Nagore Ipiña Larrañaga /
Ainara Imaz Agirre /
Begoña Pedrosa Lobato /
Eneritz Garro Larrañaga
(eds.)

Teachers' Perspectives, Practices and Challenges in Multilingual Education

Studies in Honor of Pilar Sagasta

PETER LANG

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The aim of this book is to address teachers' perspectives, practices and challenges in multilingual education. The book that brings together perspectives and practices in multilingual contexts could be of great interest for researchers, practitioners and stakeholders because it also provides ideas for pedagogical practice and new language policies. It covers key concepts such as emotional aspects of multilingualism, innovation in language teaching and teacher training and challenges in (foreign) language teaching.

The Editors

Nagore Ipiña Larrañaga holds a PhD in educational sciences and she is a lecturer and researcher at Mondragon University.

Ainara Imaz Agirre holds PhD in language acquisition in multilingual settings and she is a lecturer and researcher at Mondragon University.

Begoña Pedrosa Lobato holds PhD in language acquisition in multilingual settings and she is a lecturer and researcher at Mondragon University.

Eneritz Garro Larrañaga holds a PhD in Basque studies and linguistics and she is a lecturer and researcher at Mondragon University.

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List of Contributors

Agurtzane Bikuña
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Ainara Imaz Agirre
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Amaia Lersundi
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Anna Vallbona
Universitat de Vic-Universitat Central
de Catalunya

Begoña Pedrosa
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Carme Flores
Facultat de Psicologia, Ciències de
l'Educació i de l'Esport Blanquerna,
Universitat Ramon Llull

Do Coyle
University of Edinburgh

Durk Gorter
University of the Basque Country,
UPV/EHU-Ikerbasque, Basque
Foundation for Science

Eneritz Garro
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Itziar Iriondo
University of the Basque Country,
UPV/EHU

Itziar Plazaola
University of the Basque Country,
UPV/EHU

Jasone Cenoz
University of the Basque Country,
UPV/EHU

Karmele Perez-Lizarralde
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Llorenç Comajoan
Universitat de Vic-Universitat Central
de Catalunya

Mariona Casas
Universitat de Vic-Universitat Central
de Catalunya

Nagore Ipiña
Mondragon Unibertsitatea

Núria Medina
Universitat de Vic-Universitat Central
de Catalunya

Ralf Schlöffel
State Office for School and Education
in Saxony, Germany

Teresa Zulaika
University of the Basque Country,
UPV/EHU

Thomas Wendeborn
Leipzig University

Introduction

The collection of chapters in this book is not accidental. The chapters presented in this Festschrift in Honor of Pilar Sagasta are a result of a long collaboration among researchers and different institutions. Therefore, it is not unexpected that this intense collaboration and exchange of discussions and experiences have encouraged us to embark on a special project about multilingual education. In fact, a major concern in preparing this volume has been the desire to reflect Pilar Sagasta's dedication to the development of multilingual education.

Pilar Sagasta labored under the illusion of posing new questions and giving meaningful answers to everyday worries. In that line, she has continuously carried out studies comprising key aspects on multilingual education and has recognised the importance of academia as well as practitioners and students on her work. In finding the balance between theory and practice, Pilar Sagasta's approach to multilingual education has always been holistic and has considered developmental aspects, emotional variables, curricular perspectives, methodological approaches and sociocultural contexts in both pre-service and in-service Teacher Education. Therefore, it is not an easy task for us to show some instances of her committed work in this introductory section.

We have learnt about a different way to approach multilingual education with Pilar Sagasta. As shown in the first paragraphs, one of her main insistences has always been to involve the educational community and to respect all the voices. Moreover, the culture of each educational institution, the responsibility towards each sociocultural context, and the importance of interactional patterns among all actors were some of her guiding principles. She has attempted to highlight and foster discussion of multilingual issues by recognising that multilingual education comprises a heterogeneous community of professionals, teachers, researchers and learners.

Sagasta, in a career that spans more than forty years, may be said to be an embodiment of multilingual education in our context. In this spirit, what you will find here is a gathering of voices that evoke the work, principles and relationships that comprise a portrait of Pilar Sagasta's studies. Sagasta started her path by framing the complexity of additive bilingualism in third language acquisition and emphasising the importance of students' linguistic repertoire in contexts where a minority language is the main language of instruction at schools. Her first works derived into a constant effort on adapting and updating pre-service teachers' curriculum. In doing so, Sagasta conducted rigorous studies to analyse

critically the impact of the multilingual curriculum fostered in our teacher education degrees from different perspectives.

In that vein, she has published a big bunch of articles on the process of reengineering language education at tertiary level with the aim of sharing the lights and shadows with the educational community. In that context, Sagasta has analysed the impact of the multilingual curriculum on students' language-competence development, and has deepened into contextual and emotional aspects. Hence, she has analysed student teachers' attitudes towards the languages in the curriculum (Basque, Spanish and English) and emphasised the idea that attitudes are not developed in an isolated way in settings where languages are in contact and they are all used in the curriculum. Sagasta has claimed for a holistic approach in contexts in which students are exposed to several languages and multilingualism is the aim. Her work has therefore explicitly shown evidence of the connection and dynamic nature of languages, and along this line, Sagasta has worked on the idea that teachers should promote and bring into the classroom practice new insights regarding the attitudinal linguistic landscape present in each of their students and work on them from a holistic perspective.

Sagasta has always identified the challenges in multilingual education and been in line with the research agenda proposed in international discussions. Her latest work is an example of it as it focuses on spontaneous translanguaging practices enacted by emergent trilinguals. As regards language education approaches, Sagasta has investigated the impact of Content and Language Integrated Learning in multilingual contexts, provided tools to better understand the nature of integration and contributed to the discussion going on in the academic arena. Likewise, she has fostered and adopted a learner-centred approach in tertiary education and examined the opportunities to develop Pluriliteracies Teaching for Learning approach in our context.

Sagasta's honest and brave research perspective could also be observed in the studies carried out intertwining digital literacy and multilingual education or the analysis of tools such as video playback to promote teacher learning and analyse patterns of reflection. Sagasta believes that reflective practice paves the way to the professionalization of teaching because it helps future teachers learn from experience and build professional knowledge. Her studies on the area confirm that reflective practice could elicit high levels of reflection but suggest that the process of reflection should be scaffolded. Thus, student teachers' reflection was her worry. In fact, she has also examined the role of the facilitator or the teacher educator in promoting deeper thinking concluding that a culture of inquiry should be promoted to foster deeper reflection. Following the same idea and in line with her commitment with the community, Sagasta has analysed the

impact of Professional Learning Communities on language educators' professional development. Sagasta has provided accounts on how teacher educators can grow together and asserted that promoting a collaborative inquiry among teacher educators is needed at all educational levels.

As shown in this short review, Sagasta's aim has always been to better fine tune multilingual education in our context and to contribute to the international agenda from the perspective of educational practice, institutional curricula and pre-service and in-service students' engagement. Nevertheless, Sagasta is still critical with the development of the research studies on multilingual education. Conscious that studies on multilingual education have expanded exponentially from many points of view (theoretical scope, descriptive perspective and methodological aspects among others), Sagasta posits that more research is still needed to deeper understanding of how languages are learned when the context is uncertain, diverse and global.

The aim of this edited volume is therefore to gain some new insights and address pre-service and in-service teachers' practices, perspectives and challenges in multilingual education. Thus, this is a volume that provides ideas for pedagogical practice and new language policies for researchers, practitioners and stakeholders, i.e. educational community. In line with Sagasta's contributions, each chapter presents conceptions in multilingual education which pose new questions and provide new evidence to reflect on new challenges in multilingual pedagogies. The issues covered present new data in different contexts: perception on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) practices in pre-service teaching education contexts, secondary school professionals' views on multilingual education, holistic approaches towards multilingualism in teacher education and reflective practice techniques in pre-service teacher education.

Chapter 1 focuses on *pedagogical translanguaging* and examines *multilingual speakers' perceptions of multilingualism*. Cenoz and Gorter emphasise the importance of integrating languages in the curriculum and promoting coordination among teachers to take advantage of multilingual learners' linguistic resources in their learning processes. It also examines *multilingual speakers' perceptions* on issues such as the advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism.

In Chapter 2 Garro, Perez-Lizarralde and Lersundi present *perceptions of secondary school teachers about language teaching approaches* in a multilingual context. The aim of the study is to analyse teachers' previous experiences, attitudes and perceptions. Researchers carried out five group interviews with 15 teachers, both language teachers and non-linguistic subject teachers, and proposed future challenges as regards language education.

In Chapter 3, Schlöffel and Wendeborn present a work contextualised in Germany. Their work explains a two-year project that aims at providing physical education teachers *methodological and reflective competencies* to teach through a second language. Results presented from this study show that teachers are concerned about the development of methodological and reflective competencies when *teaching in a second language*.

Chapter 4 presents a research study carried with pre-service teachers throughout their *teaching practice* period. Iriondo, Plazaola and Zulaika present a study where learners' awareness on their language instruction teaching performance is promoted by means of *self-confrontation* and peer confrontations sessions. Throughout the action research process, *highly complex phenomena* are identified. The study also draws evidence of the need for collaboration agreements between *schools and universities*.

Flores's study in Chapter 5 shows the process followed to design the *Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (ECTP) for pre-service Teacher Education* and some of the results obtained as a consequence of using the ECTP tool. This study contributes to the multilingual ethos by dealing in depth with content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Higher Education and by emphasising the importance of Teacher Education.

Chapter 6 presents three teaching and research experiences in the Catalan context implemented in University of Vic. Casas, Comajoan, Medina and Vallbona present a discussion on the changes in the education system as far as language teaching is concerned, and illustrate the *challenges* faced by faculties of education that *train future teachers*. The aim of such practices is to improve teacher performance in all levels of education.

Ipiña and Pedrosa's study in Chapter 7 analyses how teaching education students perceive multilingual practices based on factors and variables developed by van Lier's (2004) *ecological perspective*. Focus groups with student teachers and semi-structured interviews with teacher educators were carried out and the results show that the practices conducted are perceived as meaningful by the participants as a way to foster multilingualism.

Imaz Agirre and Bikuña in Chapter 8 aimed at examining the challenges 40 *pre-service and in-service* EFL teachers encounter. Teachers in the semi-structured interviews identify further insights in terms of *teacher training*, *methodological* issues in foreign language teaching and multilingualism and the *use of the foreign language*.

The volume is closed with Coyle's concluding remarks. This chapter summarises the *challenges faced in multilingual education* over the time from an international perspective. The author pays special attention to subject literacy

development and language learning development to foster multilingual education. The chapter provides deep insight into research studies carried out in different contexts as well as a reflection on key issues. Consequently, *a new research agenda is presented in this chapter*.

Jasone Cenoz and Durk Gorter

Chapter 1   Navigating between Languages: Multilingual Speakers' Perceptions

Abstract: Nowadays multilingualism is an aim in education in the Basque Country and in other parts of the world. This chapter looks at the differences between monolingual and multilingual speakers and highlights the importance of using a multilingual lens such as "Focus on Multilingualism" when conducting research and teaching. The chapter also examines multilingual speakers' perceptions on issues such as the advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism, multilingual language practices, multiple language acquisition, and emotional aspects of multilingualism. The last section of the chapter will discuss the implications of multilingual perceptions on language teaching and teacher education.

Keywords: multilingualism, multilingual education, minority languages, language teaching

1. Introduction

Multilingual education can be defined as "the use of two or more languages in education provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015: 2). This definition implies that one of the goals of education is to achieve multilingual competence. In this sense, education cannot be considered multilingual just because students have different home languages if competencies in different languages are not considered a goal in education. Teaching languages has always been challenging but nowadays the challenges have increased for different reasons related to the profile of students and the curriculum. In the past, schools used to be linguistically quite homogeneous but nowadays there is a lot more linguistic diversity. Nowadays, the mobility of the population is reflected in the fact that in many European countries, students speak different home languages and some students have recently arrived. There are also challenges in the curriculum and one of them is related to the increasing role of English as the main language of international communication. Today, English is more important in the curriculum than English or other foreign languages in the past. English was introduced earlier, and it was often used as an additional language of instruction; in many cases, a specific level of English was required in higher education. The use of English or other second and foreign languages as languages of instruction in immersion and CLIL programs can

also be challenging. In some areas, such as the Basque Autonomous Community, English is a third language after Basque and Spanish and in some cases even students also have a fourth language, French, in secondary school (Gorter et al., 2014). Students can have different home languages (Basque, Spanish, Romanian, Berber, Russian, etc.) and most of them have Basque as the main language of instruction even if Basque is only the home language for some students. There are Spanish and English classes and Spanish and English can be languages of instruction as well. French is usually taught as an optional subject. Multilingual education can take many shapes, and schools that aim at multilingualism can be found in different parts of the world and involve different types of languages, different pedagogies, and sociolinguistic contexts. However, it can be said that factors such as globalization, the mobility of the population or the protection of minority languages have added complexity to the teaching and organization of multilingual education. This complexity demands new competences from teachers but also new approaches that can deal with the diversity of students and the increasing role of languages in the school curriculum.

In this chapter, we propose a holistic approach to language teaching that tries to deal with the challenges multilingual education faces nowadays and implies softening the boundaries between languages. In the next section, we place our model within new trends in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. Then we look at the language learner as a multilingual speaker who is different from a monolingual speaker and we discuss the way multilingualism is perceived and how multilingual speakers navigate between languages. The last section of this chapter looks at pedagogical implications.

2. Focus on Multilingualism

"Focus on Multilingualism" is an approach for teaching and research in multi-lingual education that relates the way multilingual speakers use their communi-cative resources in spontaneous conversation to the way languages are learned and taught at school. "Focus on Multilingualism" considers that boundaries between the languages in the curriculum should be flexible and not rigid as it has traditionally been the case (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014). This model has three dimensions: (i) the multilingual speaker; (ii) the whole linguistic repertoire; and (iii) the social context. Figure 1 represents these dimensions by placing the speaker and his/her repertoire in a circle inside the social context.

Traditionally teaching second or foreign languages has implied teaching one language at the time. The idea has been to isolate the target language from the influence of other languages. For example, some schools have tried to have a
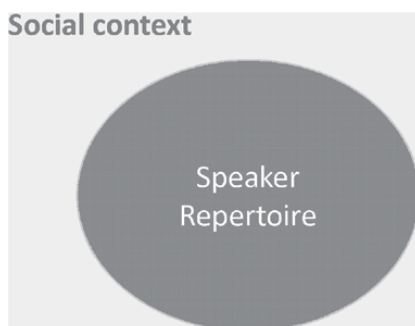
Figure 1. Focus on multilingualism.

designated classroom to teach only English, and this classroom has only English on posters and charts on the walls. In some cases, even multilingual teachers pretend they only speak the target language and many teachers are ashamed of using the L1 when teaching a second or foreign language.

"Focus on Multilingualism" goes in another direction. It aims at establishing bridges that can link languages and stimulate the activation of students' multilingual resources. The idea is to consider the learner as a multilingual speaker or emergent multilingual speaker who can use resources in his/her repertoire taking into account the characteristics of the social context. "Focus on Multilingualism" implies the coordination of teachers of different languages and also the coordination between language and content teachers. There can be many possibilities of coordination as we can see in Examples 1 and 2.

Example 1. *Coordination between three language teachers*: **Writing a description in the 5th year of primary.**

Main language of instruction is Basque. Students' home language: Basque, Spanish, both or other.

Basque class: Miren, the Basque language teacher, explains how to write a description of a person in Basque. She explains the different elements that need to be included and the way these elements should be organized. Students write a description of one of their classmates.

Spanish class: Eli, the Spanish language teacher, shows a picture of a popular singer students know. Then students write the description in Spanish following what they have learned about the content and structure of descriptions in the Basque language class. The description of the popular singer in Spanish must have the same structure as the description of the classmate in Basque.

> English class: Jon, the English teacher, asks students to look at one of the pictures in their textbook and to describe somebody following what they have learned in the Basque class and practiced in the Basque and Spanish class. The description in English will be quite simple because the students' level is not as high as in Basque and Spanish.

This is an example of coordination between three language teachers. The idea is that students follow a single model for descriptions in the three languages. The three languages reinforce each other when students write a description in each of the three languages and that they are not given different instructions at different times in each of the language classes.

Example 2. *The three languages in the science class*: **Learning vocabulary**

> Language of instruction in the Science class: English. Main language of instruction at school: Basque. Students' home language: Basque, Spanish, both, or other.
> Asier is teaching science in English. He asks students to read a text about planets. Then students have to identify cognates by linking English words to Basque and/or Spanish words that have the same root. As it is a text on science, there are many cognates even in Basque that is a non-Indo-European language. Some of the cognates are "planet" ("planeta" in Basque and Spanish), "orbit" ("orbita" in Basque and Spanish), and "circular" ("zirkularra" in Basque and "circular" in Spanish).

In this example, students use resources from their linguistic repertoire so as to relate cognates in the three languages. The boundaries between languages are soft, and students are encouraged to use their knowledge of the three languages.

"Focus on Multilingualism" uses teaching strategies that go across languages and aims and building and reinforcing links so that students benefit from the use or their own resources in their linguistic repertoires (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). These strategies can be labeled as pedagogical translanguaging because they have been designed by teachers to enhance language or language and content learning. Pedagogical translanguaging can be distinguished from spontaneous translanguaging and has its origin in bilingual education in Wales. According to Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012) "the term defined 'trawsieithu' (translanguaging) was initially coined to name a pedagogical practice which deliberately switches the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms." Pedagogical translanguaging as considered by Cenoz and Gorter (2019) includes the original use of translanguaging in Wales but goes beyond the alternation of input and output. It refers to explicit instruction and practice in the use of other strategies that promote the flexible use of student's resources in their linguistic repertoire to support the development of multilingual competence. Translanguaging is also used to refer to spontaneous language practices that can take place in

the classroom or outside the classroom. In this sense translanguaging has been defined by García and Sylvan (2011: 389) as "the process by which bilingual students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices in order to 'make sense' of, and communicate in, multilingual classrooms." Translanguaging has a social justice perspective and advocates for the acceptance of immigrant students' home language discursive practices at school.

Both "Focus on Multilingualism" and translanguaging go against ideologies of language separation in the classroom and isolation of the target language. They share this perspective with other approaches that argue for flexible bilingualism, translingual practices, and the use of L1 resources in the classroom (Cummins, 2007; Creese & Blackledge 2010; Lin, 2015; Canagarajah 2013). These approaches go against traditional views of language separation and look at the way multilingual speakers use languages. In the next section, the characteristics of the multilingual speaker will be discussed in more detail.

3. The Multilingual Speaker

The concept of communicative competence is often considered as the aim of language teaching, and it implies that learners do not only need to know the grammar, phonology, or lexis of a language but also need to use the language in an appropriate way. Communicative competence has different dimensions including linguistic, sociolinguistic (or sociocultural), pragmatic (or actional), discourse, and strategic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1995; Cenoz, 1996). The European Common Framework considers *linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competence,* and *pragmatic competence* and also includes discourse as part of pragmatic competence and strategic competence as related to task performance (Council of Europe, 2001).

