.g. Llinares et al., 2012; Cammarata, and Haley, 2018; Lin, 2016: 78, 87; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Similarly, while the study did touch on some factors influencing the development of TLA and its exercise in practice (e.g. identity, previous professional experiences/training, perception of context/subject/students), the exploration of each of these issues could have gone into greater depth. Further affective factors, such as teachers' confidence, for example (Andrews, 2007: 41), could have been considered, too. My decision to restrict the CLIL-RP activity to selected TLA development foci rather than employ one of the summative TLA conceptualisations further means that the study cannot add to the discussions surrounding the theoretical conceptualisation of TLA in CLIL. While all these limitations can be explained by the study's practical outlook, which necessitated the prioritisation of certain issues and perspectives over others, they also highlight the difficulty in researching teacher development generally. On the one hand we focus on specific perspectives to advance our understanding of particular phenomena, on the other hand we need to do justice to the complexity of teacher activity (Kubyaniova, 2012: 9ff.).

How the TLA development foci were selected highlights another limitation of the study. They were derived from the phase one data, which, in addition to the focus group interviews, consisted of one interview and one lesson observation per

participant only. Hence, this data-set was small and cannot be taken as a representation of all pathway teaching or of any one participant's overall practice. More such interviews and observations or different investigation methods (e.g. the employment of post-observation stimulated recall interviews) could have led to greater understanding of how teachers approach language-related issues in their classrooms. This might have informed the development activity differently; had a larger phase one data-base been drawn upon, we might wonder if more varied reflection opportunities would have been created, a greater sense of plausibility achieved (see section 7.3) and more holistic development effected (see section 8.2.2).

The study was further limited by the fact that one specific form of RP – dialogic and data-led – was chosen as the underlying principle of the CLIL-RP activity. Consequently, no conclusions can be drawn regarding the effectiveness of other forms of reflection-based forms of professional learning (e.g. SETT, teacher inquiry, reflective journals, collaboration with a critical friend) or of different types of classroom evidence (e.g. video) in the context of TLA development. Given some of the drawbacks of the workshops, we need to ask if such activities/evidence would have engaged the participants differently and hence potentially led to greater critical reflectivity and cognitive and practical change (see section 8.3.3).

From a methodological viewpoint, research question II.1 investigated the extent to which the participants' TLA developed, hence focusing on the changes effected as is typical for pragmatist studies (Goldkuhl, 2012: 136,139). However, my reflexive commentary also revealed that the teachers' opportunities for deeper reflection (and hence TLA development) were inextricably linked to "how" the discussions "got done" (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 246). Given pragmatism's flexible approach, it would have been possible to employ further data analysis methods, for example informed by conversation analysis or discursive psychology, to explore this observation further. That this was not done can again be explained by the fact that in any project of this kind certain perspectives are necessarily prioritised over others and given the unforeseen growth of the data and the related difficulties in analysing it (see section 3.9.1) such an addition, albeit interesting, would most certainly have breached this thesis' formal requirements.

Regarding the scale of the study, eight teachers were recruited, which in hindsight seems large considering other TLA development studies were conducted with fewer participants (He and Lin, 2018; Lo, 2017; Escobar, 2013). Still, from a

perspective of statistical generalisability, it was a small study, carried out with non-randomly selected participants. Furthermore, although the preliminary analysis of the phase one focus group/interview data was shared with the participants, the phase two findings were not (see section 3.10). Both these issues raise questions regarding the generalisability and validity of the findings. While I have sought to address the latter by being transparent in my account about how the findings were derived, the lack of the former is not considered problematic. On the contrary, in line with the pragmatist tradition, I have already argued in Chapter 3 that this thesis does not make any claims regarding the presentation of 'absolute truths'. Rather, it presents findings as warranted assertions only and provides a 'real-world' glimpse into the practice of CLIL TLA development. For practitioners, such a contextualised study is arguably more useful than statistical generalisability as it allows them to judge the transferability of the study's findings to their own context.

Considering the voices included in this study, the focus was firmly on the teachers and, in the reflexive commentary, on myself as workshop leader. As Elaine rightly observed (see section 6.2), the students' perspective on the implementation of CLIL was neglected and, equally, the impact of the activity on their attainment was not explored. This is a key issue not only in this study, but also in wider TLA/teacher cognition and professional development research: we assume that heightened TLA, reflection or other forms of teacher development will be beneficial for student learning, yet whether this is indeed the case and what the exact relationship between TLA/reflection and student learning is requires much more investigation (Andrews, 2007: 179; Morton, 2012: 303; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 260; Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226f.).

The final, and probably key, limitation of the study mirrors the participants' criticism of the CLIL-RP activity: the lack of a long-term perspective. Originally, it was intended to add a third data collection phase to gain an insight into the CLIL-RP activity's long-term impact, yet this had to be abandoned due to a change in my personal circumstances (see section 3.6). This limitation is particularly important as the phase two analysis, apart from the observed moments of awakening, largely relied on teachers' professed claims regarding what they felt they had learnt and how they had implemented the suggested strategies. Given that "knowing is doing" (Morgan, 2014: 1048; Bright, 1996: 170), however, longitudinal, practical, observational evidence is crucial to determine whether the activity succeeded in

engaging the teachers beyond the moment and acted as a catalyst for sustained cognitive and practical change.

9.5   Directions for further research

Considering the limitations outlined above, suggestions for further research are plentiful (also see section 8.4 for a detailed discussion of potential future work and research in different fields). Teacher development remains a key area in the field of CLIL across educational settings, but particularly in HE (Macaro et al., 2018: 56, 67; Pérez-Cañado, 2018: 218; Cammarata and Haley, 2018: 345). Thus, the CLIL community is first and foremost called upon to continue researching the practice of TLA development. Suggestions for how future development activities could be organised have been discussed in Chapter 8, yet it is also important that such undertakings are brought into the public domain, where practitioner studies, such as this one, remain rare. By strengthening practitioner perspectives, we can not only explore what has worked (or not) in other settings (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2017: 157), but potentially also encourage greater reciprocity between practitioners and researchers (Andresen, 2000: 148). This is particularly important when it comes to discussions regarding what CLIL TLA entails. As this study has shown, the current definitions resemble little more than "rather loose" conceptualisations of a range of complex interrelated knowledge and skills (Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226), making it difficult for practitioners to draw on a concise knowledge-base. Hence, practitioners and researchers are called upon to come together, to explore how various aspects of TLA can be developed, what TLA consists of in different settings/for different subjects and to "re-examine" whether and how a theoretically sound yet practically useful conceptualisation can be devised (ibid.; Andrews and Lin, 2018: 66).