In order to be a competent communicator, speakers need to use all the dimensions of communicative competence, but if we consider that multilingual education can involve several languages, it is also important to consider which goals should be set for each of the languages or for all the languages in the curriculum (Sagasta, 2003a; Gorter, 2015).

The communicative skills of multilingual speakers have traditionally been compared to those of native speakers of each of the languages. Language learning has been seen as an endless road or an incomplete journey. Even multilingual speakers such as Rosemary Wildsmith (2009: 110) share this view: "So I continue on my linguistic journeys, realizing that they can never be complete. The challenge to try and complete them, however, will always be there." Language

learning can certainly be seen as an incomplete journey because we go on learning languages all our life but the problem is that very often native speaker competence has been associated with perfect, ideal competence in the target language.

However, it is important to take into account that "all knowledge of a language is partial, however much of a 'mother tongue' or 'native language' it seems to be. It is always incomplete, never as developed or perfect in an ordinary individual as it would be for the utopian, 'ideal native speaker'" (Council of Europe, 2001:169). In fact, monolingual native speakers use their language in a social context and may use non-standard forms that are useful for them in everyday communication even if they are different from those in standard grammars and textbooks.

The idea of being perfect or almost perfect as a native speaker is so rooted among professionals in language education that it can be astonishing when this competence is challenged. Radmira Popovic (2009) reports an interesting reflection on this issue. She was born and raised in former Yugoslavia and had Serbo-Croatian (which also included Bosnian) as her mother tongue. As a result of political events nowadays, three languages are distinguished: Serbian, Croatian, and Bosnian. After living for some time in the United States, she was told that she did not qualify for a job because she was not a native speaker of Bosnian. Apart from political and social issues related to the way languages have developed in former Yugoslavia, what it is really interesting is Popovic's (2009: 40) reflection about native speaker competence and perfection: "Now my native speaker competency was challenged, and I was designated "imperfect," with regard to my own mother tongue. It seems that I am fated to always approach perfection, but the ultimate prize is elusive."

The idea of rejecting non-native speakers can also be seen in some job offers for native speakers of English. Llurda (2014) explains how non-native English teachers often suffer from low-esteem because they see themselves as inferior when compared to native teachers. The reference to the ideal monolingual speaker implies that in some teaching contexts being monolingual in the target language is considered as more desirable than being multilingual. An example of this ideology is reflected in the following quote by a young teacher in one of our courses, who did not agree with the recommendation to pretend he was monolingual: "I was told by my tutor to tell young pupils that I was the English teacher and couldn't understand any Basque or Spanish. Her intention was not bad but I told her that that was a lie; it was not real and asked her why I should hide the fact that I am multilingual. I am actually very proud of it and I thought children should know that the goal was to be multilingual."

Monolingual ideologies about the superiority of native speakers have been contested. Multilingual ideologies consider that multilingual speakers are not the sum of several monolingual speakers because they have a different type of competence that cannot be compared to that of monolinguals. As Canagarajah (2007) says, the type of competence speakers of English as a Lingua Franca have cannot be separated from their multilingual experience. In fact, learners in a globalized world have rich and dynamic trajectories and these experiences influence their learning process at school (Cenoz & Gorter, 2019). Multilinguals can be regarded as skilled communicators because they can communicate in different languages (Block 2007; Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011). Already some years ago, Cook (1992) used the concept of "multicompetence" to refer to the complex type of competence, which is qualitatively different from the competence of monolingual speakers (see also Cook & Li, 2016). The important point here is not that non-native speakers find native speaker competence as unreachable but that they have a different type of competence because they are multilingual speakers. Hall (2016, 2019) prefers the term "repertoire" to competence or multicompetence to refer to the totality of an individual's language knowledge because it "captures the variable mix of heterogeneous, multilingual, and multimodal constructions that L2 learners draw on and develop in their diverse public, material, and digital contexts of use" (Hall, 2019: 87).

Another interesting development related to the repertoire is the concept of "building on plurilingual repertoire" included in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) companion volume (Council of Europe, 2018). This is related to the idea already included in the CEFR that speakers do not keep languages and cultures "in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (Council of Europe 2001: 4). Plurilingual and pluricultural competence has three dimensions: building on pluricultural repertoire, plurilingual comprehension, and plurilingual repertoire (Council of Europe, 2018). The last two dimensions are closely related to "Focus on Multilingualism" and pedagogical translanguaging. Tables 1 and 2 show some of the descriptors for these two dimensions.

These descriptors are some examples that confirm the importance of new trends that soften the boundaries between languages so that multilingual speakers use their resources. The fact that these trends are included in the CEFR could strengthen their use in language teaching in different countries. It is still early to know if the specific descriptors really reflect the different scales, and how they are related to the other aspects of communicative competence. Another

Table 1. Examples of Descriptor for "Plurilingual Comprehension" (Council of Europe 2018: 160)

A1	Can recognise internationalisms and words common to *different languages* (e.g. Haus/hus/house) to: - deduce the meaning of simple signs and notices; - identify the probable message of a short, simple, written text; - follow in outline short, simple social exchanges conducted very slowly and clearly in his/her presence; - deduce what people are trying to say directly to him/her, provided they speak very slowly and clearly, with repetition if necessary.
A2	Can understand short, clearly written messages and instructions by piecing together what he/she understands from the versions in *different languages*.
B1	Can use what he/she has understood in *one language* to understand the topic and main message of a text in *another language* (e.g. when reading short newspaper articles on the same theme written in different languages).
B2	Can use his/her knowledge of contrasting genre conventions and textual pattern in *languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire* in order to support comprehension
C1	No descriptors provided
C2	No descriptors provided

Table 2. Examples of Descriptors for "Building on Plurilingual Repertoire" (Council of Europe 2018: 162)

A1	Can use a very limited repertoire in *different languages* to conduct a very basic, concrete, everyday transaction with a collaborative interlocutor
A2	Can use words and phrases from *different languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire* to conduct a simple, practical transaction or information exchange.
B1	Can exploit creatively his limited repertoire in *different languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire* for everyday contexts, in order to cope with an unexpected situation.
B2	Can make use of *different languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire* during collaborative interaction, in order to clarify the nature of a task, the main steps, the decisions to be taken, the outcomes expected.
C1	Can respond spontaneously and flexibly in the appropriate language when someone else changes to another *language in his/her plurilingual repertoire*.
C2	Can interact in a multilingual context on abstract and specialised topics by alternating flexibly between *languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire* and if necessary explaining the different contributions made.

important point to be seen in the future is how these descriptors will be used in language teaching and language assessment. Even if the CEFR was already highlighting the interaction between languages in the 2001 publications in most cases, the scales have been used for each language in isolation without taking into account the competence multilingual speakers have in all the languages in their repertoire.

In this section, we have seen that multilingual speakers are different from monolingual speakers because of their trajectories and the complexity and dynamism of their repertoires. Multilingual speakers use languages according to the communicative needs of their interlocutors. Monolingual speakers use only one language for all communicative functions and situations but multilingual speakers use their broad linguistic repertoire in different ways depending on the context. In the next section, we will focus on multilingual speakers' voices and the way they use their languages.

4. Multilingual Speakers' Voices

In this section, we are going to focus on multilingual speakers' voices by looking at the way they perceive the advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism, their use of the languages in the repertoire, and the way they perceive the interaction between these languages. The multilingual voices in this section come from two sources. Some are from the narratives of multilingual speakers who reflect about their own trajectories involving different languages (Todeva & Cenoz, 2009) and others are from graduate students at the University of the Basque Country who have Basque, Spanish, and/or English as a first language.

Perception of the Advantages and Disadvantages of Multilingualism

Multilingual speakers tend to perceive more advantages than disadvantages associated with multilingualism. A powerful image is given in a narrative by Charles Kowalski (2009: 171), an American multilingual speaker, who considers that learning a new language is "like adding a new window to your house, looking out in a new direction, towards a new country or culture."

This idea of a new window to your house is described in other words by Chimwemwe Kamanga (2009: 126). He describes his use of several African languages and other languages such as English, French, Chinese and Esperanto: "My knowledge of different languages makes me aware of different cultural issues that are engraved in the languages. Consequently, multilingualism impacts on my manner of thinking, expressing myself and interacting with different people. My different languages have made me more tolerant of

the differences of the peoples of the world. Therefore, being a multilingual has helped to transform my world view from a narrow beginning to a much wider present. Learning new languages gives me a sense of enrichment."

The idea of getting a wider idea of the world is also described by a 26-year-old female graduate student with Basque and Spanish as her first languages and English as a third language:

> I have come to the conclusion that speaking multiple languages brings a special sensibility to the person who speaks them. I believe that a multilingual person can in fact empathize with people belonging to other cultures in a deeper level. In other words, in my very own experience, I have noticed that multilingual people seem to be more open-minded, receptive and tolerant towards other identities in general terms. Moreover, I have observed that being able to communicate in several languages gives a person a wider view of the realities of the world and, consequently, the understanding of the world changes dramatically.

Apart from adding new windows to enjoy different views and perspectives, multilingual speakers also see practical advantages. Chimwemwe Kamanga (2009: 119–120) also sees the value of multilingualism as he describes in the following excerpt:

> For example, one day while I was at Chiya Lagoon in Nkhotakota, negotiating the price of fish with the indigenous fish mongers, I spoke the Nkhotakota dialect of Chicheŵa in order to incorporate correctly. Chiya Lagoon is a place in Nkhotakota, one of the districts in the Central Region of Malaŵi, which is particularly famous for its nice fish. As such, many people passing through the place want to have 'a taste of the place'. Because of this popularity, the fish are very expensive. By negotiating the price in the language of the land, I was able to persuade the sellers to give me a good price as a 'brother'.

The economic advantages are also related to the job market as described by an English L1 graduate student: "Being multilingual can be a reason for a better job chances on the labour market and through that for an international and intercultural career." Some students also added that being multilingual gives advantages when acquiring additional languages and when traveling.

In sum, we can see that multilingualism is seen as a rich personal experience that opens new windows and provides the opportunity to get to know about other cultures and become more tolerant. Multilingualism also has some practical advantages that can be seen, among others, when traveling, learning other languages, or in the job market.

Multilingual speakers find more advantages than disadvantages associated with multilingualism but they also discuss some disadvantages. The most common disadvantage is the interference from different languages. For example Hamzah Henshaw (2009: 167), who has English as his L1 but speaks several

languages, explains in his narrative: "The fruits of my multilingual exposure seem to be most evident in the area of grammar and reading. As for other language skills, particularly speaking, I find that my multilingual background is sometimes a hindrance, as a second language often interferes with the production of a third or fourth."

Rosemary Wildsmith (2009: 110), who has English as an L1 but speaks several other languages, also finds this difficulty: "This mixing of languages on a fairly regular basis causes some confusion, as words from all the other languages pop up in a totally unpredictable manner whenever I attempt to retrieve words from my mental lexicon."

The idea of not being the ideal monolingual speaker because of multilingualism is mentioned as a disadvantage of multilingualism by a graduate student with English as L1: "It also seems reasonable to me to say that being multilingual might be detrimental to one's own fluency in a language. Perhaps knowing two or more languages would mean that one's grasp on each of those languages is weaker than a monolingual's. I would venture to say that it takes an incredible amount of cognitive ability to have a comparable lexicon in two languages as a monolingual speaker in each of those languages."

As a related topic this Basque L1 student considers the difficulty of reaching perfection in all the languages: "However, not everything is positive about being multilingual, as there are some disadvantages: the more languages you know the less possible you can reach the perfection in any of them because some issues can arise, such as interferences from one language to another and mixing vocabulary or even grammar of different languages."

In sum, the disadvantages associated with multilingualism refer to the use of different elements of the linguistic repertoire while communicating in one of the languages and the idea of not reaching the competence of an ideal monolingual speaker.

Navigating between Languages

Multilingual speakers use the languages in their linguistic repertoire in different ways. The languages can be used for different functions or sometimes more than one language is used for the same function. Table 3 shows the use of Basque, Spanish, and English by three multilingual graduate students in the Basque Country. The three of them are fluent in the three languages and have courses in the three languages at the University.

Even if the table only shows the language use patterns of three multilingual speakers, there are several points of interest. The first is that these speakers, who

Table 3. Basque Speakers Language Use Patterns

	Ainhoa Female 42 L1 Spanish	Asier Male 22 L1 Basque	Idoia Female 23 L1 Basque and Spanish
Talking about a personal problem with a close friend	S	S	B, S, E
Listening to what your friend did at the weekend	B,S	B,S	B, S, E
Writing an application for a job including your CV	B,S	B,S	S, E
Sending an e-mail to ask for information about a job	B,S	B,S	B, S, E
Reading a legal text	S	B,S	S,E
Listening to a lecture	B, S, E	E	B, S, E
Reading the newspaper	S	S	B, S, E
Reading a novel	S	E	B, S, E
Watching a movie	S	E	E
Talking to a doctor in hospital about a health problem	B, S	S	B, S
Using Whatsapp, Facebook, etc	B, S	B,S,E	B, S, E

are fluent in the same languages and share other characteristics such as living in the same area and being students in the same master, show differences regarding the use of the three languages. For example, there are substantial differences in the use of English for reading novels or watching movies. Ainhoa uses Spanish, Asier uses English, and Idoia uses the three languages for reading novels and only English for watching movies.

It is interesting to see how Spanish, which is the dominant language in the Basque Autonomous Community, is used for many functions. Ainhoa uses Spanish for all functions, in some cases along with other languages. It is also interesting to see that Asier and Idoia, who are younger than Ainhoa, use English for many activities. The three students use English for their studies but the younger students use English for leisure activities as well.

What is more interesting as related to the characteristics of the multilingual speaker is that the three multilingual speakers use Basque, Spanish, and English depending on the activity and the interlocutor. In comparison, a monolingual speaker would use only one language for all activities and with all interlocutors.

As multilingual speakers use only one language for certain activities but two or three languages for others, they cannot possibly have the same experience as monolingual speakers.

It is difficult to isolate multilingual competence without referring to the whole linguistic repertoire. Ainhoa has a high level of proficiency in Basque and English but she may have to make more of an effort to read newspapers in these two languages because she is used to reading newspapers in Spanish and she does not need the other two languages for this activity in her everyday life. Neither of the three multilingual speakers uses English to speak to a doctor but this is not related to their proficiency but to the fact that they live in the Basque Country.

By adopting a holistic multilingual view, we can consider that the three speakers are competent multilingual speakers who can carry out many activities by navigating between languages according to the context. They are different from monolingual speakers because they use one, two, or the three languages in their repertoire to carry out different activities. Another important aspect of multilingual competence is that it is dynamic. The languages used by the three multilingual speakers can change (Table 3) if they have new interlocutors or circumstances in their lives change. As multilinguals, they will navigate between languages but the patterns of use could be completely different even if they go on living in the same country.

The Acquisition of Additional Languages

Research on third language acquisition has indicated that bilinguals can also use these resources to learn additional languages and have advantages when learning a third language (see Cenoz, 2003, 2013). Some of these studies involve Basque, Spanish, and English. For example, Sagasta (2003b) reported that Basque-Spanish bilinguals who had a higher level of proficiency in both languages scored higher on writing skills in English as a third language than Basque-Spanish bilinguals who had a lower level of proficiency in Basque.

The positive effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition has been associated with having broader linguistic repertoire, metalinguistic awareness, and learning strategies. Bilinguals and multilinguals have a broader linguistic repertoire and can use their own multilingual resources when learning additional languages. Multilingual speakers can develop metalinguistic awareness and reflect about the possibility of using their own resources when learning an additional language. Elka Todeva (Todeva 2009: 61), who is a multilingual speaker with Bulgarian as L1, says the following in her narrative: "Through the years I realized, for instance, that even though my L1 is a Slavic language, it

shares many words with French, Italian, English, and German. Some of this shared lexicon is the result of direct borrowing from these four languages, while another part came from Latin. This awareness of lexical units belonging to multiple languages greatly facilitated my vocabulary learning in Spanish."

This comment shows that even when languages are not closely related and do not belong to the same family, a multilingual speaker can benefit from a broader linguistic repertoire. Elka Todeva can possibly benefit from her repertoire to a larger extent because she has a high level of metalinguistic awareness because of her education and career in applied linguistics and language teaching in higher education. Studies on third language acquisition show that bilingual learners have a high level of metalinguistic awareness because they can think about language in a more abstract way and look at it as an object (Lasagabaster, 1998; Jessner 2006). Multilingual speakers can also develop a wider range of learning strategies that help them to learn an additional language. Bowden, Sanz, and Stafford (2005: 122) reported that "They look for more sources of input, make an early effort to use the new language, and show self-direction and a positive attitude toward the task." Kemp (2007) and Psaltou-Joycey and Kantaridou (2009) also reported that multilingual learners learning an additional language used more strategies than second language learners.

Studies on multilingual speakers learning additional languages have shown that they have advantages over monolingual learners of a second language when they use the resources they have in their linguistic repertoire. "Focus on Multilingualism" uses translanguaging pedagogies and strategies to reinforce the use of the multilingual repertoire and to develop metalinguistic awareness and benefit from multilingualism. Leonet, Cenoz and Gorter (2017) report a pedagogical intervention implemented in the 5th and 6th grades of Primary Education. The intervention aimed at using pedagogical translanguaging to develop language awareness and metalinguistic awareness (see also Cenoz & Arocena, 2018; Cenoz, Leonet & Saragueta, 2019). The following is an example of an activity.

> *Linguistic landscape in your town*. Students take pictures of the linguistic landscape and discuss in groups the languages that are found in the language signs in their town. The aim is to reflect about the languages and relate them to their own linguistic practices both at school and outside school so as to become aware of the languages in their repertoire and in the town. A second exercise is aimed at developing metalinguistic awareness by analyzing the names of some of the shops and comparing them in the three languages. They look at words such as "loredenda", which is "flower shop" in Basque and compare it to "floristeria" in Spanish. They see that the structure of the Basque and English words is the same (lore + denda= flower + shop) while the Spanish word is different.

With this example, students get awareness of themselves as multilingual speakers and relate the languages in their repertoire with the languages they find in the linguistic landscape of the city. By exploring the linguistic signs students can also look at the status of the different languages. Furthermore, they can activate strategies that relate the resources in their multilingual repertoire so as to benefit from their multilingualism (Gorter, 2017). When they see that two languages that have a different origin such as Basque and English share the same structure in the case of some compound words they can use their own languages as a resource when learning additional languages.

4. Teaching Implications

The traditional ideas of using only the target language in the class and having the monolingual native speaker of the target language as a reference are challenged in this chapter for different reasons. The first reason is that it is not fair to compare monolingual to multilingual speakers when they are different. The second reason is that by ignoring multilingual resources in their repertoire multilingual speakers cannot benefit fully from their own multilingualism. In this chapter, we look at multilingual speakers and their characteristics and also at the way resources from his/her repertoire can be used by using pedagogical translanguaging strategies that soften the boundaries between languages. Adopting these strategies is a challenge for teachers, and in this section, we look at the main points that can be addressed in the classroom. First, we will look at the development of language awareness and metalinguistic awareness and then we will discuss teacher development and coordination.

Developing Language Awareness and Metalinguistic Awareness

Multilingual speakers have trajectories that are different from those of monolingual speakers, and it is important to acknowledge and respect these trajectories and to give value to all the languages. The curriculum may include only some of the languages in the linguistic repertoire, particularly in the case of immigrant students, but teachers can create situations in which other languages are discussed and valued. The descriptors to build a plurilingual repertoire and develop plurilingual comprehension proposed by the Council of Europe (2018) and presented in tables 1 and 2 can be extremely useful to acknowledge the resources of the whole linguistic repertoire and how they can be helpful to learn other languages.

In bilingual and multilingual contexts, the development of language awareness is also linked to the status and use of the different languages. For example, in the Basque Autonomous Community the minority language, Basque, is widely used in education but students are not always aware of their own contribution as speakers of this language. Students' awareness of the social context where multilingual speakers use their repertoire is extremely important. Multilingual speakers may face situations in which they are expected to use only one language and situations in which spontaneous translanguaging using elements from different languages in their repertoire is appropriate. The development of language awareness is necessary to identify the different ways a multilingual speaker can navigate between languages.

The role of the teacher is crucial to look at the progress in the development of multilingual competence without considering students as deficient speakers of the target language. Multilingual speakers are different from monolingual speakers and not the sum of several monolinguals.

As we have seen, bilinguals can have advantages over monolinguals learning additional languages and these advantages are linked to their broader repertoire, the higher development of metalinguistic awareness, and their enhanced learning strategies. Language teachers and researchers in applied linguistics usually have a high level of metalinguistic awareness and learning strategies but students usually need help to benefit from their own multilingual repertoire. Pedagogical translanguaging as shown in the example of the linguistic landscape can be used to help students to use their multilingual resources. The example shown in this chapter can be useful for the development of vocabulary but pedagogical translanguaging can be used in many different ways and at different levels. Vocabulary development by softening boundaries between languages includes apart from compounds, derivatives, or cognates among others. Pedagogical translanguaging can also be applied to grammar, pragmatics, pronunciation, or discourse.

Teacher Development and Coordination

The tradition of language separation is very strong, and it is a real challenge to soften the boundaries between languages and to implement pedagogical translanguaging. However, there is a need for multilingual competence to be developed and for students to benefit from their own linguistic repertoire. There are several points that need to be addressed to face the challenge of a real "Focus on Multilingualism" in school settings.

1. All teachers need to develop a sensitivity toward language already during their training. Nowadays in a diverse and multilingual world, all teachers face challenges related to multilingualism and they need to be aware of their students' multilingual repertoire.
2. Coordination between teachers should not be limited to teachers of the same subject but should also include the coordination between teachers who teach different languages and the coordination between language and content teachers.
3. An important step can be to develop an integrated curriculum for the languages taught at school. This implies the coordination between language teachers so that the teacher of each language designs his/her lesson plan taking into account the language elements that are being taught in the other languages. In the case of integrated curricula, each language teacher teaches only in the target language. The coordination can be very positive but pedagogical translanguaging goes further because it uses the different languages in each class. Coordination is desirable also in the case of pedagogical translanguaging but it is not strictly necessary.

In sum, "Focus on Multilingualism" and pedagogical translanguaging aim at developing language awareness, metalinguistic awareness, and learning strategies so that multilingual speakers benefit from their own multilingual repertoire and are valued as multilingual speakers.

Acknowledgment

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Eneritz Garro, Karmele Perez-Lizarralde, and Amaia Lersundi

Chapter 2   Background and Perspective of Compulsory Secondary Education Teachers When Working in the School Language in Their Disciplinary Areas

Abstract: The present study was carried out within the framework of a cyclical process of reflective training. Its primary objective was to analyze the background and perspective of teachers with respect to their previous experiences, attitudes, perceptions, and predispositions regarding student characteristics, their own characteristics, and the context in which they carry out their teaching duties. The study was carried out with secondary education teachers at five educational centers in the Basque Autonomous Community and Navarre, Spain. Five group interviews were conducted with 17 Basque language and science teachers, and were analyzed applying of a set of codes derived from Meyer et al. (2018b). Our results show that teachers express tensions and dilemmas having to do with the teaching of language and contents in different subject classes; these issues are based on their analysis of their own teaching experience and their point of view regarding classroom activity and their characterization of the student cohort. Reflective training with teachers should be framed around these dilemmas and tensions so as to transform teaching with respect to methodology; the roles of the school language in the different subject classes; along with the involvement of students in design, implementation, and assessment; and organizational and other aspects.

Keywords: deep learning, school language, reflective teacher education, presage

1. Introduction

The present study takes place within a framework of collaboration between university and schools, through which knowledge is developed, which will enable education professionals to carry out quality multilingual education. Through the use of reflective practice with in-service teachers, where the school language is a minority language and the L2 of most of the students, we aim to examine closely the teaching of the school language along with the content of different school subjects. According to Coyle (2015), the development of deep learning requires fostering the development of subject-specific literacies (Coyle, 2015), and therefore shared learning spaces should be created (Coyle, 2018). This implies that specific work on language is necessary in order to construct meanings and to

express them through the specific discourses of each subject, and this goes beyond merely studying technical vocabulary or certain expressions (Scarcella, 2003). There is a need to inform teachers' views about language in the different subject classes, and for them to share common viewpoints with regards to knowledge, methodology, and the organization of their activities (Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013; Coyle et al., 2018).

An increasing body of research supports the importance of working on language as a path to deeper learning (Meyer et al., 2015; Beacco et al., 2015). Students should have sufficient competence in their school language to be able to participate actively in classroom activities, to achieve a high level of understanding, and to be able to express what they have learned at an appropriate level. Insufficient work is carried out on language, whether this is in content-classrooms, in content and language integrated learning (CLIL), or in immersion settings (Meyer et al., 2018a). Both research (Beacco et al., 2015) and educational institutions with practitioners perceive the need to delve deeper into the tension existing between teaching languages and teaching content in different subjects. This is especially important in education systems in which the school language is not the home language of the majority of students, a common challenge for both content-based instruction and CLIL models. Exploring such tensions may provide suggestions for development and experimentation by teaching staff (Cenoz, 2015).

The pluriliteracies approach provides a model for tackling these issues. Pluriliteracies Teaching for Learning (PTL) "focuses on the development of subject-specific literacies and transferable knowledge and skills as well as on personal growth" (Meyer et al., 2018a: 238). It emphasizes students being able to express their knowledge and understanding appropriately, thus confirming that they have fully understood the content and consequently have developed deeper learning. PTL proposes an ecological perspective, which fosters deeper learning so that, in addition to cognitive (constructing knowledge and refining skills) and linguistic (demonstrating and communicating understanding) aspects, it also takes into account areas such as well-being and emotional engagement (generating and sustaining commitment and achievement) and mentoring (mentoring, learning, and personal growth) (Meyer et al., 2018a).

2. Teacher Training as a Key Factor for Changing Classroom Practice

Teachers ideally need to closely examine their classroom practice, reformulate it, and analyze it, alongside related theory and good practice, and thus become

more aware of the tensions that exist between language teaching and the content teaching of different subjects. To this end, professional development programs are a systematic way of bringing about change in classroom practice, in teachers' attitudes and beliefs, and in the students' learning outcomes (Guskey, 2002). However, not all programs prove to be effective. Reflective training, however, in a group setting (Fullan, 2003), involving dialogue (Esteve & Carandell, 2009) and specifically directed at the teacher's role, facilitates analysis and enables actual classroom practice to become transformed (Bronckart, 2007; Clot, 2001).

Esteve and Alsina (2010) propose a format for reflective training that brings about reflective learning and in which a realist paradigm is seen as the most appropriate for developing teachers' professional competencies. Through reflection, this realist paradigm makes each individual teacher aware of his or her personal experiences, theoretical tendencies, understanding of teaching and learning, and experiences in the classroom both as a student and as a teacher (Esteve, 2013). Promoting this awareness in one's own process can be achieved through systematic reflection, for which specific tools are required, such as the teacher's journal, questionnaires and lists of questions, audio and video recordings, observations, and research-action processes (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Throughout their professional development, teachers construct a theory of practice (Van Lier, 1996), a perceived theory with a small "t" based on their reflection about their work. Through the training process, they will contrast this theory with formal theoretical knowledge with a capital "T" (Korthagen, 2001; Esteve & Carandell, 2009; Korthagen 2010) through a process of dialogue that seeks to make connections between the two. Based on this contrast, new knowledge and perspectives will be created, which will, in turn, be reflected on in a cyclical process (Esteve & Alsina, 2010). This process supports the teachers in moving from a basic level of knowledge to a higher one, to advance in their didactic knowledge, and ultimately, to reach a deeper understanding of their teaching activity, which was initially intuitive and *Gestalt* (Esteve & Carandell, 2009). Based on the cyclical process described by Esteve and Carandell (2009), we propose a model consisting of four main stages.

The first stage relates to what teachers do and what they say regarding their practice. The teachers' opinions and perspectives are gathered and served to establish the point of departure for the group of teachers with respect to how they work on the school language when teaching their subjects. Following Lourenço et al. (2017), teachers' trainers could better carry out their professional development by understanding the nature of teachers' belief structures and listening to their opinions. The second stage corresponds to the contrast between theory with a small "t" and theory with a capital "T"; this is the stage at which
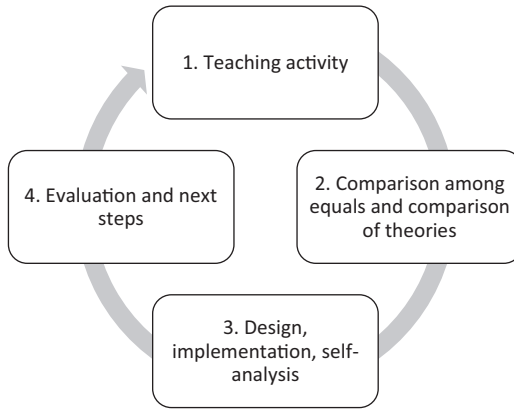
Illustration 1. Four stages of the training cycle. Source: Esteve & Carandell (2009).

teachers discuss didactic strategies that will be contrasted with reported experience. These theories help to better understand what is done, to agree on a framework, to decide what to do and how to do it, and, finally, to determine whether changes are needed. In the third stage, new methods to take to the classroom are designed and, when possible, are recorded in order to carry out a deeper process of self-analysis. In this way, each teacher self-confronts his or her own practice (Clot, 1999) and analyzes it with the help of trainers and colleagues. This stage is an essential part of the training and transformation process, not only with regard to practice but also with respect to the teacher's own professional work. Finally, in the fourth stage, the process is evaluated and the next steps are determined, giving rise thus to a second reflective training cycle.

3. Presage: Teachers' Previous Experiences, Perceptions, and Predispositions

It is essential to be familiar with the teachers' previous experiences, perceptions, and predispositions in order to lay the foundation for the reflective cycle. One of the basic factors regarding student outcomes is the teaching staff (Keller et al., 2017), and therefore it is important to take into account the teachers' background and their perceptions regarding their teaching. We subscribe to the idea that teacher characteristics impact on the scope and depth of learning as they interact with student characteristics and the instructional context (Keller et al., 2017; Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). Taking the interactive system represented in Bigg's

3P model (Presage-Process-Product; Biggs, 1989, 1993) as a point of departure, Meyer et al. (2018b) emphasize the fact that previous experiences, perceptions, and predispositions (Presage) have an impact on the decisions made by teachers in their work. Presage corresponds to the entry context, and it is related to factors existing prior to the teaching and learning process; it influences not only the creation of the teaching-learning experience, but also the development and results. Meyer et al. (2018b) define presage factors in three categories that we examine below: learner characteristics, teacher characteristics, and context of instruction.

Learner Characteristics

Student characteristics or, following Biggs (1999), how the student "goes about" their learning, have a crucial influence on learning processes and on their results. There are many factors at play, some corresponding to cognitive-academic components and others to components having to do with the students' ways of doing things and relationships, and all of these factors interact among themselves. Learners' previous knowledge and experiences demand recognition and should be valued (Freeth & Reeves, 2004). Biggs and Tang (2011) point out that good teaching requires the effort of inspiring curiosity based on learning that has gone before, in order to avoid pupil discouragement. Such "prior knowledge" may encompass knowledge from different sources such as general knowledge, facts relating to a specific field, concepts, and metacognitive capacities (Dochy & Alexander, 1995; Schneider & Bjorklund, 2003).

Factors having to do with the students' cognitive abilities, generic skills, and social skills interact in teaching and learning processes. According to Gottfredson (1997), cognitive skills are required for reasoning, problem solving, planning, abstract thinking, complex idea comprehension, learning quickly, and learning from experience and, to improve academic performance, students should be trained in cognitive strategies and self-regulation, which in turn will increase belief in their self-efficacy (Roces et al., 1995). Likewise, the students' generic skills should be held in account by their teachers. Making students reflect on their learning process and reflecting on errors provides an opportunity for the development of knowledge (Heemsoth & Heinze, 2015), and for students to adapt their learning and study behavior accordingly in relation to skills such as "oral and written communication, numeracy, information communication technology (ICT), learning how to learn, retrieval and critical analysis of information, time management, and teamwork" (Robley et al., 2005:221). Teaching-learning contexts are becoming more collaborative and it is therefore important to keep the students' social skills in mind. These may be defined as positive social

behaviors, valued both by educators and parents, which can be specifically taught in order to achieve positive outcomes for the group.

Teachers should recognize that the student motivation and resilience are key to fostering a successful learning process. Motivation directly affects the student's way of learning; a motivated student is actively engaged in the learning process making connections, putting ideas into practice, and developing hypotheses, while a less active student will be taking notes and memorizing (Biggs, 1999). We understand motivation as the student's interest in a particular subject (for example, mathematics, science, or languages) or set of subjects (for example, solving problems in different domains), and it includes cognitive and affective processes (Keller et al., 2017). According to Biggs (1999) good teaching creates motivation, rather than the opposite and is driven by different elements such as active methodologies, the make-up of groups, place of instruction, teacher self-efficacy, the quality of the daily pedagogical practice of the teachers, etc. (Biggs, 1999; Van Ewijk & Sleegers, 2010; Meyer et al., 2018a). Motivation is directly related to resilience; resilient learners will be more inclined to take on learning challenges the results of which are uncertain, to persist in learning despite temporary confusion or frustration, and to recover from setbacks and failures (Claxton, 2002).

Teacher Characteristics

Among presage factors, we find the characteristics of the teaching staff and their beliefs and knowledge about good teaching practice within their institutions. Professional knowledge and subject knowledge are also factors involved in their teaching activity. The learning of professional knowledge is acquiring procedural knowledge and pragmatic aspects of the practice (Leinhardt et al., 1995: 401) and it requires the professional to be able to prioritize, carry out, and apply, while enabling reflection on good practice. It also requires making explicit connections between teaching behaviors, student learning processes, and learning outcomes (Biggs, 1989). Subject (or content) knowledge refers to the indispensability of a high degree of knowledge of the subject content in order to teach effectively (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Meyer et al. (2015) regard linguistic content as especially relevant in subject-specific literacies, in which both textual genres and the cognitive-discursive functions that arise take on special relevance as a zone of convergence between content and language pedagogies (Dalton-Puffer, 2013).

In addition to this knowledge, affective factors also determine teachers' ways of doing things. It is important for the teacher to be motivated in his or her teaching and that depends, among other factors, on his or her engagement with

the subject and the institution. Biggs and Tang (2011) propose a "bottom-up" approach which, by first addressing trainee teachers' beliefs and self-efficacy within a good classroom environment, will ultimately result in well-being and achievement for students. Teaching based on enthusiasm and engagement will be of high quality and will foster conditions for excellence as well as positive attitudes in students (Keller et al., 2017).

It is important that the teacher directs their teaching to achieve deep learning on the part of the students and that for that he or she assesses both prior knowledge and learning outcomes in such a way that tasks are adapted to suit students. Given that students often see no connection between learning activities and evaluation processes (Biggs, 1989), teachers need to make progress, milestones, and objectives explicit and understandable to learners (Keller et al., 2017), A learning environment which is well-organized, offering targets and providing support and feedback will sustain student motivation and result in deep approaches (Biggs & Tang, 2011). It is important that the teacher is able to assess and be familiar with the prior knowledge and characteristics of each student, so as to be able to respond to the individual needs of his or her students and thereby achieve successful teaching (Meyer et al., 2018b).

Context of Instruction

For new pedagogies to be effective requires students and teachers to work together in new ways (Fullan & Langworthy, 2014). Teachers need to create activities that will enable students to see the direction their learning is going in and to understand their learning process. In order to do this, teachers will need to interact explicitly with learners, making them feel secure in a new social environment, offering them choice and keeping them well informed regarding the new skills they will learn and how these might be used (Meyer et al., 2018b). Interaction in the learning context is fundamental to learning, and group composition may facilitate or hinder interaction between students and teachers. These interactions may be between experts and novices or between peers. Peer teaching helps the teacher to reflect about what he or she knows and about what he or she can contribute to the group, which in many cases is as beneficial to the individual giving support as it is to the person receiving the help (Biggs, 1989). Students take control of their own learning process if teachers can provide opportunities for them to develop exploratory talk and writing (Coyle, 2007). Additionally, behavioral and attitudinal changes brought about through peer discussion can influence classroom practice (Van Ewijk & Sleegers, 2010).

Student well-being is improved when the learning process is shared, when students take responsibility for their learning and feel interest, need, and aspiration in their learning process; it is when they are given the opportunity to make decisions and when their participation is effective, that they assume leadership in their own learning (Fullan & Langworthy, 2014). Biggs (1989: 17) emphasizes the need for the creation of a "warm classroom climate" and for awakening student interest in the task. Meyer et al. (2018a) underline the importance of the interrelationship between well-being, motivation, achievement, and (teacher) self-efficacy. They point out that the entire system may fail if one aspect is overlooked, citing that a lack of emotional support may decrease teacher and student well-being and result in lower academic achievement, and, consequently, lower self-efficacy in both the teacher and students. All of this requires taking organizational aspects into account, such as the organization of temporary physical spaces and coordination between teachers. In addition, family background and social support may influence the context of instruction. The students' socio-economic status and extracurricular experiences must be taken into account when planning teaching and learning contexts (Biggs, 1989). Furthermore, families and social environments also influence motivation for learning; a student may perceive education as intrinsically important if learning and the fruits of education are valued by others in their environment (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Finally, personal prior knowledge derived from the family context is one characteristic of student prior knowledge and should be taken into account in contexts of instruction.