Another aspect that merits further exploration are the different factors influencing TLA development. This study's findings suggest that the limits of TLA development might be connected to how the participants perceived their roles and responsibilities as subject-teachers (see section 8.2.4; see also e.g. Cammarata and Tedick, 2012: 257; Nikula et al., 2016: 14; Tan, 2011); hence we need to investigate further how such notions of identity can be reshaped through CLIL teacher development. Kubanyiova (2012: 45f.) for example has raised the importance of English teachers' mental representations of their "possible selves" – their hopes and desires regarding what kind of teacher they would like to become – as a key element for successful

professional learning and we might wonder how such conceptualisations could be exploited in the context of TLA development (see also Pappa et al., 2017). Equally, we need to gain greater understanding of how previous training and experiences impact on TLA and its development. Given that pathway teachers come from a variety of backgrounds this might be particularly helpful to understand the individual development pathways observed in this study. This could for example be done using a multiple-case study design where individual teachers' backgrounds and development journeys are investigated over time.

Long-term studies are also required to investigate whether and how the effects of TLA development on teachers' cognitions indeed lead to sustained practical change. Equally and closely related is the question of what the impact of such development on the student experience and achievement is. This is a crucial missing link in TLA – and RP – research, where we assume that a beneficial effect between heightened TLA or reflection on student outcomes exists, yet the evidence is missing (Andrews, 2007: 179; Morton, 2012: 303; Mann and Walsh, 2017: 260; Andrews and Svalberg, 2017: 226f.). Hence, future research efforts need to take a longitudinal approach and include the student perspective. Empirical evidence that CLIL TLA development through RP does indeed make a lasting difference to student learning might not only persuade teachers to accept CLIL as a pedagogical innovation or to participate in development activities, but also convince stakeholders that investment in teacher development is indeed worthwhile (see Smit and Dafouz, 2012: 8). Such considerations are important in any setting, but especially relevant in the market-driven environment of HE pathway provision (see section 1.2).

As this study only made recourse to one specific form of RP – dialogic, data-led – we also need to investigate and compare the impact of alternative reflective approaches on TLA development (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 254). This could for example include explorations of the use of video-evidence, existing self-reflection tools (e.g. SETT) or written reflective journals. Equally, other (interdisciplinary) collaborative ways of development could be investigated (e.g. buddy/critical friend systems in association with EAP staff), or even the use of inquiry-based forms of professional learning considered (see section 8.3.3). Similarly, my reflexive commentary demonstrated that the way I conducted the reflective discussions and handled the personal relationships at times led to missed opportunities for deeper reflection and learning. Thus, we need to explore in much greater detail – for example by using micro-analytical studies – how reflective discussions "get done"

(Mann and Walsh, 2017: 254) and relationship issues are overcome so that successful learning conversations can be established.

Such further investigations into CLIL TLA and RP are particularly important to inform a knowledge base for teacher educators and facilitators of professional learning activities. Although my reflexive commentary demonstrated the importance of this role, to date it has received little attention in the CLIL TLA development literature (except Lindahl and Baecher, 2016; He and Lin, 2018). Hence, more research is required to explore the skills and knowledge necessary to help develop TLA. This is important in any CLIL setting, but particularly so in the pathway sector where the need for professional development has been recognised (Winkle, 2014: 243) but no formal courses and hence no specifically qualified teacher educators or facilitators of professional learning exist.

This consequentially also necessitates the continued widening of our understanding of the specific educational setting that is the pathway sector. While phase one provided a rare insight into pathway teachers' language-related cognitions and practices, it has been acknowledged that the data collected was limited. Much more needs to be done to gain an understanding of the learning and teaching that goes on in this environment. This, however, needs to go further than exploring teachers' language-related cognitions and practices as was done here, but involve all aspects of this educational setting. This study found that institutional factors played an important role not only in how space for reflection was created (or rather, obstructed) during the CLIL-RP activity, but also in how the participants perceived their opportunities to translate their reflection into action. Hence, we need to explore the 'context' of pathway centres to gain a greater understanding of whether specific factors exist in their set-up that might foster or hinder professional learning opportunities generally, and the development of TLA/adoption of CLIL in particular. Case studies investigating different centres might be helpful here.

Finally, it must be remembered that pathway centres are not isolated organisations but are linked to partner universities. In the discussion it has already been argued that future TLA development activities could benefit from cross-institutional expertise and involvement to create a shared vision for theory-informed practice, such as from Education or Applied Linguistics departments. Such collaboration is equally called for when it comes to the research effort. Until recently, there seems to have been little interest in pathway-specific research, probably because of academics' suspicions of the (in many cases privately-owned) market-

driven education providers. However, it is time that researchers acknowledge the important role that pathway programmes play in HE, both in terms of financial contributions (through recruitment) and in the academic, linguistic and cultural preparation of prospective students. It is of paramount interest for universities to gain a greater understanding of what the transition from pathway course to university is like for international students, what kind of pathway experience they profit from, how well they do once they enter university and whether their progress can be aided through CLIL TLA and/or other professional development. A concerted research effort could thus not only help answer questions regarding CLIL/TLA development, but also shed light on how the emergence of this new educational seclearning and teaching in HE generally.