4. The Study

The primary purpose of the present qualitative study was to analyze teacher backgrounds and perspectives regarding the characteristics of their students, their own characteristics, and the context in which they carry out their teaching (Meyer et al., 2018b), in a context in which the school language is not the majority language socially and where the students work on the language and the other curricular areas within an immersion program (Cenoz, 2009, 2015).

The research questions to be addressed are the following:

1. What do teachers say about the characteristics of their students? What dilemmas emerge in their discourse?
2. How do teachers characterize their own experiences and practices? What dilemmas emerge in their discourse?

Table 1. Characteristics of the Interviews and of the Participating Centers

Group interview	Nº of students	Location	Population	Basque speakers	Participating teachers	Duration of the interview
GI1	1094	BAC	77,530	33.28 %	5	00:56 hours
GI2	1249	Navarre	10,150	17.5 %	3	01:12 hours
GI3	990	BAC	6,776	59.97 %	4	01:15 hours
GI4	900	BAC	11,308	77.91 %	2	00:57 hours
GI5	316	Navarre	7,407	25.5 %	3	01:17 hours

3. How do teachers describe their context of instruction? What dilemmas emerge in their discourse?

To answer these questions, group interviews were carried out (Gibbs, 2017) with teachers from the first year of Compulsory Secondary Education in the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) and Navarre teaching in a network of charter schools in the Basque Country. These schools proposed collaboration with our University in order to carry out a reflection and training process with teachers from different schools for the purpose of improving the competence and use of the Basque language among their students. The schools in this network are autonomous from the point of view of governance, but they share ideological and methodological aspects, as well as various organizational and educational forums. After a process of reflection-negotiation with teachers and administrators, study of the school language was identified as an aspect to be developed, both in the Basque Language and Literature courses and in other subjects, and the area of Natural Sciences was prioritized.

A total of five group interviews were carried out in five different schools. The interviews were led by two researchers, and a total of 17 teachers with extensive teaching experience took part. Natural Sciences and Basque Language teachers participated in the interviews, some of whom are also Spanish Language, Social Sciences, or Mathematics teachers. The interviews were based on a guide that was adapted in each interview to the particular circumstances of each situation and the responses received. Data on these group interviews are presented in the following table:

The corpus was transcribed and analyzed by applying codes gathered from the literature (Meyer et al., 2018b), described in the following table, and derived from our work in Section 3 of this chapter.

In our analysis of the corpus, we found it expedient to add two subcategories related to the codified characteristics in the table above: teaching methods and

Table 2. List of Categories Used to Codify the Corpus

Category	Subcategory	Description (References to. . .)
	Specific prior knowledge	different types of prior knowledge
	Generic skills	cross-curricular skills, attitudes, and knowledge required in any subject area
Learner characteristics	Cognitive ability	skills, attitudes, and knowledge involved in the creation of knowledge
	Motivation	interest in a particular topic or experience
	Social skills	skills, attitudes, and knowledge required to maintain good relations with other people
	Resilience	ability to deal with uncertain situations and recover from setbacks and failures
	Goal orientation	ability to design and implement the learning experience based on the students' prior knowledge and their outcomes of learning
	Enthusiasm	engagement with the institution, the teaching experience, and the subject
Teacher characteristics	Subject knowledge	necessary knowledge relating to the specific subject taught
	Professional knowledge	acquired knowledge relating to the profession that can be adapted and applied in different professional circumstances
	Diagnostic competence	ability to evaluate the prior knowledge and characteristics of each individual student
	Learning partnerships	teaching-learning experiences in which the objectives and activities are agreed upon by teachers and students
	Group composition	grouping of students in the course of teaching-learning
Context of instruction	Organizational aspects	aspects having to do with the temporal, spatial and coordinative organization of the teachers involved in the teaching and learning context
	Family background and social support	aspects having to do with the family and social environment that may affect teaching and learning processes
	Attention to well-being	activities carried out by the teaching staff to satisfy the physical and mental conditions that will provide the students with a feeling of satisfaction and calm

Source: Meyer et al. (2018b)

Table 3. Categories Added to the List in Table 1

Context of instruction	Teaching methods	The (systematic) manner of teaching used so that students achieve the expected learning objectives.
	Assessment	Qualitative and quantitative evaluation corresponding to the learning objectives and learning outcomes to measure the progress of the students.

assessment. In the interpretation presented by Meyer et al. (2018b), these two subcategories belong to the second component (process) rather than the first (presage), but for the purposes of the present study, we thought it best to include them as part of presage as done by Biggs (1989), since we believe that both methodology and assessment are factors that affect the context of instruction and since both are present in the discourse of the teachers we interviewed.

Furthermore, Biggs (1989) emphasizes the fact that, in order to achieve deep learning, these two factors cannot be separated. When students are aware that the teaching method is not appropriate for the designed learning activities and that what is being assessed is not in line with the corresponding learning outcomes, they will not fully engage with the learning activities (Biggs & Tang, 2011). Fullan & Langworthy (2014) also stress the importance of methodological aspects to foster deep learning, and note that new pedagogies are emerging as a natural consequence of technological development and of an alienation between students and teachers. According to these authors, this has a direct influence on the curriculum, on the design of learning experiences, and on assessment.

The coding process for each category was carried out using the Atlas.ti 7.0 software and was conducted by two researchers and then checked for validity by another researcher through a peer debriefing process.

5. Results and Discussion

In order to answer our research questions, we organized the results according to the three categories presented by Meyer et al. (2018b).

Learner Characteristics

Compulsory Secondary Education first year students are transitioning between childhood and adolescence, and between Primary and Secondary Education. In all group interviews, the notion of this transition moment is emphasized, both at the academic level and at a social level.

Teachers value positive characteristics that they associate with child-hood: respect for teachers, excitement about learning and doing things properly, using the school language among friends, etc. On the other hand, they note as challenges for their teaching some of the characteristics associated with entering adolescence (distance from the teacher, lack of confidence, being rebellious, indifference, overwhelming use of Spanish in classroom relations, etc.).

One concern of the teachers interviewed is the difficulty that some students have in using contents and skills previously learnt, and transferring them from one subject to another. The idea that learning remains "compartmentalized" (GI1:359) and the fact that the students associate types of learning with each of their subjects (GI3:206) rather than with their "real-life application" (GI1:359) are identified as a challenge teachers must face, since in cases when knowledge transfer does take place, it happens "unintentionally" on the part of the students (GI1:101) and not because their teachers have "brought this about."

> *The subjects, the teaching objective, and not only that, and when we test them on skills, they pass the tests quite well. . . but in a group you find all types, but most of them do great, but later, they go on to the next school year. . . and it seems like they've never worked on that before, ever. And it's a real mystery, right? Why? (GI1:359)*

Some teachers associate the students' academic results directly with their linguistic ability:

> *Normally, the ones that do well academically, in any subject. . . don't tend to have problems with the language. (GI2:189)*

When describing their pupils, teachers tend to speak generically and imprecisely about the pupils' cognitive abilities ("good students," brilliant students," and "students who need help"). However, when describing linguistic abilities, teachers, whether from across the subjects or from the language department itself, are much more demanding of linguistic accuracy and specific linguistic difficulties, in most cases related to grammatical aspects (morphosyntactic or orthographic issues), and less associated with textual or discursive aspects.

The difficulties associated with generic skills that are mentioned in interviews have to do with the students' "lack of autonomy" to deal with complex activities (GI1:82), their "lack of planning" when they have to create a written work and, above all, with aspects related to the search for, management, and comprehension of information, a difficulty that Natural Sciences teachers in particular identify explicitly (GI2:61; GI4:286).

In the present interviews, teachers note that the methodology suggested by the teaching materials together with continuous small-group work encourage

students to be more autonomous (GI1:194; GI2:132), more aware of their learning (GI3:221), and accustomed to working in groups without the constant presence of a teacher (GI2:153; GI3:151). Nevertheless, differences between individual students and class-groups are highlighted (GI3:256; GI4:228–229), as are difficulties on the part of the teachers to keep those differences in mind (GI4:223).

> Each student. . . that's where you see the differences among the students: motivation, taking responsibility, that's difficult in a group, reaching agreements, decisions, different paces, that's difficult, very difficult. And it's also difficult for the teacher to observe and monitor. (GI4:223)

The students' social skills are also cited as being associated with the roles they are assigned in group work ("students who help": GI1:181; GI2:175) or with oral participation in didactic interactions in the class-group ("there are some who take part over and over and they have the opportunity to speak, but others are shyer and never open their mouths in class": GI2:27).

The students' motivation is one of the central aspects that emerged in the interviews analyzed. Some teachers emphasize that students in their first year of Compulsory Secondary Education are more motivated with respect to learning than the older students, and believe that this is an important factor to be considered (GI1:110; GI2:19; GI3:337):

> For me, it's about motivation. Students in their first year of Compulsory Secondary Education still have. . . that desire, you know? To do things well. Later that gets lost (. . .) In other years they do it to get a good grade. But in the first year they're still excited. "We're going to do a project" and "wow" and they get down to it quite happily. That's a huge difference, and I believe we can take advantage of that in the first year to do things. (GI1:110)

There are different factors that affect the students' motivation, in the opinion of the teachers interviewed. They associate student motivation with the teachers' enthusiasm in a bidirectional way (GI1:240; GI3:337), with the course being taught and the contents studied in that course (GI1:250; GI2:72), and with positive academic results (GI1:253). Motivation increases when the students feel involved in the learning process (GI1:257) and when their point of view is taken into account (GI3:254), and this happens, according to the teachers, when one seeks to use projects in which the students are involved in the learning processes (GI2:255; GI4:62, 164).

Methodology is also cast as a key factor in student motivation, and the teachers believe that lecture classes ("droning on") discourage students (GI2:255–257), while group work and activities that are more dynamic ("discussions"; GI1:259)

and shorter in duration (GI3:364–365) help them participate more actively in classroom work.

Motivation to use the school language is a recurrent topic, and one of the clearest concerns that emerged in interviews carried out in contexts in which the school language has a low social presence. The first year of Compulsory Secondary Education is identified as a moment of change in the students' habits of use of the school language in the classroom (GI1:30). The presence of the teacher is sometimes the reason for the school language to be used as a language for communication among students, but in group work it is "easy" to fall back on the language with greater social presence (GI1:51; GI2:10).

Teacher Characteristics

The teachers interviewed primarily emphasize elements associated with subject knowledge and professional knowledge, that is, they focus on subjects for study in their field, always from a professional and critical point of view that seeks both reflection and personal and group improvement.

Science teachers stress the purpose of their subject and the topics covered during the school year:

> . . .consolidate the knowledge of their sixth year and little by little delve deeper into and become more familiar with the situation in their immediate surroundings, have an impact on the students' health, also reinforce and encourage concern for the environment (. . .). Keeping content in mind, there are three topics (. . .) the universe, (. . .), geology, and the third is biodiversity, nature. (. . .). And, well, the contents and skills are developed both in group work and also by doing small projects. (GI4:37)

They frequently focus on comprehension and reading (GI3:65) and also stress the importance of the setting for the subjects like Science and the possibility of going outside on field trips (GI2:12) to observe plants or study geology, visit the environmental school or go to the planetarium for astronomy (GI4:67). Teachers associate these activities with the ability to carry out practical research, formulate research questions, seek reliable information in the garden, through the microscope, and on the internet, and approach that information with a critical eye, going beyond Wikipedia (GI4:242,249).

With respect to language, various aspects are mentioned: topics studied in class projects – dialects of Basque, poetry, and the written expression of their feelings, and informational texts about a topic in Basque culture (GI4:41; GI1:109; GI2:72) – technical language, and the structures needed to create their projects (GI1:12); reading novels, the formulation of a hypothesis while reading

(GI4:271), and literary resources (GI4:274)... Additionally, the B2 linguistic profile is mentioned as an exit profile for compulsory education (GI5:19).

The language issue that is mentioned most by both language teachers and science teachers is the question of grammatical aspects, primarily in the context of their difficulties with correction (GI4:84). They state that the errors they see cause difficulties in oral and written expression, especially in students for whom the school language is L2, even though the students' knowledge may be valid: *"On tests, we focus above all on content, if they answer, they know. Since we're in Natural Sciences, I'm not going to grade on language, right?* (GI5:56). *The same thing happens with spelling, you see huge mistakes and you point them out, you correct them, but that's as far as it goes"* (GI2:40). Although teachers bring up the subject so many times, they neither work on nor systematically correct linguistic errors, but rather deal with them in a very intuitive way (GI4:146). They mention the need to work on various linguistic aspects, as well as the need for students to transfer those aspects from one subject to another because they do not tend to do that (GI1:365): verb forms (potentials) and causal forms (GI4:147), spelling (GI1: 347), a richer and more technical vocabulary (GI1:78–80; GI2:51), the ergative case of declension (GI1:350), punctuation (GI2:35), textual organizers, and the organization of paragraphs (GI1:365)... Grammar is mentioned as the biggest struggle, both for teachers and for students (GI2:72).

Correction is not emphasized in oral presentations either. The teachers complain about the amount of time needed for oral presentations in class, about the patience and difficulty involved in having students do such tasks and in listening to all the presentations, and about the lack of oral skills and the difficulty of grading them yet the need for assessment (GI5:105). In the end, what some teachers hope for is not so much the assessment of oral presentations as having their students rid themselves of fear and learn how to do a presentation comfortably (GI4:86-91). The topic of oral skills recurs in the interviews. Some teachers are more organized than others in this respect; they distribute different aspects of the topic under consideration to different groups and the students learn about the topic by listening to each other (GI3:69). But there are also those who, perhaps for convenience, now demand fewer presentations, diagrams, and the explanation of them than before (GI2:232), who believe that students lack the tools to create an effective minute-long piece of discourse (GI5:18), who do oral exercises only when they come up in the materials they use. But this is not sufficient inasmuch as it leaves oral presentation in the hands of the individual teachers, when they should be working on it systematically in all subject classes (GI5:10).

We do things out of habit, and for myself, I often have many doubts with our background of correction and quality, without knowing where the border lies between the two. Here on a daily basis we see that both are lacking, right? First of all, communicative ability is lacking. They also lack correction, and in recent years one of my major concerns has been that they have to learn grammar intuitively, but if we don't offer it to them here, how are they going to learn it? And this is quite a broad concern. (GI5:19)

The teachers underscore the need for appropriate and effective communication that is demonstrated in students not merely repeating things "like a parrot" (GI5:97, 109), in being able to participate in class interactions (GI5:137), in being able to speak for three minutes on any topic without needing previous preparation or memorization (GI5:129; GI2:313), in reasoning and responding to the explanation for the phenomena they're dealing with (GI5:98), in responding coherently and sticking to the task (GI5:99), and in responding amply, going beyond monosyllables and short sentences (GI5:151). On the topic of effective communication, the teachers also allude to various textual genres (oral presentations, descriptions, informational text, etc.) and to various cognitive-discursive functions that are specified in some subject areas: defining, creating a hypothesis, explaining cause and consequence (GI1:268), identifying, schematizing and classifying information (GI2:237), interpreting graphics and maps (GI3:88, 204), and summarizing (GI3:413). But also they mention that these functions are studied as they come up in teaching materials, they are not systematized among the teachers or subjects, and, in general, the students are not helped to transfer and reuse them (GI1:285). In light of this, some teachers speak, for example, about intensifying work on some structures:

. . .(in Language class). . . they work on the structure of the definition. In other areas, in Social Sciences, for example, they work on the structure of the definition. Then that same structure can be transferred. You talked about giving information. In my Social Sciences and Basque Language classes when they give their opinions, they have to give arguments for them. We are continually pushing them toward that. You have this: why? You feel this: why? (. . .) What we as teachers have to do is to keep in mind what structures are used in Natural Sciences and see if we work on them or if we have to reinforce them. (GI3:199)

Regarding distribution across the different subjects, it is noteworthy that the teachers do not see the treatment of language as equal in all subjects, since they believe that there are some subjects like Natural Sciences or Biology that offer more opportunities to speak, give opinions, and be critical – about current affairs like pollution, for example – than others like Mathematics, in which exercises are of a more practical and limited type (GI2:10).

Both content and professional knowledge seem to be very closely associated with teacher motivation, with their relation with the subjects they teach, with their attitudes, and with the relationships that they build with their students.

> So... there is quite a big difference between our ideal theory... and practice. Well, we don't focus only on content, but on inspiring them to learn... motivating them, so that they'll enjoy it: scientific thought, how to do research, how to learn, how to pose questions... (GI2:8)

At the same time, they are concerned about their self-efficacy, they want their students to engage with their subject, but sometimes they achieve the opposite (GI4:112), in which case they would grant a little less importance to content, and would reinforce research and make the subject more practical:

> I would reinforce research a bit... I don't know how, something more practical. With more creativity and not so much data. (...) I feel a little frustrated if I don't reach the students, you want to transmit to them how much you care about your subject and are interested in it, your subject is so interesting to you, there are so many things to learn, so many new things, and not being able to pass on your enthusiasm to your students... I know that's very unrealistic, it's just what I would like... (GI4:260)

The teachers try to present their subject as something alive, something that methodologically influences life in the classroom (GI2:15), and they want it to have an influence on the lives of their students (GI1:359). In general, they are motivated and engaged with their subjects, they live through them and enjoy them (GI2:15; GI3:409), and they also hope to have an impact on their students' motivation. They are aware of their students' eagerness and want to take advantage of it. In this sense, they speak of the desire to stimulate both their students' desire to learn and their use of the school language, their participation in classroom activities, and their motivation for the subject and the dialects of the Basque language, even though they are aware of the stages that their students must go through to move from their prior knowledge to their learning achievements, and they mention difficulties in adapting to students that have more difficulties (GI4:186). They would like to create tasks that are appropriate to their needs (GI1:194), better regulate their students' learning (GI1:285), and improve their self-regulation (GI3:294).

Some teachers express the idea that the teacher engineers his or her own attitudes and seeks out and takes advantage of opportunities to promote the well-being of his or her students, from always entering the classroom smiling and transmitting excitement to offering time at the beginning of the class for students to talk about their own issues or work on their relationships (GI1:240).

They also give importance to the atmosphere among teachers and to the positive influence of having open personal relationships (GI3:110).

The teachers' professional knowledge, their ability to reflect, and their willingness to improve and develop professionally are clear in the ideas highlighted so far in our analysis. Furthermore, they do not consider the materials and activities to be "set in stone" and they modify them as needed (GI4:45, 194; GI5:56–63); they analyze their own practices and note how they have implemented new strategies by relaxing and pacing themselves throughout the school year (GI4:113), although some say they hear two voices inside them, one that is consumed by the new methodology and one that tells them not to worry if they cannot finish a unit (GI5:54). They are able to put themselves in the place of their students, identify their challenges, and look at their practices with a critical eye (GI4:53), and they think that perhaps their subject should be less theoretical and more dynamic (GI4:84), that they should take care with their own discourse as a model for their students (GI4:85), that they should strengthen creativity (GI4:260) and plan and systematize linguistic development and study among all teachers (GI5:12), and they would like to use new techniques to better help those students with more difficulties (GI4:284).