Finally, it also needs to be explored to what extent the findings of this study can inform other international education settings beyond CLIL, pathway and Higher Education practice. Teachers encountering growing numbers of EAL students, in particular, seem to face similar challenges as CLIL/pathway teachers and calls for teacher education in this sector have hence been made (Lindahl, 2019; O'Toole and Skinner, 2018; Skinner, 2010). Research is therefore needed to investigate if teachers in EAL settings share similar TLA development needs as their CLIL/pathway colleagues and whether and how CLIL pedagogy and dialogic data-led RP can contribute to EAL teacher education. Thus, the study can make a potentially significant contribution to teacher education in a field that exceeds far beyond the immediate context.

9.6   Concluding remarks

This research project set out to address the local issue of CLIL TLA development for subject teachers working at a HE pathway centre. By bringing together a range of theoretical, practical and methodological perspectives and by documenting how the development activity was planned and conducted it also sought to make a contribution to the wider CLIL and pathway communities. For practitioners, it offered an authentic insight into the opportunities and pitfalls inherent in designing and conducting a CLIL-RP development activity "in the wild" (Mann and Walsh, 2017: 100). For researchers, it shed light on the under-explored areas of pathway teaching and CLIL TLA development and raised questions for future exploration. As a reflective inquiry, it helped me develop an appreciation of the demands involved in

acting as a facilitator in a professional development activity, and of the complexities inherent in researching educational practice and bringing about pedagogical change. Most importantly, however, the study demonstrated that as a community of stakeholders – teachers, managers, pathway providers, HE institutions, researchers – we still have much to learn about the challenges involved in the teaching and academic preparation of pathway students and how such challenges can be overcome. Much more practical effort, research and collaboration are needed to explore how we can support teachers and students in this relatively new but growing sector. This promises to be a rich and rewarding field of academic practice and research in the future.

Appendix A. Consent form

Consent Form

This study is part of a doctoral research project undertaken by Ms Sandra Strigel, a part-time student at the School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences at Newcastle University. It aims to explore the pedagogical and linguistic challenges subject teachers face in the pathway sector. This will include an investigation of teachers' attitudes and beliefs as well as their teaching practice. Further, a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) development activity consisting of a number of workshops and reflective practice tasks will be designed, implemented and evaluated in order to gain insight into the extent to which CLIL pedagogies can inform pathway teachers' academic practice and language awareness.

Data collection and analysis
- Task-based focus group interviews
- Semi-structured interviews
- (Audio / video) recordings of lessons, CLIL workshops and reflective practice tasks
- Stimulated recall interviews (commentaries on lesson recordings)
- Data will be transcribed and analysed using a thematic analysis approach.

Duration of the project
The research project will be conducted over the course of one year (Dec. 2013 until Nov. 2014) and data will be collected at different stages:
- Pre-development phase: Dec. '13 until Jan. '14
- CLIL development activity: Six to eight workshops and reflective tasks Feb. – July 2014; dates to be confirmed
- Evaluation phase: Oct. / Nov. 2014

Participants' contributions
Teachers will be expected to attend the workshops and participate in the reflective practice tasks. This might involve taking brief recordings of teachers' own practice and sharing them with other members of the group. Teachers will be asked to collaborate in a professional manner and keep any sensitive information confidential.

Data storage and use
- The data will be stored on a password protected hard-drive that will be kept in a secure location that is only accessible by the researcher.
- Your personal information will be used to validate and process the data you provide. Your name and contact information will not be shared with any other party.
- All citations (spoken and written) from the data which are used in published works or presentations shall be anonymised to such an extent that all references to people, places and institutions are unidentifiable.

Any questions relating to this project can be addressed to:

e-mail: Sandra.strigel@ncl.ac.uk

Declaration:

I grant to the researcher of the project, Ms Sandra Strigel, the permission to record my speech and/or writing. I understand that the recordings may be transcribed and analysed, and I agree to these recordings and transcriptions being used for research purposes, in academic publications and presentations.

I further declare that:
- I am 18 years of age or older;
- all information I provide will be full and correct;
- I give this consent freely;
- I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time.

_____

Signature

_____

Name *(block capitals)*

_____

Date *(please write name of month) e.g. 24th March 2010*

_____

Email Address

_____

Postal Address

Thank you for taking part in this project.
Your help is greatly appreciated.

Appendix B. Interview Schedule

Questions
1. What is the topic of this lesson?
2. What do you intend the students to learn about this topic?
3. What teaching approach will you take? Why?
4. Are there any particular skills you intend the students to learn from this lesson?
5. How would you describe the language level of the class?
6. What kind of language do you intend the students to use in this lesson?
7. Will you introduce any new language that you would like them to learn?
8. Why is it important for students to use/learn this kind of language?
9. Are you anticipating any language difficulties the students might have during this lesson?
10. If language problems arise, how will you deal with them?
11. Will you be using specific strategies to take into account that students are studying in a foreign language? a) Are these the kind of strategies that you normally use? b) What other strategies do you use?
12. Will you raise students' awareness of language-related issues?
13. How is this lesson connected to the previous and the next lesson?

Appendix C. Transcription system

T	Teacher
S	Student (numbers indicate particular students e.g. S1, S2)
Ss	Students
Sf	Female Student
Sm	Male student
[do you understand] [yes]	Overlap between speakers
=	Turn continues, or one turn follows another without any pause (latching)
/yes/yes/	Overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one person
(.)	Pause of one second or less
(4)	Silence, length given in seconds
((4))	A stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
?	Rising intonation
.	Falling intonation
,	Continuation of tone
<u>under</u>	Underlines indicate speaker emphasis on the underlined portion of the word
(would)	Parentheses are used to indicate that the transcriber has guessed as to what the speaker said because it was indecipherable one the tape
(T organises group)	Comments in parentheses in **bold** are comments made by the transcriber

Transcription system adapted from Walsh (2013:145f.)

Appendix D. Example lesson transcript (Extract)

Colin 0:00.0 – 0:16.30

0:00.0 - 0:03.0 LECTURE REVISION; LESSON AIMS & SETTING UP OF GRAPH

ACTIVITY

1	T:	**(Name)** What is equilibrium?
2	Sf1:	Equals, ah supply equal to demand
3	T:	When supply equals demand. Correct, and why is supply equal to
4		demand important, why is that concept important to the mar- the
5		operations of the market? (1) Ahem **(name)**?
6	Sf2:	Ah, it's more efficient
7	T:	It's more efficient and what's more, why is it more efficient, why is
8		it efficient?
9	Sf2:	Demand ah equal to ahem supply (2)
10	T:	It's efficient because you have what, what does it do, what does it
11		when you have, when you achieve an equilibrium price and an
12		equilibrium quantity, what=
13	Sf2:	=Maximum, maximum (3) sorry
14	T:	No, that's fine you're saying it's efficient what, it's an efficient
15		what, what's an efficient **(turns to and looks at another student)**
16		(3) It's an allocation of resources. So, in a market, the purpose of a
17		market, it's to help us, it's a place for buyers and sellers to come
18		together and through participation in that market we're gonna
19		arrive at an efficient allocation of resources. Remember la-, the
20		lecture we had on the difference between a market economy, a
21		free market economy and a planned economy? In a planned
22		economy the state allocates resources, the state decides where
23		resources should be ah should be allocated. In the market it's the
24		interaction of demand and supply, market forces that allocate
25		resources. So that basically means that, we were interested in
26		understanding how the market works, we are interested in
27		understanding <u>how</u> we have an efficient allocation of resources
28		and that's what we're seeking to achieve in today's class, to

29		understand that a bit better. Now, you've already looked at how
30		demand operates, you looked at movements and shifts in demand,
31		similarly, you looked at how supply operates, the movements and
32		shifts of supply. What we're now trying to do is bring those two
33		together, to look at how demand and supply interact. And what I'd
34		like you to do is just on your graph paper draw me, very quickly, it
35		doesn't have to be ultra-neat, just draw me ah equilibrium in the
36		market and illustrate the ah illustrate equilibrium price and
37		quantity, what does that look like?

0:03.0 - 0:04.3 GRAPH ACTIVITY

38		**(T walks around class and advises on graphs).**
39	T:	Remember to mark your axes correctly and remember to mark
40		your graph, sorry, the supply curve and the demand curve
41		correctly, **(turns to student)** that's good. And remember what
42		equilibrium price and equilibrium quantity, price is p and small e
43		and equilibrium quantity is q and small e. **(turns to student)** Good,
44		better to use a dotted line, better to use a dotted line when you
45		are doing equilibrium, the equilibrium price and quantity
46		**(continues)**

0:04.3 - 0:08.1 FEEDBACK ON GRAPH; IRF

47	T:	Good, most of you, a couple of you have got, have looked and
48		drew a wrong graph and that meant that you were either looking
49		at excess demand or excess supply. And that's not what we were
50		looking for, we were simply looking for a graph that would show
51		**(draws on board)** excess demand which would show an
52		equilibrium price and quantity, so an efficient allocation of
53		resources because supply and demand were balanced. Equilibrium
54		means equal or balanced and consequently you're showing that,
55		and most of you got that right, so well done. Ahem, the rest of you
56		remember ahem we want to build up to an equilibrium price and
57		quantity, so we want to show how does the market arrive at this,
58		this situation? And the way that we do it is to, is by thinking about
59		two concepts, two important concepts, one of those concepts

60		ahem **(name)** do you want to give me one of those concepts that
61		helps us arrive at this equilibrium position? (1) What helps us
62		achieve this equilibrium position? (1) There is a key concept that
63		we could use (1.5) A key economic concept that we could use. I
64		discussed it during the lecture when I talked about how it changed
65		towards a new equilibrium.
66	Sf3:	Maximum price controls.
67	T:	That's, anything to do with ma-, with price controls is
68		<u>dis</u>equilibrium. Remember? So, anything to do with price controls
69		is <u>disequilibrium</u> **(writes on board)** and we're not discussing that,
70		we're not discussing that just now. We're discussing a <u>change</u> in
71		the market, in a market equilibrium and how we arrive at that, so
72		something's happening to [change]
73	Sf3:	[Change in price]
74	T:	to move from an old
75		balance of demand and supply to a new balance.
76	Sf3:	Change in demand or supply
77	T:	A change in demand or supply? Yes, that's right but how would you
78		describe that? There's a correct term when we're talking about <u>too</u>
79		much demand or <u>too</u> much supply, what's, what's too much
80		demand? (1) Anybody? (1) Anyone remember when we're talking
81		about too much demand what, what were we talking about? (.)
82	Sm1:	**(quietly)** Sh- , shortage
83	T:	Sorry?
84	Sm1:	A shortage.
85	T:	A shortage. Excellent. So, when, when we're saying there's too
86		much demand it means ah that the consumers at that price level
87		are demanding far more than suppliers are willing to, so what
88		does, how would, what, what would that look like? Draw what you
89		think that would look like. What does excess demand look like on a
90		graph? So again, really quickly show me how, how excess demand
91		would look like. **(continues)**

Appendix E. Identification of development foci for CLIL-RP activity

Identifying development foci/Organising the CLIL-RP Activity

Corrective feedback: important for learning vs. confidence/ priority on meaning?!

Corrective feedback: if attended to, mainly recasts

Lang. Development: Enhancing student LA beyond subj. specific terms/VB?!

Role of lang. in higher order thinking: What does it mean to think critically etc?

Adaptation to academic culture Need to reason/think critically/discuss/be independent

Many lower order questions/ tasks

Interaction Often acceptance of short S answers / T as "primary knower"; many display Qs; use of wait time mixed

Teach. Approach Many teacher-centred lessons/ activities- GW: for team work skills/lang.dev./confi-dence?!