Context of Instruction

References to methodological aspects and teaching materials are central to the entire group interviews analyzed. The same teaching materials are used in all schools and are based, according to the teachers, on project work (GI1:12), a demanding linguistic level (GI1:100–103), organization by areas of knowledge with differences in approach among them (GI2:72), and the promotion of cooperative work, with differences among the different areas (GI1:194).

In general, the level of satisfaction with the teaching materials is high (GI1:259; GI5:20), and the teachers recognize that these materials have brought about a change in the approach to teaching processes, a "revolution" (GI2:15). Nevertheless, they also note the need to "make the materials one's own" (GI3:430–431; GI4:45; GI5:10) and adapt them and complement them according to the needs they identify. Various activities carried out by the teachers are cited in the interviews. In some cases, projects are adapted according to the interests or the likes of the students (GI3:390), interdisciplinary projects are created in parallel with the suggestions in the materials (GI3:391; GI4:146–152), or projects are developed by students with specific needs (GI3:366–389). The teachers give positive value to experimentation and the creation of activities that are adapted to the interests and needs of their students:

> *. . .we have to create these types of things and activities on the spot, and creating them and trying them can be a strong point. We shouldn't be afraid to try things, because it can motivate people. . . And assess them ourselves, and decide how to correct them. . . (GI3:413)*

Furthermore, teachers may suggest activities with specific purposes, such as grammatical work (GI2:74; GI4:278) – they work on and "bone up on" grammar in "a different way" beyond what is available in the textbook (GI5:56–63), with supplemental materials (GI2:74), since whatever does not appear in the teaching materials is taken for granted or worked on intuitively (GI5:146) – reading comprehension (GI2:71, 277), and activities to boost reading pleasure (GI3:413).

Although teachers are aware that project work and cooperative group work have brought about a change in their role, they continue to be critical about their forms of classroom instruction and suggest decreasing their "lecture time" or "droning on" (GI1:192; GI2: 252; GI3:228), as well as developing strategies for group interaction in which more extensive and appropriate participation on the part of the student body is fostered (GI4:112; GI5:151). In one noteworthy case, a teacher made changes in the classroom dynamic to foster interaction, precisely to have an impact on her students' language use and quality. However, she remains unsure whether this has been successful, since two dilemmas have arisen: first, when her students tell her that they have been speaking much more, she wonders whether that means something positive or if they think they're wasting time; and second, she reports a rift between how comfortable she felt in class and her students' results, with which she was not so comfortable (GI5:178). It is not clear, therefore, to what extent teaching activities, learning, and evaluation processes are linked, given that teachers and students do not seem to understand the same thing when faced with the same processes.

Some moments are mentioned in which the students make suggestions regarding the objectives, activities, and evaluation of their learning experiences. Nevertheless, in the teachers' discourse, it is clear that the leading role belongs almost exclusively to the teachers, though this is presented as a dilemma or challenge in some cases (GI3:244).

Concern for student well-being and the need to boost motivation appear in the teachers' discourse, and they emphasize that the teacher, with his or her positive attitude (GI1:226) and actions, must foster a good atmosphere in the classroom and express interest in the well-being of the students (GI3:227).

Assessment is another key aspect that surfaces in the interviews carried out in the present study. On the one hand, assessment based on the teaching materials and structured around three main concepts – content, skills, and attitudes – is mentioned in all the interviews (GI1:289). In most cases, content is assessed first,

followed by skills (GI1:290; GI4:165–186). To evaluate these aspects, "assessable activities" and/or "tests" are used (GI1:287–289; GI4:166), although some teachers point out that skills assessment cannot be based solely on a final exam and should be carried out continuously (GI5:75). Likewise, the teachers mention in the interviews the difficulties many students have, especially students with problems, in taking exams intended to assess skills (GI4:171–186; GI5:80–82).

In two of the interviews, it is explicitly stated that assessment continues to be one of the reasons for teacher training (GI1:313; GI3:130). In those centers, work is being carried out to reach an agreement among teachers on assessment criteria (GI1:311–316) and to create tools, rubrics, for assessment (GI3:287). The students in some cases play a leading role in assessment through self-evaluation or co-evaluation (GI1:318–327; GI2:202–203; GI4:209), but always based on the criteria established by their teachers and without any specific training in assessment (GI2:203). One of the dilemmas that teachers bring up regarding assessment has to do with language, and one of the issues raised by teachers is the role of teachers whose subjects are non-linguistic in evaluating linguistic aspects, especially those relating to correction (GI2:40;GI4:87). Although the majority of teachers agree on this analysis and believe that there is cause for concern, previous experiences cast doubt on the effectiveness of rigor when it comes to assessing student productions (GI2:44–55). In one of the schools (GI1:291) it has been suggested that teachers assess and grade attitude toward the school language and its use, in order to strengthen the use of the language in the classroom. The teachers also stress the importance of both the use of the Basque language in the family environment and family attitudes toward the language (GI1:106; GI1:41; GI1:304; GI3:200) and have taken on the challenge of helping students who do not use the school language at home to develop different linguistic variables and registers to "fill the students' toolkits" (GI3:200).

From all the interviews, it is clear that it is common for students to work cooperatively in many classroom activities. In general, the groups are chosen by the teachers and are heterogeneous, composed of "excellent" students who "know how to help" together with others who "need help" (GI1:175–176; GI4:121), and with predefined roles (spokesperson, secretary, etc.) (GI2:153). Nevertheless, many teachers explain that in some instances they prefer to choose homogeneous groups made up of students who are academically similar (GI2:176; GI3:252), since they believe that the "students who help" get tired and in homogeneous groups they can enjoy the work more (GI2:187) while the students who "need help" have to adjust if they have no interest in learning (GI3:256). Additionally, "the results are better, especially in the case of those who need help" (GI3:256–258). There are two main challenges teachers set for themselves regarding

cooperative work: the need to keep in mind differences among students (ability, motivation, interests, work pace, etc.) (GI4:223) and student use of the school language to communicate when working in groups (GI1:10).

Many of the aspects identified in the interviews as targets for improvement have to do with organization. On the one hand, the teachers emphasize the importance of ratios in order to be able to properly meet the demands of the students and their learning process (GI2:300) and to be able to carry out innovative projects with them (GI3:167–169). In many cases, teachers teach more than one subject, which, according to those teachers, gives them a more general perspective on what students learn and improves their ability to elicit the transfer of the students' developed knowledge from one area to another (GI1:365–367; GI3:73). Although deep knowledge in different areas is given positive value, the present interviews confirm a lack of systematic coordination among teachers of different subjects; teachers of one subject have only a superficial and informal familiarity, often through their students, with what is studied in other subject classes (GI1:276; GI2:187; GI3:81–83; GI4:139) and they rely on the approach of the teaching materials (GI3:89). "Lack of time" is one of the arguments put forward to explain this lack of coordination (GI1:385–386; GI3:118), lack of time being one of the most consistent complaints that emerges in the interviews and that is associated both with the work teachers must do outside the classroom and with how classes are planned. Teachers feel the pressure of having to "do it all" (GI3:428; GI5:178) and this has an impact on methodology: it sometimes leads them to prioritize lecture classes over classes planned around cooperative work (GI1:196–199); to prioritize written work over oral work (GI5:106); and with respect to assessment, to prioritize content assessment over skills assessment (GI5:176).

6. Conclusions

The present study analyzes the background and perspective of teachers with regard to linguistic work in curricular subjects. To achieve this goal, group interviews were conducted and then subjected to content analysis based on the categories presented by Meyer et al. (2018b). Our results have revealed that the teachers identify and describe both learner characteristics and their own characteristics, and they are able to characterize their teaching practice and bring up tensions and dilemmas from their own teaching experience and perspective with respect to aspects that determine the teaching of languages and of different subject content, all of which helps us to identify topics for the training process (Lourenço et al., 2017).

The way in which the teachers refer to the "school language" in their discussions reveals one of the tensions or dilemmas that warrant closer examination from a theoretical-practical perspective. When the teachers describe the students' level of competence in the Basque language, they speak primarily about grammatical aspects and correction issues. However, from the perspective of different curricular subjects, they refer to the need to work on different cognitive-discursive functions and textual genres in order to deepen knowledge, in the words of one of the teachers, "so that the students can learn with a good foundation" (GI3:212). Following Meyer et al. (2018b), this would also seem to indicate that there should be more in-depth work on language.

The present analysis confirms that in the schools that participated in this study, the teachers are immersed in methodological changes due in part to the new teaching materials they use. Additionally, they are open to innovation and have the confidence to try out different pedagogical approaches. Project work and cooperative work are carried out regularly on a day-to-day basis, which facilitates the framework recommended for deeper learning (Bell, 2010). Additionally, the teachers mention dilemmas and proposals regarding both project work and cooperative work, which make it feasible to delve deeper into these topics. However, assessment (Biggs & Tang, 2011) and student involvement in the whole learning process, the "learning partnership," are seen as significant challenges in these schools.

The group interview format helps teachers to compare and contrast different teaching practices and points of view with regards to the students and the teachers themselves, and shows how they deal with their teaching activity, both in and out of the classroom. The present analysis confirms that it is not common for teachers to reflect on their teaching practice systematically in groups (Fullan, 2003) or dialogically (Esteve & Carandell, 2009). Therefore, it is important to seek such spaces in which to elicit reflection so that teaching can be adapted or remodeled, thereby improving work through the school language in the different curricular areas in order to promote the students' deeper learning (Beacco et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2015).

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Thomas Wendeborn and Ralf Schlöffel

Chapter 3   Shifting Perspectives in Lateral Entrants on Their Way to Become Coequal Teachers

Abstract: Becoming a fully trained teacher in Germany takes about 6.5 years. During that time, a variety of university unit tests, the first state exam and a pre-service teacher training, completed by passing the second state exam, have to be managed. Those regulations are similar in all federal states of Germany, except where there is a teacher shortage.

Keywords: side-entry and lateral entry, physical education, teacher training, professionalisation

1. Introduction

On the one hand, current findings of epidemiologic panel studies deplore children's and adolescents' lack of physical activity (just about 20 percent of girls and boys reach an at least moderate physical activity of 60 minutes a day), a reduced active playing time (less than 25 percent of children and adolescents spend several hours a day playing actively), a rather inactive way to school (just about 40 percent of children and adolescents walk to school on their own or ride a bicycle) and many activities while sitting (about 80 percent of children and adolescents spend more than two hours a day sitting in front of TV or other screens) and the resulting reduced requirements for active participation in sporting contexts (i. a. Demetriou et al., 2019). On the other hand, keeping the current discussions on teacher shortage, including Physical Education teachers, in the Federal Republic of Germany in mind, a significant rise of teaching staff recruitment without the appropriate pedagogical university graduation is being recorded. This also affects the school subject Physical Education, which is supposed to prepare for an active participation in society in games and sports.

With regard to the current discussion about the shortage of teachers in the Federal Republic of Germany and the associated significant increase in new employees in the teaching profession without teacher training-related academic degrees, one would not want to be in the shoes of those responsible for schools, school administration and educational policy. While such teachers were previously rare exceptions predominantly found at progressive schools (Reformschule)

and vocational schools, the minority phenomenon has evidently become a mass phenomenon: "In 2017 almost 13 percent of all new employees in the teaching profession in Germany did not have a teacher training related academic degree, in the Free State of Saxony it was as high as 46.5 percent" (Tillmann, 2019, P. 11). Occasionally, such figures result in critical statements which are primarily aimed at the Ministries of Education of the Federal States: "There is an educational crisis in Berlin and Saxony" (Franz, 2018); "The Federal States have neglected the training of teachers" (GEW, 2017); and "The hushed up shortage of teachers" (FAZ, 2018). In this regard, policy or management failings are frequently cited as a reason. The fact is that in the 1990s political decisions were made which have a lasting effect in teacher training in the whole of Germany up to the present: they include the modularisation or restructuring of the teaching training courses through the introduction of the Bachelor/Master system (Oelkers, 2012) as well as the creation of a closer link between academic and practical training (Cramer, 2014). Characteristic for the new Federal States is the integration of the pedagogical higher education institutions in the universities along with the centralisation efforts of teacher training after 1990. These developments were implemented with the objective of "harmonising teacher training in the Eastern and Western Federal States under the overall aspect of a common democratic constitution, making training content and standards at schools of general education and vocational schools in East and West Germany equivalent, producing equal opportunities and reducing barriers to mobility" (Döbert, 1997, P. 341). It is important to state that since 1990 there have repeatedly been phases in which supply and demand in schools as a sector of the labour market were not harmonised, although the causes are more complex than it seems at first glance. According to Tillmann (2019, P. 13), "the varying intensity of the increase in the number of pupils since 2014, the varying endeavours of the Federal States in the training of teachers, the varying attractiveness of the Federal States as employers (among other aspects pay, civil servant status)" are causal reasons for this. Besides this, there is the varying age distribution of the teachers.

According to the Federal Statistical Office of Germany (2016), the demographic developments after 1990 were characterised by unforeseeable trend reversals, which were reflected in abrupt declines or increases in birth rates, population movements in the direction of the metropolitan regions andthe associated lack of training opportunities in the rural regions. In view of relatively rigid capacity calculations for the training of teachers and in part precarious employment conditions of the academic personnel in the teacher training related subjects at German universities and pedagogical higher education institutions (incidentally a university-wide problem), demographic trends – insofar as they

are even taken into consideration (among others Klemm, 2019b) – can only be reacted to in a very lethargic manner. For example, the training duration of primary school teachers, following a three-year Bachelor study, two-year Master's degree study and one and a half years preparatory service (including transitional periods), totals around seven years. The exception to this is Saxony, where the study covers eight semesters/four years (1st state examination) and the preparatory service 1.5 years (2nd state examination). Furthermore, the choice of study of future students is mainly on the situation in the labour market, career and development opportunities and personal preferences. (CHE, 2007; Deutsche Bildung AG, 2017).

In contrast to the public perception, in which lateral entrants are generally regarded problematic, the Association for Teaching Methodology (GFD, 2018, P. 1) sees the difficulty in the lack of concepts which are guided by standards of professional teacher training. Therefore, the Association for Teaching Methodology demands regulated complementary ways of professionalization that can better foster the individual potentials of lateral entrants and assert their qualities in teaching.

A causal reason for the wide debate regarding side-entrants and lateral entrants is the opening of the qualification system for teacher training through the resolution of the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK), (2013)) for the organisation of special measures to obtain teachers for the provision of teaching. Without the standards and "Joint agreements of the Federal States for teacher training" passed by the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) being eroded by this (among others Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK), 2008), "Federal State-specific special measures" (KMK, 2013, P. 2) can be adopted in the event of demand for the provision of teaching. The Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) (2013) fundamentally distinguishes between two possible solutions: *On the one hand,* the "qualification via a preparatory service or comparable training" (KMK, 2013, P. 2), for which as a prerequisite a Master's degree from a university or a degree from a higher education institution equal to this must exist, from which at least two teacher training related subjects can be derived. *On the other hand,* "qualification via additional studies and preparatory service or comparable training" (KMK, 2013, P. 2) is possible. The basis for this is, for example, in the Federal State of Saxony a degree, Master's degree, Magister degree or a degree from a higher education institution equal to this (Teacher Qualification Regulation – Lehrer-QualiVO, Article 4 No. 10). A lack of qualifications can be acquired in-service by candidates. In both cases, the respective Federal State establishes an equivalent

certified qualification following successful completion of the preparatory service as well as the (second) state examination. Both solutions reveal the conceptual vagueness which exists in the media and in politics as well as in the Federal States with regard to lateral entrants and side-entrants and the various Federal State-specific measures for the implementation of the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) resolution. According to Klemm (2019a), while lateral entrants complete a traditional probationary period, side-entrants conclude a second phase of training which is comparable with the probationary period. However, these terms are not used uniformly by the Federal States so it is difficult to assign corresponding regulations and measures.

For the school year 2017/18, the statistics of the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) (2018a) for state school service reveal 34,281 new employees in total for all types of school, of which 4,367 are side-entrants (12.7 percent) who enter school service via the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) regulation. In his analysis, Klemm (2019a) reveals significant differences between the individual Federal States. For example, while the proportion of side-entrants in Bavaria (0 of 4127) and Saarland (0 of 357) totalled zero percent of the new employees, the proportion in Berlin (1266 of 3047) and Saxony (1086 of 2329) was over 40 per-cent in both cases. Except for Saxony, there are forecasts to meet gaps in demand in the individual types of school in all Federal States (Klemm, 2019b). These forecasts are converted into summarised modelling calculations (four years in advance) by the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) (2018a) in order to determine the requirement in the employment of all graduates. These figures point to completely different strategies of the individual Federal States when dealing with the shortage of teachers in relation to the use of the side-entry programmes of varying intensity.

2. Unique Features of the Subject Physical Education

In view of the comprehensive teacher training positions of primary education and the individual types of school of secondary education the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) pointed out in 2011 that "in both the short-term (up to 2011/2012) and the medium- to long-term (up to 2020) the highest employment requirements are anticipated in the subjects Chemistry, Physics, English, Music/Art/Design/Handicrafts and Physical Education. For teacher training or individual types of secondary edu-cation schools in the short- and long-term greater employment requirements are forecast in the subjects Mathematics, Physics, English, French, Art/Design/

Handicrafts, Music and Physical Education" (KMK 2011, P. 19). This general observation with regard to the predicted employment requirements in the various subjects is to be restricted in this article to the subject PE. With regard to current developments, the assessment of the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) (2011) has been confirmed in three ways.

First of all, Physical Education is the subject which with regard to the employment of side-entrants was consistently in the top five places in state school service in the national average over the past five years (cf. KMK, 2015; 2016; 2017; 2018b; 2019). Therefore, side-entrants in the subject Physical Education make up around ten percent of the total in the whole of Germany (e.g. *n* = 410 of *N* = 4,064 in the subjects of general education in 2018; KMK, 2019).