Students need to explain/use terms/VB in context

Lang. development: Main explicit teaching focus: Subject-specific terms/VB

Specialist nature; can be difficult/obtrusive

Various **Support** strategies reported/used

DF4: Classroom interaction WS 5: Input enhancement/corrective feedback/classroom interactional competence/ CLIL-RP toolkit

DF3: Adaptation to academic culture WS 4: Academic culture, cognition and language/Bloom's taxonomy

DF2: Teaching Approach WS 3: Different communicative approaches/dialogic teaching

DF1: Subject specific language/accessibility WS 2: Genre/register/discourses/ accessibility/support strategies

Planning: Language development as diffused curriculum concern – need for systematic planning to be highlighted throughout the WSs.

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Appendix F. Examples of workshop materials

F.1. Workshop Handout (WS 3)

Workshop 3: Dialogic Teaching in CLIL

I. Recap workshop 2

Explain the following key words and show how they are linked:

Genre	Register	Regulative register
Instructional register	Horizontal knowledge and discourse	Vertical knowledge and discourse

II. Workshop aims and intended outcomes
- To raise awareness of the importance of a dialogic teaching approach in CLIL settings

At the end of the workshop, you will…
- Have reflected on HOW you encourage the use of the specific instructional register of YOUR subject and within YOUR context
- Be able to explain what we mean by "dialogic teaching"
- Be able to outline why dialogic teaching is important in CLIL
- Have reflected on how you could incorporate more dialogic teaching in your subject and context

III. Reflection task 1:

> **Analysing your lesson transcript**
>
> - What is being talked about?
>
> - What are you as teacher trying to do? *(e.g. revise content, introduce new ideas, elicit a word, encourage discussion, collect feedback from group work….)*
>
> - Who talks most/least?
>
> - How long are student and teacher utterances? What triggers a long/short student utterance?
>
> - Is there interaction between students? In which phases?
>
> - Whose ideas get talked about?
>
> - In the instructional register, who uses horizontal/vertical discourse?

IV. Communicative approaches in the CLIL classroom

	INTERACTIVE • several people contribute to classroom talk	**NON-INTERACTIVE** • only one person contributes to classroom talk
DIALOGIC • students contribute their own ideas and opinions • often linked to more horizontal discourse	A. dialogic/interactive *e.g. Teacher asks open question and several students contribute their own ideas and respond to one another*	B. dialogic/non-interactive *e.g. One student presents their opinion/idea*
AUTHORITATIVE • only teacher's or "official" point of view is recognised • often linked to vertical discourse	C. authoritative/interactive *e.g. Teacher builds on academic knowledge but students are invited to contribute*	D. authoritative/non-interactive *e.g. Lecture / Teacher presents information*

⇨ **All FOUR approaches are important if students are to develop their language skills. Overuse of one approach only may lead to impoverished learning opportunities**
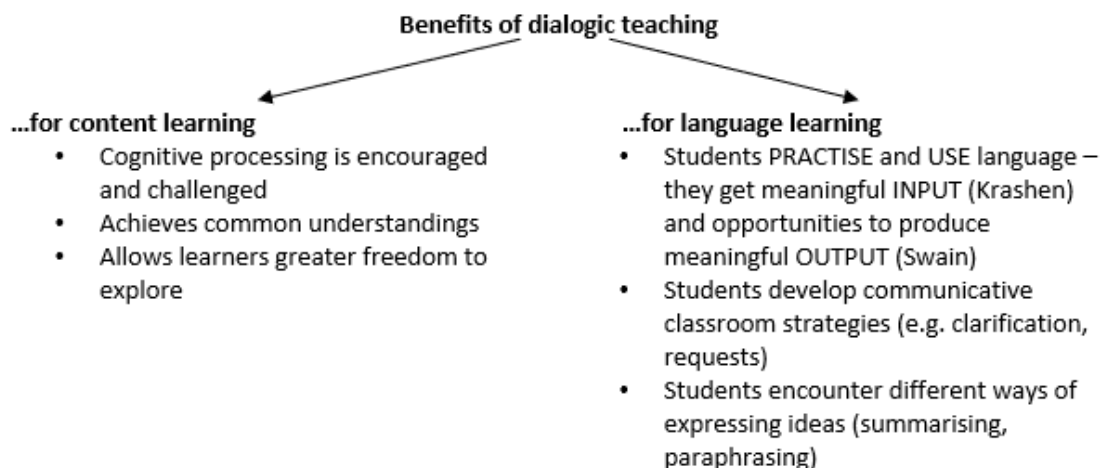
Reflection task 2:
- How would you describe the communicative approach(es) used in your transcript? Is there an overuse of one particular approach?

V. Encouraging interaction and dialogue through a "dialogic" teaching approach

Dialogic teaching:
- *Collective* – learning tasks are addressed together
- *Reciprocal* – teachers and learners listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints
- *Supportive* – learners articulate ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment, wrong answers or language errors
- *Cumulative* – teacher and learners build on their own and others' ideas and chain them into coherent lines of inquiry
- *Purposeful* – teachers plan and steer classroom talk with specific goals in view

Benefits of dialogic teaching

...for content learning
- Cognitive processing is encouraged and challenged
- Achieves common understandings
- Allows learners greater freedom to explore

...for language learning
- Students PRACTISE and USE language – they get meaningful INPUT (Krashen) and opportunities to produce meaningful OUTPUT (Swain)
- Students develop communicative classroom strategies (e.g. clarification, requests)
- Students encounter different ways of expressing ideas (summarising, paraphrasing)

How can dialogic teaching be achieved? – *for example….*
- Different social forms – partner work, group work
- Tasks that encourage interaction and engagement with the subject matter
- Staging of tasks: Give thinking/preparation time – discussion time amongst students – then feedback in class
  - THINK – PAIR – SHARE
- Ask open questions, invite multiple responses rather than closed display questions that can be answered in one word
- In whole class sessions, invite students to clarify and explain; ask other students to comment
- Make use of different types of discourse – horizontal and vertical
- You also need to plan for the language the students need in different communicative situations:
  - Are they able to take part in group work?
  - Are they familiar with the vertical concepts?
  - Do they know the horizontal language?