Secondly, the subject Physical Education is declared as a shortage subject in eleven of the 16 Federal States, particularly in primary education. A shortage subject is a teaching subject for which an insufficient amount of qualified teachers is available for the coverage of teaching requirements. As a shortage for all subjects at schools of general education is increasingly developing from the subject-specific shortage of teachers, to some extent this must be put into perspective. This unique feature is due to the fact that Physical Education is one of the few subjects which in the Federal Republic of Germany is taught "continually from the first year up to leaving school" (KMK & German Olympic Sports Federation (DOSB), 2017, P. 8) and "which is to be taught in all year groups, usually with three teaching periods" (KMK & German Olympic Sports Federation (DOSB), 2017, P. 8). In this regard, the importance of the subject Physical Education at the respective school has an impact on the actual implementation of the Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) recommendation. Originating from the school management, this is reflected in particular in the employment and use of professionally trained teachers in Physical Education as well as for substitute teaching and during further training (Kastrup, 2009). Therefore, from the perspective of the school management the cancellation of lessons or non-specialist teaching in the main subjects is more serious than is the case for the subject Physical Education. Two unique features accentuate the specialist distinctive feature of Physical Education in the ensemble of teaching subjects: *On the one hand,* its unique content characteristic as a subject which involves movement with specific types of stress and exertion, in which motor exercises and learning are intimately linked to social learning experiences. In the process, the organism with its structures and functions becomes the object of constructive self-transformations, and these self-transformations are intensively understood and experienced and cognitively reflected (Hummel & Borchert, 2017). Closely associated with this is the growing

importance of cognition-oriented competence models, which have strongly influenced the understanding of Physical Education in the recent past (among others Laging, 2018). *On the other hand,* the distinctive feature is demonstrated in the consistently distinctive methodological and organisational openness in the practical implementation in sport halls, on sports grounds, in swimming baths, on ski slopes, on cross-country skiing paths, special courses and outdoors. Characteristics of Physical Education include competitiveness and competition, regulated competitive behaviour in the context of victory and defeat, varied movements with physical contact, tactical movement behaviour and fouls, the overt visibility of sporting performance execution as well as pronounced emotionality. The use of special sport-specific equipment and materials reinforces the dominant unique features of the subject (Hummel & Borchert, 2014; Hummel & Wendeborn, 2019). In addition, the distinctive feature of the subject includes a certain risk, which is why the principles of promoting safety and the stipulations with regard to supervision must be observed at all times (among others the Accident Insurer Saxony, 2017). These multi-layered requirements are processed by subdisciplines of sports science (sports psychology, sports pedagogics, training science, etc.). Nonetheless, teachers of Physical Education do not work fragmentedly as psychologists, biomechanists, physicians, sociologists or exercise scientists. As a rule, they work as application-oriented synthesis. However, rendering this synthesis performance is linked to requirements, which should not be surrendered to Physical Education teachers in general and lateral entrants in particular alone. This concerns an appropriate foundation in educational sciences and a framing of the real training processes but also a range and classifications of findings in scientific disciplines in concrete training concepts.

Derivatively this means that – *thirdly* – this often-underestimated synthesis performance cannot be accomplished by non-specialists [1]. Subsequently there is inevitably the problem that Physical Education lessons are frequently cancelled or are taught by non-specialists on a very low level. The latter particularly shows in primary education, where only half of the Physical Education teachers possess a teaching-related University degree (German Olympic Sports Federation (DOSB), DSLV & dvs, 2009; Demetriou et al. 2019). In this article, non-specialist teachers are understood as teachers giving lessons in the subject Physical Education, who lack the formal qualification or the teaching qualification [2] for the subject (Porsch, 2016).

3. Physical Education Teacher as a Profession

The occupational profile of a teacher is regarded as prestigious, livelihood securing and promising concerning job opportunities with a clearly structured income. It displays central job-related features: the performance of the job is based on a specific profession-related knowledge, which can be acquired by an academic qualification, confirmed by an educational certificate. Based on the gained knowledge, the field of the teacher's activity underlies a technical definition manifesting in the assignment on education. In addition, teachers can be centrally administered and represented by an appropriate occupational union.

Thereby, professional theoretical approaches in the context of the Physical Education teaching profession are relevant. By means of expert debates on conceptions, the contexts of job-related performance as well as conditions and opportunities of the investigated occupational group can be analysed in more detail. Thereby, profession-related performance competencies of side-entrants become meaningful. According to the findings of profession-related teacher training research (Bromme, 1992; Tillmann, 2011), competence is understood as mastering the professional requirements which are constituent for the teaching profession, which are to be understood as "context-specific cognitive activity scheduling, which relate functionally to situations and requirements in certain domains" (Klieme & Leutner, 2006, P. 879). According to Baumert and Kunter (2006), the subject-related professional knowledge forms an essential component of the professional action competence of teachers. According to Begall and Meier (2016), this is reflected in the domain-specific specialist knowledge, didactical knowledge and the curricular knowledge of Physical Education teachers.

However, Cachay and Kastrup (2006) in their investigations regarding the professionalisation and de-professionalisation of the role of Physical Education, teachers were able to demonstrate that academically trained Physical Education teachers do not have a monopoly on the sporting profession; instead, the subject-related professional knowledge of a Physical Education teacher is also used by other groups of subject teachers. This is explained in particular through the insufficient consolidation of the understanding of the profession of a Physical Education teacher. Kastrup (2009, P. 343) derives from this that "non-specialists can also be assigned the teaching competence for the subject Physical Education and therefore the expertise of a Physical Education teacher." This is particularly the case when Physical Education is reduced to motor learning or conveying sport motor abilities and skills. However, the difference between experts and non-specialists exists when knowledge and values with regard to movement, games and sport as well as methodological didactical knowledge are included.

This professional knowledge required to carry out the Physical Education teaching profession must be acquired by side-entrants with an equally high level of compulsory lessons at a school as part of in-service qualification in two subjects. This requires appropriate offers which do justice to the specific framework conditions in the individual Federal States. Through this the teachers giving lessons in the subject Physical Education in the future are to be qualified to prepare themselves for Physical Education with the inclusion of specialist knowledge and be able to react flexibly to the respective teaching situations in a methodological didactic manner (Ottenheim & Wendeborn, acc.). Closely linked to this are processes of the subjective development of theory and the development of the epistemological convictions of teachers (Baumert & Kunter, 2006).

4. Teacher Training in the Free State of Saxony

Taking into consideration the high number of side-entrants, the classification of Physical Education as a shortage subject (State Ministry of Culture Saxony, 2017) and ultimately the reduction of the proportion of compulsory subject classes for the subject Physical Education in the timetable (DSLV Sachsen, 2018), it is particularly interesting to see how these developments are dealt with in the Free State of Saxony. In this article, the objectives of the Saxon qualification programme for side-entrants in the subject Physical Education are to be discussed, in order to be able to identify strengths and weaknesses with regard to the described problem area and ultimately derive implications.

First of all, it must be stated that teacher training courses at all locations in Saxony and in all subjects are completed through the first state examination (first phase of teacher training), which is regulated by an applicable state examination regulation (LAPO I) for all five higher education institutions [3]. The first state examination is a prerequisite for access to the preparatory service (second phase of teacher training), which in Saxony usually takes 18 months and is also regulated by the Federal State through an appropriate examination regulation (LAPO II) (Oelkers, 2018). Access to the profession at state schools can take place in the Free State of Saxony following successful completion of preparatory service through the second state examination. According to the Ministry of Education of Saxony, in the second phase "the pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of subject didactics, experiences and abilities acquired during study at the higher education institution, are to be extended and broadened in close relation to classroom teaching by future teachers in a manner which means they are able to perform the educational and teaching task as a teacher in a responsible

and successful manner" (Teacher Training Examination Regulation II Article 1 – LAPO II).

Through the signing of the employment contract, side-entrants commit to apply for appropriate qualification measures. During this period, a contractual reduction of the work obligation is usually required. Immediately after the commencement of employment, the side-entrants usually first of all complete a three-month period of entry-level training, which is organised within the catchment area of the respective location of the State Office for Schools and Education (Bautzen, Chemnitz, Dresden, Leipzig and Zwickau). In this phase, experienced teachers, former headmasters and mentors convey knowledge, abilities and skills with regard to the essential sequences of the school routine and teaching structures. Subsequently there is usually an in-service phase of qualification to make up for a lack of pedagogical and specialist competences. The qualification offers are individually designed and built on the existing higher education institution degree. The qualification measure serves to achieve a training level in the medium term, which is equivalent to the Saxon teachers who trained as undergraduates (State Ministry of Culture Saxony, 2019). In secondary schools, for example, a side-entrant with the Magister degree in English/German studies (both as a main subject) must merely complete the one-year in-service preparatory service in order to obtain equivalence with the Saxon teacher. However, the graduates of the course of study Master of Sport Science lack the second subject which they must first of all study in-service (usually two years) in order to subsequently attend the in-service preparatory service.

With reference to the explanations about the professional knowledge of the teachers giving lessons in the subject Physical Education, only the teaching qualification in the core subject Physical Education can be acquired via side-entry if a sports science study at a higher education institution has been completed. However, for all training and further training measures with the subject area Physical Education, it merely involves a certificate with which the school management is to be given information about which domain-specific knowledge bases have been completed. The side-entrants can, corresponding with the guidelines of the Accident Insurer (Unfallkasse), teach independently, but they do not possess permission to teach, and do not possess a teaching qualification within the meaning of a teacher trained as an undergraduate for the subject Physical Education.[4]

The path to equivalence with the Saxon teacher in the subject Physical Education varies depending on the type of school. In the primary school, didactics must first of all be studied in-service. This is scheduled for a duration of 24 months (modus operandi: three days at school, two days at university). For the

three days at the school, employment in 16 teaching periods is recommended. Six personal extracurricular periods mean the extent of overall employment rises to 22. The financial loss during study in comparison with a full-time position (27 teaching periods) is therefore reduced. Subsequently, the preparatory service is completed in-service (modus operandi: four days at school, one seminar day at the teacher training institution, two personal extracurricular periods). With regard to the study of primary school didactics (consisting of German, Mathematics, Social Studies and Educational Science), the problem arises that Physical Education can be chosen as the fourth subject in the subsequent preparatory service. This can mean that a side-entrant receives the teaching qualification in primary school didactics with the subsidiary subject Physical Education without ever having studied Physical Education. This is also the case when a candidate in another Federal State has completed a teacher training course in which no subsidiary fourth subject exists.

The situation is similar at special-needs schools. In this case, a special-needs topic must first of all be studied in-service for 24 months, before in-service preparatory service is subsequently completed.

For secondary schools, grammar schools (Gymnasien) and vocational schools, two different qualification options exist. With *Version A*, practical school training can be completed in-service over a duration of 12 months (modus operandi: four days at school, one day seminar) and through this the teaching qualification for the subject Physical Education isacquired. Subsequently the second subject is also studied in-service, for which the teaching qualification is immediately granted following completion. With *Version B*, a second subject can also be first studied in-service in order to subsequently complete the in-service preparatory service.

The in-service study of the subject Physical Education is not provided for by the Ministry of Education of Saxony (SMK) or the relevant universities. However, for the subject Physical Education there is a qualification measure with a series of modules scheduled for two years, at the end of which the graduates receive a certificate, which certifies them to be able to teach Physical Education. This measure is designed in-service for teachers giving lessons in the subject Physical Education, but not for teachers trained as undergraduates. Alongside general educational science competences, the side-entrants are to acquire in particular domain-specific didactic, methodological and reflexive competences. In the process, the phases of theoretical input and teaching – as a core competence of the teaching profession (Meier, 2015) – are interconnected and accompanied by the phases of teaching reflection. This approach corresponds with the ideas of Schön (1983) about the "reflective practitioner" and his differentiation between

knowing in action, *reflection in action* and *reflection on action*. However, it must be noted that for schools – in particular for the school management and the planning team – reflexively designed training first of all signifies more work. This is because sustainably structured reflection is also associated with additional work. Ideally, time slots would be created for this or blended learning scenarios used as a basis for reflexive exchange (in detail on this topic, see Borchert, Fritzenberg & Schlöffel, 2017).

The content-related organisation is oriented towards the content requirements common to all Federal States for the disciplines and subject didactics in teacher training (KMK, 2008), the requirements for the organisation of preparatory service common to all Federal States and the final state examination (KMK, 2012) as well as ultimately towards the applicable framework curricula for the subject Physical Education of the Free State of Saxony. In particular, the reception and use of framework curricula is, according to Stibbe (2016), a constituent prerequisite for a successful teaching structure of teachers. They form the basis on which specialist knowledge is used and applied. Even though Stibbe and Ingelmann (2011) were able to show that the Physical Education teachers giving lessons in the subject Physical Education barely or insufficiently possessed specific knowledge about the curriculum, side-entrants have the responsibility of a fully trained teacher for lessons. This means that the teaching must be organised corresponding to the curriculum and ultimately has – in the event of an accident during Physical Education – insurance-related consequences (Hummel & Wendeborn, 2019).

In the total of six modules, the participants are able to acquire competences for all sports and specific sports in different sub-areas, and in this way, they gain access to specialist content, which is fundamental for work in the different types of sport and study areas. This includes, for example, aspects of school legislation, safety in school sport as well as ultimately the domain-specific study areas (sports games, athletics, gymnastics etc.) of the framework curricula Physical Education of the various types of school (Tables 1 and 2). The domain specifics are closely linked to the subject didactics expertise of the prospective Physical Education teachers, as each individual domain requires corresponding knowledge. In the specific examination of the topic as part of further training (theoretically as well as from a practical sport perspective) an appreciation of the methodological and organisational proportion of Physical Education comes into effect, which in the current discussion of the subject Physical Education has been marginalised by some Physical Education pedagogues (Catchword: trivial methodological matters) and dismissed in favour of reflection (Krug, Wendeborn & Hummel, 2019). In this regard, it must be stated that the encouragement of

Table 1. Modules for the Side-Entrants of Primary Education

Primary School		M	o	d	u	l	E
No.	Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	Overall points
1	Legal Instruction	4		4				8
2	Sport Safety	2		2				4
3	Fundamentals/Basics	6	4	4	4	4	4	26
4	Athletics	16			16			32
5	Games	4	4	6	14	14	14	56
6	Swimming				6	6	6	18
7	Rescue Skills	8	8	8				24
8	Gymnastics/Dance/Aerobics		8	8				16
9	Gym (Physical Education)		8	8		16		32
10	Fitness/Health		8	0	0		8	16
11	Martial Arts						8	8
	Total							240

motor development of 20 or more children is not possible without basic methodological and didactical knowledge (Hummel & Borchert, 2014).

5. Conclusion and Outlook

In the past 20 years, the conceptualisation and measurement of subject-related professional knowledge of prospective and practising teachers has gone through a cyclical upturn. To begin with, the focus was particularly placed on the mathematics, informatics, natural science, and technology (MINT) subjects (Kunter et al., 2011), subsequently the investigations were also concerned with the subject Physical Education (among others Meier, 2015; Begall & Meier, 2016). Apart from a few investigations (among others Kastrup, 2009), all investigations of the point of reference of the conventional teacher training biography have a common factor with the first, second and third phase. The development of the professional action competence of side-entrants, as well as the effect of comprehensive use on the "monopoly of Physical Education teachers," (Kastrup, 2009, P. 334) has not previously been investigated. At best, the investigations of Cachay and Kastrup (2006) with regard to professionalisation/de-professionalisation in the Physical Education teaching profession allow inferences to be made with

Table 2. Modules for the Side-Entrants of Secondary Education

Secondary School		M	o	d	u	l	e	
No.	Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	Overall points
1	Legal Instruction	4		4				8
2	Sport Safety	2		2				4
3	Fundamentals/Basics	6	4	4	4	4	4	26
4	Athletics	16			16			32
5	Games	12	12	14	14	14	14	80
6	Swimming	0	0	0	0	6	0	6
7	Rescue skills	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Gymnastics/Dance/Aerobics		8	8				16
9	Gym (Physical Education)		8	8		16		32
10	Fitness/Health		8	0	6		8	22
11	Martial Arts					0	14	14
	Total							240

regard to side-entrants. In view of the shortage of teachers in almost all types of school and subjects in the Federal Republic of Germany and the associated high number of side-entrants in general and in Physical Education in particular, a research field has come about within a comparatively short period of time, which until a few years ago largely led a niche existence due to the absence of necessity. According to Tillmann (2019, P. 13), "in the educational sciences and in educational policy reflection [...] in future the shortage of teachers should therefore no longer be viewed so much as a cyclical crisis, but rather as a continuous side effect of normal school development. Although cyclical waves of supply and demand exist in this regard, sectoral shortages also exist for certain regions, school year groups and teaching subjects in phases where a great many qualified teachers are available." Respectively, the Association of Teaching Methodology (GFD, 2018, P. 1) criticises the "missing of concepts, guided by the standards of a professional teacher training."

In view of the various programmes and regulations for side-entry in the Federal States, it must be clear that, in view of the time available and the guidelines and standards which are to be fulfilled, it merely involves reduced insights into the Physical Education teaching profession. This inevitably results in the obligation of the Ministries of the Federal States responsible for education as well as subordinate institutions on the one hand to take steps in education policy to reduce

both the amount of lessons given by non-specialists as well as the huge number of side-entrants. This also needs to contain an improvement of the occupational perspectives for teachers in the primary sector but also the equalisation with those of the secondary sector. On the other hand, the side-entrants, who have permission to teach in state school service, must be continually monitored in their domain-specific competence development, their reflection competence, their growth in an expert role as a Physical Education teacher as well as ultimately in their stress and exertion profiles. If the aim is a genuine qualification of teachers on the part of the Federal States (also in view of the possible use as specialist advisors, headmasters or deputy headmasters), it is important to not just fill gaps in demand in the short-term, but to strive for a qualification which is planned in a sustainable manner. With the inclusion/consideration of these prerequisites, the training programmes cannot end with the attainment of the access prerequisites for the teaching profession. For this, the various forms of supervision are an appropriate and proven method. Ultimately the schools of the side-entrants also profit (Catchword word: From teacher to mentor to pupil; Richter-Kruse, 2019).

However, not only educational policy and administration are obligated to act. The pressure also lies on universities and the associated disciplines. Initially, the courses of studies for future Physical Education teachers must be redesigned that they fulfil the standards of the core curriculum of the German Association of Sport Science (dvs, 2017) for Bachelor study programmes concerning extent and content. Furthermore, those training courses need to be guided by the requirements for scientific disciplines and teaching methodology in teacher education agreed upon by all federal states of Germany (KMK, 2008). In addition, universities must hold enough places to study, especially for teaching in primary schools. This involves the appropriate amount of equipment and staff at the institutes of sport science. Particularly, among all fields of sport science in teacher education, sport pedagogics needs to be considered, being the Physical Education teacher's specific professional science including sport didactics and methodology. Contemporary sport pedagogics does not or just partly meet the expenses of an integrated job-related discipline with its constructively synthesizing tasks and leading function for different reasons. The reference to other specific disciplines of sport science clarifies that sport pedagogics does not only come into play when "disturbances" in lessons need to be compensated or social learning processes initiated. The abbreviation of the scientific discipline is a distinct achievement of sport pedagogics (sport didactics and methodology). Nonetheless, it does not seem possible to accredit sport pedagogics with a central role for the development of school sports and the subject Physical Education.

The aspiration to be the supervising science for school sports and to be accepted as the professional science of Physical Education teachers cannot be fulfilled appropriately anymore. The arisen functional and structural vacuum was formally and rationally charged by other disciplines (of sport science) in the meantime. This happens in an extremely ambitious manner by sport psychology, sport medicine, training and movement methodology as well as biomechanics. The pedagogical tasks are "somehow" exercised by the implicit pedagogical appendices of those disciplines. However, the former discourse on sport pedagogics, if it is a core discipline or just a subdiscipline, is academically little beneficial (Kurz, 1992; Scherler, 1992). The focus must be on the concrete destination of functions and tasks. In so far, sport pedagogics is a subdiscipline with special job-related, synthesizing functions for the major professional groups in sports. Just by that, it can (again) become the highly demanded professional science for both active Physical Education teachers as well as side-entrants.