  ⇨ **"Language FOR learning"**
    E.g. could you supply key word cards, useful phrases, a glossary, dictionaries….?

VI. Reflection task 3:

Go back to your transcript and identify instances where you could have organised the talk/the task differently to allow for more dialogic teaching:
For example, could you….
- Create more opportunities for students to speak e.g. include different types of social forms such as partner/group work?

- Include different tasks or organise the same task differently?

- Ask different types of questions?

- Encourage interaction between students?

- Ask students to comment/react?

- Use different types of discourses (horizontal/vertical)?

- Provide a glossary/phrases/dictionaries to help with a specific task?

Follow-up task: When planning your next lesson...

a) What is the topic of your next lesson? – What communicative approach is best suited for the topic?

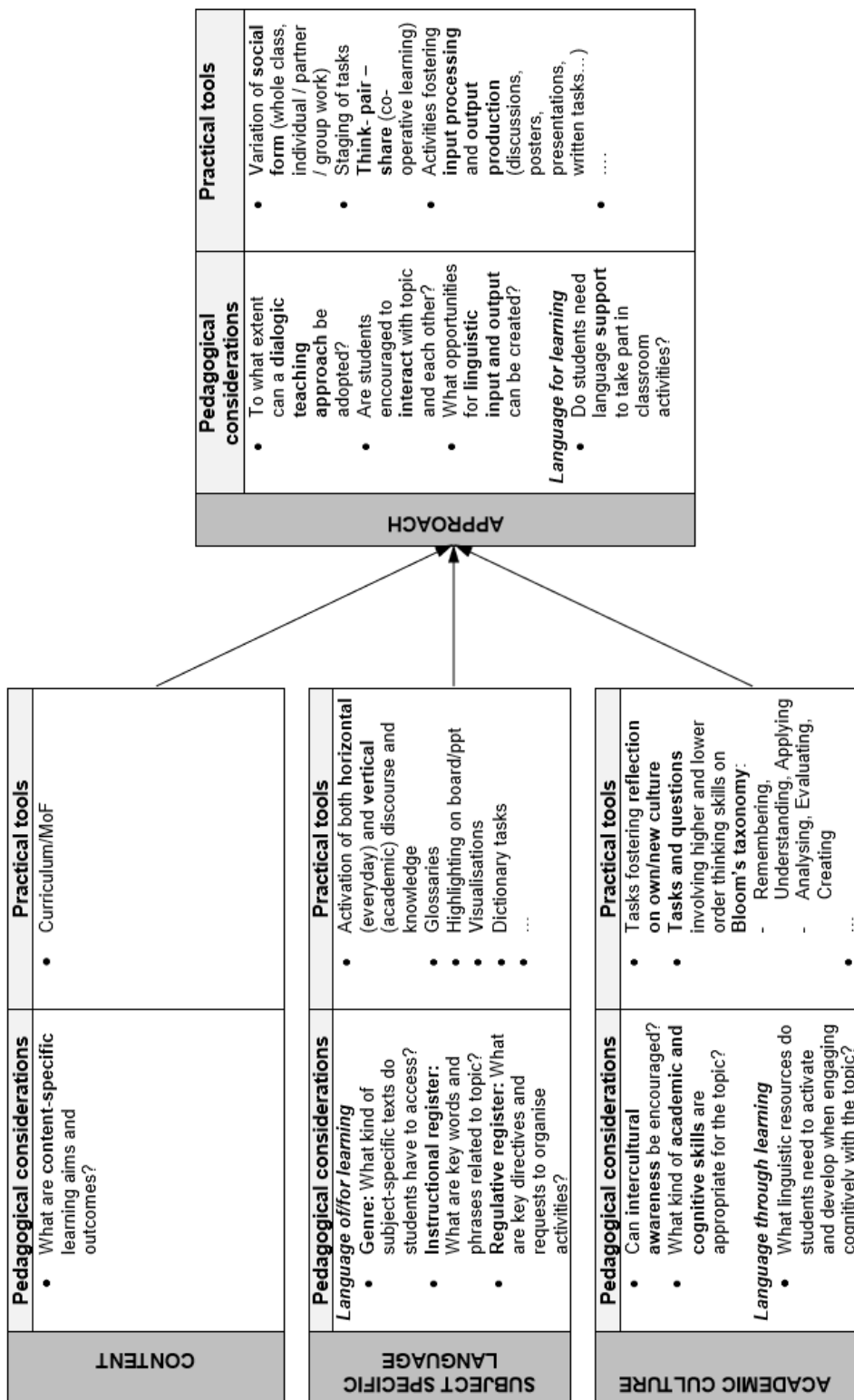b) Are there ways how you could set up the task in a way that encourages interaction and dialogue?

c) Do the students have the linguistic resources needed for the task or would you have to provide some support (Language FOR learning)?

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F.2. CLIL-RP Toolkit

CLIL Lesson Planning Tool

	Pedagogical considerations	Practical tools
CONTENT	• What are content-specific learning aims and outcomes?	• Curriculum/MoF

	Pedagogical considerations	Practical tools
SUBJECT SPECIFIC LANGUAGE	*Language of/for learning* • Genre: What kind of subject-specific texts do students have to access? **Instructional register:** What are key words and phrases related to topic? • Regulative register: What are key directives and requests to organise activities?	• Activation of both horizontal (everyday) and vertical (academic) discourse and knowledge • Glossaries • Highlighting on board/ppt • Visualisations • Dictionary tasks • …

	Pedagogical considerations	Practical tools

ACADEMIC CULTURE	• Can intercultural awareness be encouraged?
	• What kind of academic and cognitive skills are appropriate for the topic?
	
	Language through learning
	• What linguistic resources do students need to activate and develop when engaging cognitively with the topic?
		• Tasks fostering reflection on own/new culture
		• Tasks and questions involving higher and lower order thinking skills on **Bloom's taxonomy:**
		  - Remembering, Understanding, Applying
		  - Analysing, Evaluating, Creating
		• …

	Pedagogical considerations	Practical tools
APPROACH	• To what extent can a dialogic teaching approach be adopted? • Are students encouraged to interact with topic and each other? • What opportunities for linguistic input and output can be created? *Language for learning* • Do students need language support to take part in classroom activities?	• Variation of social form (whole class, individual / partner / group work) • Staging of tasks • **Think- pair – share** (co-operative learning) • Activities fostering **input processing and output production** (discussions, posters, presentations, written tasks…) • …

CLIL Classroom Interaction Tool

	Pedagogical goal	Interactional features	Description

FOCUS on FORM: Input enhancement	• To raise students' **linguistic awareness**
	• To develop vocabulary and grammar
	• To **draw attention to appropriate or problematic language** forms to express content, e.g.
	  - technical terms
	  - grammatical features
	  - expressions of logical relationships such as linking words
		• Emphasising
		• Explanation of meaning
		• Explanation of rules
		• Typographical input enhancement
			• Emphasising = Highlighting linguistic items explicitly or through stressed intonation
			
			• Typographical input enhancement = to make input visible to learners, e.g. by writing it on the board
			
			• Recasts = reformulation of the learner's utterance minus the error but without explicit indication that the utterance was incorrect
			
			• Explicit correction = provision of correct form and clear indication that utterance was incorrect
			
			• Clarification request = indicating that message has not been heard or understood and that a repetition/reformulation is needed

FOCUS on FORM: Corrective feedback	• To raise students' **linguistic awareness**
	• To encourage students to produce **correct language forms**
		• Recasts
		• Explicit correction
		• Prompting self-repair:
		  - Clarification request
		  - Repetition of error
		  - Elicitation
		  - Meta-linguistic feedback
			• Repetition of error = error is repeated with rising intonation to highlight the error
			
			• Elicitation = asking a direct question how a utterance can be improved or pausing to allow students to fill the gap
			
			• Meta-linguistic feedback = providing comments or questions related to the incorrect form without giving the correct answer
			
			• Display question = a question the teacher knows the answer to
			
			• Referential question = answer is unknown to teacher
			
			• Extended wait time = allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond

FOCUS on MEANING CONSTRUCTION	• To encourage students to engage **cognitively and linguistically** in construction of shared content knowledge
	• To encourage participation and **extended language production**
		• Variation of display and referential questions
		• Extended wait time
		• Clarification requests
		• Elaboration request e.g. for
		  - Justification
		  - Exemplification
		  - Explanation
		• Confirmation checks
		• Reformulations
		• Extensions
		• Facilitation of peer feedback
			• Elaboration request = asking the learner to provide more information
			
			• Confirmation check = check that student or teacher utterance has been understood
			
			• Reformulations = rephrasing a learner's contribution not as a means of error correction (→ recast) but to feed in alternative, more appropriate language
			
			• Extensions = to extend a student utterance e.g. by feeding in a missing word or phrase
			
			• Facilitation of peer feedback = asking peers to comment on student utterance

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Appendix G. Example of coding (Extract)

WS 3: CGEA – 31.10-36.36

1		**(Sandra leads over: Are participants' lessons overall**	
2		**interactive / dialogic etc.?)**	
3	Andrew	Mine is fairly interactive, I'd say particularly the section	
4		you've got here	
5	Sandra	**(Sandra asks Gareth about lights)**	
6		Sorry, so you'd say it is interactive and would you say it	
7		is dialogic or authoritative?	
8	Andrew	Well, they are looking at the marking criteria so they are	GROUP
9		not bringing in their own ideas, they are discussing what	WORK/STUD.
10		we are looking for in their work, so I guess in that sense	ACTIVITY:
11		it is more authoritative, isn't it, as they are trying to	Students are
12		identify the answers that we want.	"explaining to
13	Sandra	Elaine, how do you feel about yours?=	themselves"
14	Elaine	=Exactly the same. It is in the group session interactive	and using
15		within the little groups and authoritative as we are	academic VB
16		using, trying to explain to themselves, but using the	
17		academic	
18	Colin	Yeah, I am mean there's I use quite a lot of ah, I mean it	QUESTIONS
19		is not interactive to start with but then goes into a series	"Specific Qs"
20		of questions but they are all authoritative in the sense	lead to short
21		that I am asking a specific question and expecting a	reply – "fill in
22		relatively short reply, you know, fill in the blanks kind of	the blanks"
23		answer effectively, which is all about the authoritative	
24		viewpoint rather than dialogue	
25	Sandra	Gareth how about you?	
26	Gareth	The attempt was to go into interactive, dialogic ahem by	
27		setting up the seminar that way that I did, the first thing	
28		they saw was a photograph of a range of cosmetics and I	
29		left it up for a few seconds and let them wonder what	
30		this is all about. Ahem. And there were simple questions	
31		that started to get answers. Nestle what do they do?	
32		Coffee. Why are they buying a cosmetics company, it is a	
33		bit strange ahem, although there were no questions	
34		until later on that really allowed some discussion ahem,	
35		but some aspects of economics are so, so difficult to	
36		allow, not to allow (4) yeah students don't have the time	
37		to sit in groups discussing things **(laughs)** this discussion	
38		we have had in economics has gone on for two or three	TIME
39		years. I think we try and teach them too much in	
40		economics. Meaning I don't think they need to know	CURRICULUM
41		everything about microeconomics and macroeconomics.	
42		If we discarded one of those and at least have, like you	
43		have in Social and Cultural Studies, some fundamental 5	
44		main concepts throughout the two semesters with	