The Free State of Saxony is under particular observation in view of the high percentage of side-entrants. Particularly also because in view of political constraints and the evolving realities at schools from the school year 2019/20 for Physical Education (but also in other teaching subjects), there will be a change to the timetable (DSLV Sachsen, 2018) [5]. With regard to the empirical findings regarding the physical, physiological and psychological/mental development of children and young people, these decisions must at least be scrutinised. An improvement of the attractiveness of the Physical Education teaching profession will probably not result from this. The path can only lead via an expansion of capacities at the universities in Saxony, without creating a situation of a higher number of students with the same levels of personnel. In addition, target agreements between the Ministry and the universities must also be adapted in order to do justice to the actual requirements of the respective type of school and subject-specific requirements. For the subject Physical Education a change to the entry requirements for teacher training study – including the selection procedure and assessments of suitability – is conceivable. However, such adjustments must do justice to the specific requirements of the subject Physical Education.

[1] Kastrup (2009) has written in detail about the use of non-specialist teachers in PE and the effects on the expert status of Physical Education teachers.

[2] "A teaching qualification for one subject (or two or more subjects) is acquired in Germany in connection with a teacher training qualification for certain teacher training positions (e.g. at primary schools or grammar schools (Gymnasien) usually with the successful completion of the (second) state examination and represents proof of subject-related education, which

means, during study (1st phase) and during the probationary period or pre-
paratory service (2nd phase) this subject was a study and training subject"
(Porsch, 2016, P. 11).

[3] Leipzig University, Dresden University of Technology, Chemnitz University
of Technology, University of Music and Theatre "Felix Mendelsohn
Bartholdy" Leipzig, the "Carl Maria von Weber" College of Music in
Dresden.

[4] In the other subjects, the Free State of Saxony pursues the strategy of
catching up on the lacking qualification requirements of the teacher training
related subject via in-service studies. The permission to teach is subse-
quently granted for a respective type of school, whereby the higher educa-
tion institution degree corresponds with regard to specialism, content and
extent as far as possible with the criteria stipulated in the Teacher Training
Examination Regulation I (LAPO I).

[5] In primary schools in the 3rd grade, there is a reduction of one lesson
in Music, and in the 4th grade a reduction of one lesson in German and
Physical Education. In secondary schools in 7th and 8th grades, one lesson
of Social Studies/Legal Instruction is obligatory. For this one lesson of
Mathematics (5th grade), English (6th grade), Biology (7th grade) and
Physical Education (for each grade 7 to 10) is omitted. In the grammar
school (Gymnasium) from the 7th grade, Social Studies/Legal Instruction/
Economics are obligatory (previously from 9th grade) and in grades 9 and
10 Computer Science lessons are obligatory (already the case from August
2018). There is one lesson fewer in Mathematics and Technology/Computer
Science (5th grade), 2nd Foreign Language (6th and 8th grade), Biology (7th
grade), Physical Education (7th grade) and Music (8th grade) in each case.

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Itziar Iriondo, Itziar Plazaola and Teresa Zulaika

Chapter 4   How Can I Train Myself to Be an Expert Teacher? A Teaching Practicum Experience

Abstract: This chapter presents the results of a research study focusing on a training environment designed to foster the language teaching skills of novice teachers. The study is located within the field of video-based training, which in turn forms part of the research and training approach known as activity analysis. The focus of study is a teaching Practicum. Identifying the process through which novice teachers must go to become expert teachers leads us to explore a highly complex and interlinked series of phenomena. The chapter will highlight the specific characteristics of novice teachers' activity, the development of their training, one typical activity linked to language teaching and the need for collaboration agreements between schools and universities.

Keywords: teacher training, activity analysis, self-confrontation, training environment, Teaching Practicum

1. Introduction

The challenge posed by teacher training is how to help students become proficient, professional teachers. For years, the main focus was a knowledge of the subject matter to be taught and traditional teaching theory itself, but this approach is necessarily limited, since teaching can only really be learned through practical experience. Ensuring that novice teachers become quickly familiarised with the practice of teaching requires new effort and orientations. And indeed, this is precisely the aim of this research project[1]: to develop effective methods for helping trainee teachers learn their profession, particularly within the field of language teaching, and to validate and improve said methods through research.

This study is located within the framework of research into training environments. Such research is based on works focusing on cognitive ergonomics (Durand, 2008; Clot et al. 2001), as well as, in general, on a type of initial and lifelong training known as video-based training and the research that has been

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1   HIPREST, the study presented here forms part of the research programme on language teacher training (see Plazaola et al., 2013).

conducted into this method (Gaudin & Chaliès, 2012; Hatch & Grossman, 2009; Lussi Borer et al., 2014; Picard, 2014; Santagata & Yeh, 2015; Seidel et al., 2011; van Es & Sherin, 2008). Within the broad field of research into training, this study falls within the area focused on *work activity*.

In addition to describing an experience which combines novice teachers' Practicums with their End-of-Degree Thesis (EDT), the chapter also outlines the research that has been conducted in relation to the training process itself.

The research questions we seek to answer are as follows:

How do novice teachers act in the classroom? What resources do they find useful in their activity? What does the action mean to them? What would help them improve their performance? How can we help novice teachers become proficient in their profession?

2. Theoretical Orientation: the Study of Human Activity

Research into work, activity and practice has increased over recent years, mainly due to the more pragmatic approach now adopted by Human and Social Sciences (Leontiev, 1979) In turn, these orientations have resulted in major innovations within the field of Education and Training, with working sessions (in this case, novice teachers' classroom Practicums) becoming the subject of analysis. Through this fusion of teacher-student activities, the aim is to move beyond those models that view teacher training as a mere process of knowledge transmission.

Research into teaching is generally based on theories of human action or human activity, including Schütz's theory of social action, Dewey's pragmatism, Varela's enaction theory and the activity theories developed by the Russian schools of philosophy and psychology.

One of the starting points for the theoretical framework used was as follows: in order to understand human action, it is important to explore the meaning the action carried out has for the agent, or in other words, it is important to analyse the agent's own experience. Based on Husserl's work, the theory developed by Schütz focuses on the appropriation of experience and the construction of meaning contexts. Certain aspects of this theory are vital to the research project presented here. The most important are outlined below.

According to Schütz, the agent perceives the action's situations, the actions themselves or the kinds of activity in question in relation to a set of types. Types represent typical ways of dealing with action situations, and offer solutions based on common methods (Cefaï, 1994).

When faced with a specific situation, the agent reflects before acting, revisiting the past in order to identify similar activities from their own experience. This helps them to discern what kind or type of action situation the new situation they are now facing is. This process of reflection is based on the (socially organised) types available to the agent, and on their own accumulated experience. But activity types are not repeated mechanically. When faced with any action situation, an agent must adapt and adjust the characteristics of previous experiences to those of the new situation, as the new situation develops. This is called typification. Typifications, then, are not reasoning processes conducted in accordance with strict formal logic; they are not operations based on abstract knowledge; nor are they based on generalities rooted in specific observation.

Of all the concepts described above, one in particular should be highlighted: the agent's "pre-predictive" experience, i.e. that which comes before its recounting or description, is organised into social activity "types." The agent has recourse to these types and uses them in their experiences, engaging in constant and ongoing typification operations. In the case of teachers, actions such as solving an arithmetic problem, singing as a group or explaining a topic, etc. are all examples of activity types pertaining to the school environment. The memory of completed activities enables what has been done before to be "recovered" in a new situation, thus informing the agent's actions in that situation. This is all aided by previsions based on past experience.

This theoretical outlook highlights the importance of the activities carried out by the agent and their meaning context.

3. Training and Research Methodology

3.1 Methodological Tools for Analysing the Agent's Experience

The chosen training methods seek to encourage novice teachers to gather samples of their activity and then provide them with the necessary conditions for analysing them. To this end, in addition to gathering other kinds of data, a video-based training-research method is proposed which encompasses a range of individual and group observation tools, including (most importantly) self-confrontation, cross-confrontation and group-confrontation interviews. These methodologies provide the agent with the opportunity to observe the development of their own activity, air any doubts that may arise, generate meanings linked to their activity and reflect upon the thoughts provoked by the images.

The agent's experience and the fact that they have to explain it in words help shed light on it and develop it further. Therefore, in addition to being training methods, these tools are also research instruments.

The confrontation methods used were developed by approaches based on the precepts of cognitive ergonomics. The first is the "Technological Research Programme" (Durand, 2008; Theureau, 2010) which, based on the understanding and analysis of real activity, proposes the generation of new training devices. The second is called "Clinic of Activity" (Clot, 2001) and is based on Vygotsky and Bakhtin's concept of speech activity psychology.

Self-confrontation interviews have different meanings in different theories. In the technological programme (Durand, 2008; Theureau, 2010), one of the basic hypotheses is that of enaction. According to this programme, providing the conditions are right; an agent is at all times capable of presenting, explaining, simulating, recounting and commenting on their activity. A second hypothesis defends the idea of "pre-thought awareness." According to this concept, self-confrontation is a means of tapping into our pre-thought awareness. In other words, self-confrontation forces to the surface not only the asymmetry of the interaction between the agent and their environment, but also the complex time organisation of that same environment.

Underlying the Clinic of Activity approach is another postulate, namely that any action which passes through the thought filter becomes a reflexive action. Thus, according to this approach, work will only truly change through joint action by the agent and their work colleagues. The use of interviews were therefore proposed since, firstly, they enable agents to see their work in a different light, and secondly, they encourage them to take new courses of action into consideration (Clot et al., 2001).

In our approach, language itself is seen as a constructive and form-generating element. In self-confrontation interviews, agents typify their activity, specifying how they did it, what type of exercise it was, how it transformed, who the participants were and what actions they took, etc. (Alonso et al, 2017; Plazaola and Ruiz Bikandi, 2012; Plazaola et al., 2013).

When used as a training and research method, self-confrontation has a number of specific characteristics. Firstly, it is based on video recordings of classroom activity. Secondly, the researcher must then prompt the agent to analyse the behaviour they are seeing. To this end, it is best to provide clear instructions in order to help the agent to revisit that particular moment in that particular classroom. The aim is to avoid general reflections on teaching, in order to encourage the agent to turn the specific classroom experience they are reliving into discursive form. It is a good idea to engage in a detailed analysis

of what actually happened. The interview that takes place between the agent and the researcher is not a normal interview; the aim is to understand what happened in the classroom from the agent's perspective. The conversation is not, therefore, particularly organised, and the researcher does not follow a pre-prepared script.

Self-confrontation interviews should be held in comfortable, familiar surroundings, since this makes it easier for the agent to immerse themselves in their past activities and is more conducive to the kind of discourse required by the situation, i.e. spontaneous reflection and observation. This process enables the development of typification: analysing what has been done, exploring its meanings, identifying limits and coming up with ideas for improvement.

Within this framework, self-confrontation interviews constitute a transformational tool which enables agents to gain greater insight into their experience, thereby providing opportunities to change and develop it.

Taking into account their broad-scale observation of the training process, and using all available samples, the researcher-instructor interprets the novice teacher's trajectory (the physical and symbolic environment in which the activity took place, what the teaching aim and syllabus was, and the agents' (students') participation and the quality of their learning process). This broad-scale observation constitutes the principal tool the instructor-researcher uses to guide the interviews.

3.2 Corpus and Analysis Instruments

This chapter presents a teacher training experience carried out in the Teacher Training School in Donostia-San Sebastián at the University of the Basque Country, during the 2013–2014 and 2014–2015 academic years. The project aimed to combine the Practicum of the fourth year of the Primary and Pre-Primary Teacher Training Degree (from here on PIII) and the EDT, in an experience in which students were asked to analyse and reflect upon their own teaching activity.

A total of 31 students from year 4 of the PIII participated in the experience. Of these, 11 were Basque as an education instrument minors and 20 were foreign language minors. Students' PIIIs lasted 12 weeks and were carried out in a number of different schools.

During the course of the Practicums, students were asked to record a classroom session that they themselves had prepared, and it was during this phase also that the research team began to gather other data. This procedure enabled them to gain a first-hand knowledge of the process and its development, among

other things in order to be able to help participants overcome any obstacles that may arise and to resolve any doubts.

Within a short time after the end of the PIIIs, self-confrontation interviews were arranged between participants and their university tutors. In some cases, group-confrontation interviews were also held.

The whole process of reflecting on and analysing one's own teaching activity then became the backbone of the students' EDTs, in which they were mainly required to focus on issues linked to language teaching. The following are some of the titles of the EDTs submitted by participating students: *Catching and holding attention. A self-analysis of a session. Novice teacher training using video recordings: reading comprehension.*

3.2.1 Corpus

As mentioned earlier, the corpus of the research project comprised the training process samples pertaining to students from two different academic years. Some of these are video recordings, while others are written texts, namely the students' EDTs and posters and the notes taken by instructors during their visits to the placement schools. This chapter presents examples which illustrate the most significant phenomena that emerged during the analysis of the material. The experiences of three students were used for the purposes of this study. The following [Tables 1 and 2] is a detailed breakdown of the corpus:

3.2.2 Analysis Instruments

Interview Script

When a novice teacher watches the recording of their session, and particularly when they do so with their instructor, they believe they are assessing it. This is how this social situation is implicitly interpreted. Therefore, the interview script is designed to encourage a detailed description and analysis of the activity, avoiding assessment and/or justifications as much as possible. As in semi-guided interviews, instructors strive to avoid using the syntactical form *why*?, instead of asking *how*?.

The issues borne in mind by the researcher-instructor conducting the interview are classified as follows:

1. How did the novice teacher adapt their activity? Did they prepare it? What type of action did they engage in? On what did they base their lesson plan?

Table 1: 2013/2014 Corpus

2013/2014 academic year Year 4.	Basque minor / total	English minor / total
Classroom sessions recorded by novice teachers	9 / 9	10 / 15
Self-confrontation interviews mean duration of each session: 60'	8 / 8	10 / 10
Group-confrontation interviews mean duration of each session: 60'	0 / 0	3 /3
EDTs Mean num. of pages: 25	8 / 8	10 / 10
Other materials in the corpus	• Workshop scripts and notes • Videos from the first 'Initiation module' workshop: 2 • Forum themes and notes • Novice teachers' diaries: 10 • Notes from school visits: 18 • PIII reports: 18. (mean num. of pages: 15) • Transcripts: sessions recorded by teachers: 60'; self-confrontation interviews: 80'. • EDT posters: 18.	

What inspired them? Did they use any other activities as a reference? What role did the knowledge they acquired during their university training play in the organisation of the activity? What were their motivation and intentions?

2. What happened? Using the recorded images when necessary, the instructor asks the following questions: what are you doing here? What's happening there? The aim is to draw the novice teacher's attention to specific events.

3. What was the experience like for them? Did they encounter any obstacles, and if so, what did they change or adjust in their activity to overcome them?

4. After doing all this, how do they view their activity now? When watching the recording, how does what happened appear to them? How do they rate what they did? How has analysing the recording affected them?

5. What would help them to improve their performance?

Table 2: 2014/2015 Corpus

2014/2015 academic year Year 4.	Basque minor / total	English minor / total
Classroom sessions recorded by novice teachers	3 / 4	10 / 22
Self-confrontation interviews mean duration of each session: 60'	3 / 3	10 / 10
Group-confrontation interviews mean duration of each session: 60'	0 / 0	4 / 4
EDTs Mean num. of pages: 25	3 / 3	10 / 10
Other materials in the corpus	• Workshop scripts and notes • Forum themes and notes • Novice teachers' diaries: 10 • Notes from school visits: 13 • PIII reports: 13. (mean num. of pages: 15) • Transcripts: sessions recorded by teachers: 20'; self-confrontation interviews: 60' • EDT posters: 13	

These are the issues which inform the researcher-instructor's actions. It is therefore not an interview guided by a pre-established set of questions. In accordance with the research project's theoretical and methodological framework, the interviewer seeks to help change the novice teacher's discourse, since the aim is to encourage them to analyse their teaching activity while watching the video recording, but not solely through the use of reason and logic, i.e. not solely by answering the question *why*?

Analysis of the Action Statement

The focus of the analyses of the images, discourses and texts contained in the corpus were the *action statements* used by agents to describe all the different aspects of their activity. When analysing the activity, both students and instructors engage in secondary typification, i.e. typification that takes place after the activity has been completed. Our analysis focuses on the action statements made during those conversations. The criteria for selecting which statements to analyse include some which are linked to content and others which refer to syntax that reflect the action and the statements themselves (mainly modelisations),

since these reveal the speaker's stance and attitude towards the activity, specifying factors such as capacity, intent and assessment, etc.

To identify the samples pertaining to the novice teachers, and based on the statement and discourse analysis method (Bronckart, 1997), the following instrument is proposed:

1. Identification of the Activity

What activity are they talking about? The one shown in the recording and/or another one taken as a reference: (another activity carried out by the agent, either individually or collectively, one commonly carried out in the classroom, i.e. a prescriptive activity, etc.)?

(This will help us understand, firstly, the *activity type* itself, and secondly, its *typicality*, i.e. what the reference activities are for the agent-group; what, for them, is a paradigmatic activity; and how they group these activities together).

2. Anchoring of the Statement

The time and place of the mentioned activity or activity element in relation to either the moment of the statement or another reference point: prior to the activity, during the activity, or after the activity (e.g. during the interview). The main linguistic indicators here are connectors and verbs.

3. Description of the Activity's Transformation
   - *Adaptation of the activity*: Whether or not it was prepared beforehand, what type of activity it was and its sequence, structure and phase.
   - *Essential agency*: Indicators of agency. Who-to-whom, with whom and for whom was the action taken?
   - *The mental and emotional experiences of the teacher and the students*: The intentions, aims, desires, fears and concerns regarding the activity. These are indicated by the verb lexemes and modelisations linked to the action verb [simple assertion (*they spent around 25 minutes playing*); wish (*I wanted to work a little on vocabulary*); belief (*I assumed the others would try to find it also*); need].
   - *Aspects of the activity environment*: The conditions of the physical and symbolic situation (time, class situation, material, methods, etc.).
   - *Teacher's intentions and motivations*: How the activity fits into the syllabus, didactic and pedagogic content.
4. Assessment of the Activity Carried Out

Positive assessment (Ass+), negative assessment (Ass-) or doubt (Ass?) and the reasons for this: students, learning environment, etc.

Criteria upon which said assessment is based: (in accordance with beliefs, values, rules or tastes): On what is the assessment based? Which aspects of a given activity were good, poor, inadequate, difficult, etc. And why?

5. Other Explanations:

Professional debates, guided recounting of the action, activity-related limits and obstacles, etc.

4. Results of the Analysis

In the cases studied, a number of characteristics were identified that were common to all the Practicum students. This chapter will focus mainly on the following three, which emerged with a fair degree of frequency: the different roles adopted by novice teachers; the changing way in which they study the activity and references to certain aspects of language teaching.