45		economics we probably try and cover one every single
46		week and big concepts =
47	Colin	=Yeah=
48	Gareth	At that so we don't help ourselves by making the
49		curriculum so packed
50	Andrew	Yeah, and use twice the time for half the material ((2))
51	Gareth	Yeah, it is one or the other and it has to be obviously
52		less material
53	Sandra	So, you are actually quite restricted in how you teach it?
54	Colin	But also, I mean, it does have, whether we like it or not,
55		the reward that they are going to get in the assessment,
56		we're going to prioritise their use of the appropriate
57		concepts and applying them with explanations.
58	Sandra	But isn't, isn't this the point, to come back to this, isn't
59		this the point, you know, in their exams, we are asking
60		them to apply and to use and to explain, but if we, in a
61		classroom situation, if all we are asking for is a very
62		short question that gives a one-word answer and at
63		which point, do they get a chance to explain?
64	Elaine	But they would never do that, they would never do that.
65		You never teach like that, you teach using a range of
66		activities some of which might be presentations in which
67		they have to explain and in order to explain they have to
68		have understood what it is about, so you'd never just
69		use question and answer. It is one technique, but you
70		would not just use question and answer
71	Colin	No, you would use, what happened before I did this I
72		was I asked them to draw a graph and to talk to each
73		other how they use a graph and how did it look and it
74		was a bit where they were demonstrating a range of
75		concepts and they had already done some work by
76		themselves or in pairs and looking at producing an
77		output before I went on and developed the concept
78		further, so they had, there were some, but I personally
79		agree that looking at it, you know, it could be more
80		effectively delivered in terms of=
81	Elaine	= Is it not a problem with, the cultural expectations,
82		because in a way we have to mirror the first year
83		because they will get into the second year once they get
84		through the exams and and and in the seminars they
85		have got to do lots and lots of presentations and I find
86		with some of these students the cultural expectation is
87		that the teacher does the teaching and they make notes
88		and it makes it it a very challenging thing to get them to
89		stand up and do a presentation or to do some sort of
90		presentation within a group or whatever and it is quite
91		challenging but if they don't learn that they will never
92		survive in year two.

Margin notes:

TECHNICAL TERMS/LANG.: students need to use and explain concepts

Sandra: deliberate challenge – good (or too much?!)

GROUP WORK/STUD. ACTIVITY VS. QUESTIONS

TEACHER-LED APPROACH Does Colin begin to question his teacher-led delivery?

ADAPTATION TO ACADEMIC CULTURE

Appendix H. Example response sheet from the evaluation survey

#3   **COMPLETE**
Collector: Email Invitation 1 (Email)
Started: Thursday, August 07, 2014 12:43:05 AM
Last Modified: Thursday, August 07, 2014 12:53:40 AM
Time Spent: 00:10:35

PAGE 2: Evaluation of the CLIL workshops and reflective practice activities

Q1: Altogether we covered four topics in the group workshops. Please rank the workshops in terms of their usefulness for your teaching practice. 1 = most useful; 4 = least useful

WORKSHOP 1: Focus on SUBJECT-SPECIFIC LANGUAGE (genre; register; horizontal / vertical discourse)	1
WORKSHOP 2: Focus on DIALOGIC TEACHING approach (cognitive engagement and language practice)	2
WORKSHOP 3: Adaptation to ACADEMIC CULTURE (intercultural awareness; new ways of thinking and learning; Bloom's taxonomy)	3
WORKSHOP 4: Classroom INTERACTION (input enhancement; corrective feedback; fostering meaning construction through interactional competence)	4

Q2: Were there any topics that we did not cover but which you feel should have been discussed?	No

Q3: Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements

Analysing my lesson TRANSCRIPTS was a useful tool for reflection.	strongly agree
Analysing my lesson RECORDINGS was a useful tool for reflection.	strongly agree
Sharing the classroom data with other participants was a useful way to encourage reflection.	neither agree nor disagree

Q4: How could the workshops and reflective practice activities be improved?	*Respondent skipped this question*

PAGE 3: Evaluation of the workshop leadership

Q5: Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

The workshops were well prepared.	strongly agree
The workshop leader explained ideas clearly.	strongly agree
The workshop leader allowed enough time for discussion.	strongly agree
The workshop leader encouraged reflection.	strongly agree
The workshop leader managed to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect.	strongly agree
The workshop leader provided adequate feedback on the transcripts / recordings.	strongly agree

Q6: How could the workshop leadership be improved? *Respondent skipped this question*

PAGE 4: Evaluation of the CLIL toolkit

Q7: Could you please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

The CLIL toolkit is useful to PLAN lessons.	agree
The CLIL toolkit is useful to REFLECT on classroom interaction.	strongly agree

Q8: Have you used the CLIL toolkit beyond the CLIL workshops and meetings?

Yes,

If yes, could you please briefly indicate how you have used it? If no, could you please briefly comment why not?
I have used it in the preparation of class activities to underpin learning. It is very useful for both planning and reflection

Q9: How could the CLIL toolkit be improved? *Respondent skipped this question*

PAGE 5: Overall evaluation of the CLIL project

Q10: Overall, do you feel that the CLIL project has had an impact on your teaching practice?

Yes,

If yes, could you please provide ONE example to illustrate how you feel your practice has changed as a result of the CLIL project? If no, why do you think that is?
It has made me consider dialogic preparation much more carefully. Although I am obviously aware I am teaching international students it has brought that aspect of the job much more into focus and emphasised the difficulties that these students have. I empathise much more with their difficulties.

Q11: Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

I would recommend the CLIL workshops and reflective practice activities to new pathway teachers (e.g. as part of their induction). — strongly agree

I would recommend the CLIL workshops and reflective practice activities to current pathway teachers (e.g. as part of continuous professional development). — agree

Q12: If more CLIL training was implemented in the future, there should be more / less / equal focus on the following topics...

Theoretical input on CLIL — more focus

Analyses of lesson transcripts — more focus

Analyses of lesson recordings — more focus

Sharing of transcripts and recordings with colleagues — equal focus

Feedback on transcripts and recordings from the workshop leader — more focus

Q13: How coud the organisational format be improved (e.g. length of workshops, implementation over a certain amount of weeks / months, specific training days...)?

Perhaps a longer implementation - over the course of 2 semesters with the same students each time to measure improvements. A longitudinal study

Q14: If you would like to leave further comments on the CLIL project or its potential implementation in the future, please use this box: — *Respondent skipped this question*

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