4.1 Unusual Conditions for Novice Teachers

One of the most illustrative common traits identified among 4th year Teacher Training students was that they become novice teachers for a space of three months, and during that time, are obliged to work under what are, for them, unusual conditions, conditions that they have not encountered previously and, in all likelihood, will not encounter again at any other point in their lives. During those twelve weeks, they are neither students nor teachers, or they are both students and teachers at the same time.

4.1.1 Relations with the Class Tutor

The novice teacher role played by teacher training students during the Practicums varied from situation to situation and is influenced by the relationship they establish with their assigned class's tutor or mentor. In some cases, they will often have the opportunity to engage in real teaching, and will prepare and manage their own sessions; in other cases, however, they will be afforded very few opportunities for real participation. Most of the students in our study found that their mentor did their best to help them, but not all class tutors interpret the purpose and nature of a Practicum in the same way, and some students reported feeling undervalued and disregarded. This situation can have a major impact on their activity.

As evident in the example below, one student called Mireia had a number of different experiences during her Practicum. Being able to fully play the role

of teacher made her feel happy and was useful for her development. Novice teachers need to feel trusted to fulfil their role when engaging in their activity, and highlight the need to leave advice and recommendations for later, once the session is over.

Mireia, 2013–2014. Foreign Language: Self-confrontation.

(7:35) M: Well, and then, I got supernervous when the teacher started talking, and, I don't know, I felt a bit. . . buff, I don't know if you understand me, but, as if I were not doing well. . .

Instructor: As if she were subtracting authority?

M: yes, that too, but. . . then I, she did like. . . as produce a doubt, I am not doing well, or I am not explaining well, or. . . and, the truth is that, of course, it is very complicated to say that to a teacher, please, let me do that myself, but, I need to admit that, for me, it was an obstacle.

(12:58): M: In the other class (...) with another teacher, my participation has been very different, I must admit (...) er. . . well, we haven't done it as all we said at the beginning, prepare the lessons, then compare them with her. . . that wasn't like that, but it was like. . . I don't know, she inspired me much confidence, I can tell you that I have taught the lessons myself, prepared by myself, then we said, we will watch them following the guide no? (...) but, for me, it has been an experience. . . that is, it has made me. . . I have enjoyed a lot and I have prepared a lot of material.

In some cases, concerns were aired regarding the role that novice teachers were supposed to play in the sessions they taught throughout the course of their Practicum. They reflect on this aspect often. On some occasions, having to share the role of teacher with the class tutor gives rise to uncomfortable situations.

At other times, on the other hand, these situations are seen as being highly satisfactory and extremely useful for their training process.

This aspect of the Practicum merits closer attention from those responsible for teacher training; it should be analysed from the perspective of training content in order to ensure a minimum agreement regarding teamwork.

Exploring the distribution of roles between the novice and the expert teacher may serve to enrich the training process.

4.1.2 Unfamiliar Situations

The students in the placement school are also often unsure as to what the novice teacher's specific role and duties are, and this situation often prompts novice teachers to play a role that does not correspond to that of a real teacher. The corpus contains many samples related to this issue. The following example is an illustrative case.

A novice teacher called Maitane explains that the situation was unusual; firstly, because she was acting as the teacher that day rather than the class's normal tutor, and secondly because the activity she proposed was new for the students. Nevertheless, and even though she presented her activity to the class as something special, she did not want the students to see the experience as something unusual.

Maitane, 2014–2015. Foreign Language: Self-Confrontation

> (8:48) M: They don't see which my role is very clearly, because if they had seen me taking the coursebooks and I don't know what… maybe they would have seen me as the other one (the teacher), but, maybe, in this case, perhaps they didn't see me like her.

She explains the link between the students' role and her role, and clearly understands the plural agency of the activity: "they don't understand my role is very clearly." The fact that the situation is unusual for the students makes her job harder. She expresses the essential agency which characterises the activity using the following pronoun system:

I; My – We (Students – Me) – They; Them (Students) – the Other (Tutor)

The curious use of "other" indicates a certain degree of tension regarding the similarities and differences she sees between herself and her mentor: "'me and the other," or in other words, the other teacher, the one who usually fulfils the role I'm in now. This suggests similarity, equality. Yet at the same time, it seems that she does not want, does not mean to or cannot imitate her mentor's activity. It is also worth highlighting the fact that the use of "we" in the novice teacher's discourse here refers to herself and the students; by referring to the tutor as "the other" she effectively excludes her from the activity. The normal tutor's activity is described as consisting of "simply picking up the textbook and…."

4.1.3 Perspectives on Teaching

PIII students may be novice teachers, but they still have their own knowledge and criteria regarding teaching. Sometimes, when they come into contact with their mentor's teaching style, they do not agree with what they see (*I don't like it, I don't agree...*), often because what is done at their placement school (the methods used or the habits and customs in place) simply does not coincide with their own teaching theories and criteria. This issue emerges many times in the critical opinions expressed in the corpus.

In the example below, the novice teacher is talking about the autonomy of the students in her class. She compares the practice of letting students do the entire activity alone with that of giving them a kind of "half-completed" exercise to help them along, seeming at some level to realise that the latter practice risks undermining the learning challenge inherent in the activity.

Maitane, 2014–2015. Foreign Language: Self-Confrontation

(34:06): M: I felt it was more motivating and personal, I don't know, instead of giving it like that and making them just write the names. . . but she, for instance, was used to give them everything half done, but she did it with these ones and with 5th graders and 2nd graders. I would prefer letting them do it further. . . to organize it themselves or. . . I don't know if I am explaining myself (...) even if they needed more time, I feel they would be able to write. . .but I explained it to her many many times but. . . (laughing)

Novice teachers also expressed criticism of the methodologies employed in their placement schools, and talked about their desire to do things differently, change the spatial organisation of the classroom or foster a greater degree of interaction, etc.

Gurutze, 2013–2014. Basque as an Education Instrument: EDT

(page 12); G: In my opinion teaching is very guided nowadays, that happens in this class as well and then, I don't agree with that procedure; that is why I tried to do a more open session, setting some instructions but giving kids the chance to express in a free way.

The opinions held by novice teachers regarding teaching are often in conflict with classroom habits and methods: these examples illustrate their concern regarding student autonomy and maintaining the learning challenge posed by exercises. This may be taken as an indication of novice teachers' professional knowledge, even though it sometimes clashes with the opinions and experience of their mentor.

In some of these explanations, the development and evolution of novice teachers' thinking is clearly evident. In other words, they compare what they witnessed during the Practicum with the knowledge acquired previously on their degree course, and draw their own conclusions from this exercise.

Even though these disagreements cannot always be resolved, they nevertheless serve to highlight the importance of teamwork between the instructor and the mentor, and the need to establish a *training agreement*.

4.1.4 Limited Knowledge of the Activity

Since there is no specific procedure for effectively providing PIII students with information about the group of students with whom they are going to be working before they enter the classroom, this task is left up to the mentor. Depending on how this basic information is transmitted, novice teachers are often unaware of the class's true resources and means. When the class's usual tutor proposes an activity, they have a great deal of information on which to base their actions. They are aware, for example, of the class situation and the students' varying capacities and attitudes. They know where the students are, what level they have attained, and novice teachers keenly feel the lack of that information. This situation necessarily impacts the novice teacher's activity.

For example, since novice teachers do not know their students, they often do not fully understand what is going on with them, and this lack of information makes them feel unable to correctly understand and effectively resolve their problems.

The following example shows how novice teachers often need their mentor's help to understand and interpret certain events and, despite their increasing autonomy, to help them draw conclusions about teaching in general and language teaching in particular.

Maitane, 2014–2015. Foreign Language: Diary

(*page 15*) *Sometimes we think that we have the perfect activity that it will work, but actually it is not. Maybe it is not so attractive for students or it is not so appropriate to achieve our aims. Our teachers helped us a lot in that aspect and we have to ask them.*

In the example below, Mireia tries to sum up what a novice teacher's role involves, since a number of different aspects need to be taken into account.

Mireia, 2013–2014. Foreign Language: EDT

(*page 20*) *Without doubt teaching is a very complex process, specially for novel teachers. Classrooms mean an uncertain challenge that beginners have to face with all their academic background and knowledge, but also with as much intuition, versatility, common sense and flexibility as possible. Every school, every classroom and every student has its own particular needs, and this is an essential feature that should be taken into account.*

4.2 From Judging "Myself" to Analysing the Activity

The change that takes place in students' outlook during the training process carried out at the Teacher Training School is clear. At first, many believe we are there to judge them, to assess their body language or English language level, etc. Later on, they progress from focusing on personal characteristics to focusing those relating to their teaching skills; and later still they make the leap to focusing on their students, and finally, on the activity itself. To our mind, this journey implies passing through a kind of crisis in which students switch roles and gain a measure of maturity.

Once they understand the essence of the analysis environment, novice teachers stop talking so much about how they performed (well or poorly) or whether or not they felt nervous, and start concentrating on how they developed the activity, whether things happened on purpose or by accident and whether or not the activity makes sense for language teaching, etc. From an initial outlook that was purely egocentric, students gradually leave all consideration of their personal characteristics aside, and this often makes them feel much happier. Once they feel calmer about the whole exercise, they begin to shift focus and concentrate on other aspects: they accept the activity's complexity and the need to assume the teacher's role and, consequently, begin to examine their students' attitude (e.g. they take no notice of me), the task itself and its duration, etc. with a more critical gaze.

This evolution is useful for future activities, since it renders novice teachers more aware of what they need to pay attention to next time. Hence the vital importance of the instructor's role (Ruiz Bikandi & Plazaola Giger, 2012; Plazaola & Iriondo, 2014).

In the next example, at the beginning the novice teacher's comments are mainly about herself.

Most of the time, these types of comments are made within the first few minutes of the interview, with the novice teacher seeking their instructor's approval through both body language and eye contact. Later on, the focus tends to shift towards the activity itself and the students. In this example, it is clear that the novice teacher is quite capable of describing the kind of behaviour her students' attitude requires of her, and engages here in a deep and insightful analysis of her teaching activity. In such moments, novice teachers are more aware, freer and more confident.

Here, the novice teacher is talking about managing oral production, a typical classroom activity:

Gurutze, 2013–2014. Basque as an Education Instrument: Self-Confrontation

> (*25:48*): *G: Then, I have also noticed, for example, eeeh, when they all start telling and telling about their lives, I never cut them, for example, I don't say: raise your hands, just once, I think, at the beginning, so that they know that they have to talk. . . (...) maybe what I need there is to interrupt, give each one their turn, to respect...*

Another change is also evident in novice teachers as a result of the training exercise; this time as a consequence of moving from self-confrontation to group-confrontation interviews. Analysing the activity as part of a group is a helpful exercise, especially when carried out after the individual interviews, because the focus is usually firmly on the activity itself. Fellow students' opinions are valuable, since during this educational phase the importance of the group and the role of one's peers in providing secondary confirmation is paramount. Group confrontations are conducted as professional interviews, with peers becoming expert teachers and knowledge being shared within the professional field.

Group-Confrontation Interview with Mireia, Maddi and Lurdes, 2013–2014. Foreign Language

> (*20:50*): *M: I don't know, now that I see the video again I think we worked on several skills and the class was well prepared, but I don't know. . .*
>
> (*31:35*): *Mi: I found this kind of description, this part of the project, a bit out of any context because I don't see the point in learning to describe in a way that they are not going to use. It's not reality, it's not real to describe someone like this and I don't know, when I started to be critical about that methodology, it was something about that point.*
>
> (*33:20*): *M: So it's a step to start writing descriptions and once they know how to describe this kind of faces they know how to describe a normal face. It's true that we can start with the normal face and then with the special ones. . . I think it was funny, but that's my point and I think they liked creating their faces, maybe changing the shapes, maybe having two triangles for the eyes and I don't know. . .*

4.2.1 Impact of the Analysis Process

Evidence of the transformation that takes place in novice teachers' outlook is clearly present in the Practicum report and EDT that they draft after the end of the self-confrontation and group-confrontation interviews, during which they reflect upon the process they have just completed. Novice teachers often offer a profound analysis of their training process, underscoring the benefits of the confrontation and analysis procedure.

Mireia, 2013–2014. Foreign Language: PIII Report

> (*page 15*) *I am really happy about my experience in this practicum at school. But also about this reflecting process that has made me be aware of so many important things that I didn't use to think before, and to give little importance to some others I was obsessed with, and that now I know they are insignificant.*

As evident in the activity samples, the Practicum is an opportunity for examining the problems which novice teachers encounter when attempting to put the theoretical knowledge they have learned into practice. Novice teachers assess their mentors and suggest clear ways of improving their teaching relations.

4.3 About Language Teaching

4.3.1 One Activity Type: the Teacher's Oral Production

The corpus we compiled contains a number of different activity types within the field of Language Teaching which were highlighted by novice teachers in their written texts. One of these activities is oral production, including (among others) the giving of oral instructions for a task or exercise.

Many novice teachers mention how hard they found it to explain an activity to their class. Talking style is often mentioned in relation to this (the importance of speaking slowly, of speaking "like a teacher"), along with the realisation that the language they were using was too hard or too complex for their students. Novice teachers also seem to realise that they tend to talk for too long and have a need to control everything. There is a general realisation that they need to work on learning how to hold students' attention.

When standing in front of an actual class for the first time, novice teachers have many ideas about teaching, some of which have been instilled in them by their university teachers, and while some they impose on themselves. They also have ideas and knowledge about different methods and the proper procedures for certain activity types. Nevertheless, they soon realise that there is a major difference between what they thought teaching would be like and what actually happens in a real classroom, and this prompts the realisation that their knowledge is actually fairly limited. Our analysis focused precisely on that experience, i.e. on how they coped with the gap between what they had prepared and what actually happened. Their preconceived ideas are often idealistic and have little in common with the reality of a classroom situation.

In the excerpts from the self-confrontation interviews below, novice teachers talk about how difficult they sometimes found it to put their pre-prepared activities into practice.

Upon viewing their activity, they realise whether or not the results obtained were those they had hoped for, and this is extremely useful for the teacher training process.

Maitane, 2014–2015. Foreign Language: Self-Confrontation

> *(12:43): M: I found it very very difficult to explain an exercise (...) to give instructions, that is (...) if I see that I am giving instructions and that students are, on top of everything, speaking Basque and I see the ones at the back are not paying attention and then, at the end, I spend ten minutes explaining one thing and then I have to go from one to the other giving the same explanation...*

Gurutze, 2013–2014. Basque as an Education Instrument: Self-Confrontation

> *(31:18): G: I find useful to have another student to give the same explanation in his or her own words (...) when you are a child the way to speak among us is not the same as the teacher's talk.*

In this latter case, the change in the novice teacher's outlook is evident. She realises that it is her responsibility to ensure that students understand, and she casts her mind back to when she was a child in order to decide how to manage the situation as a teacher.

Whenever novice teachers realise themselves how they did something and draw conclusions regarding how they could have done it, or how they could improve, they are much more likely to remember the lesson learned in the future.

These, then, are the results of the research project focusing on the teacher training process of the students.

5. Conclusions: Practicum, the Cornerstone of Teacher Training

This chapter presents a training-research project aimed at developing the training provided to novice teachers and analysing said development. The self-confrontation interviews served to highlight the importance of novice teachers being able to engage in many different classroom tasks and exercises in appropriate conditions during their Practicums. However, this is not enough. Analysing one's own and one's peers' activity helps clarify, enrich and develop one's activity, thus further enhancing the benefits of the Practicum experience. Face-to-face or self-confrontation interviews focusing on each student's teaching

activity help identify aspects not noticed beforehand. Furthermore, in the discourse, by typifying the activity, novice teachers explore its meaning in more depth and begin to imagine new possible ways of doing things. This method enables novice teachers to observe their teaching activity from a different perspective, thus enhancing the *experience* of the Practicum, fostering learning and offering resources for reflecting on one's actions in the future.

From the research perspective also, and in accordance with the theory of social activity, priority is given to the agent's own experience. Rather than concentrating on knowledge or competences, the aim was to focus on experience selection, the connections between action and the typicality of the person and, above all, its meaning. Thanks to the self-confrontation method, novice teachers were able to analyse their training process and observe the *training phenomena* that take place within it. We analysed the difficulties and obstacles encountered by novice teachers, along with their ideas and adaptations and the conflicts and contradictions they were forced to confront and resolve (for example, the distribution of roles between themselves and their mentor). This proved an excellent method of adapting training contents and enriching the training environment, and offered a means of identifying aspects that had previously remained unnoticed.

The study also aimed to assess the impact of the training process on the novice teachers themselves. The chapter describes the training phenomena generated by the training environment created on the basis of action theory.

Rather than limiting students' entire process to isolated sequences, taking place at a single moment in time, thanks to a research method that simulates a more ongoing monitoring process we will be able to identify the keys to turning novice teachers into expert ones. Instructors will therefore be able to draw conclusions regarding how to foster and enrich their students' training process, and will be able to discover new contents for improving the performance of future language teachers. Forming part of a protected digital collection of activities featured in recordings of novice teachers and related explanations leads to a richer training environment for our students (see the *Neopass@ction* platform in France, Leblanc & Ria 2014).

The chapter also explores the complex phenomena which interlink during the process of turning novice teachers into expert ones: the many agents and different institutions involved (mainly the school and the university); the impact of the knowledge developed in each institution; the methods used by instructors and the conditions provided to novice teachers by their mentors; the way teaching roles are distributed in the classroom; connections and disputes regarding classroom management and teaching contents and the characteristics of the students

themselves and the way they view the novice teacher's tasks and duties, etc. The "amalgam" of all this is the novice teacher's experience.

Many different conditions must be met for Practicums to be effective, useful training experiences. The results presented here show that cooperation between the different institutions involved is essential to ensuring that the training method be truly fruitful. The Practicum environment must be organised and prepared jointly by the University and the placement schools, and a *training agreement* should be established in order to ensure a minimum level of adequate teaching experience for novice teachers. Mentors and university instructors should work together to build a training project for the student/novice teacher, establishing and guaranteeing the necessary conditions for its effective implementation. Schools are vital participants in and front-line beneficiaries of the teacher training process. Government Institutions should pay more attention to this task, recognising and strengthening the key role played by mentors and providing appropriate training. Due to the vital role played by teachers in our society, a true, effective pact is required between the different institutions involved in the teacher training process.

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Carme Flores

Chapter 5   Conceptualising Effective CLIL Teaching Practice: the ECTP Observation Tool

Abstract: Based on a solid theoretical framework and observation, Flores (2018) designed the Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (ECTP) for pre-service Teacher Education. The tool for observation (the ECTP Observation Tool) was based on Sagasta and Ipiña's (2016) Tool for Analysing Units of Work (2016) and used in several studies. This chapter will present some of the results obtained in a research study carried out at the Faculty of Psychology where the ECTP tool was used. Conclusions drawn from the study show that there is a need to guarantee a solid foundation of teaching competence, in terms of knowledge, actions and attitudes in Teacher Education. This study also contributes to the multilingual ethos by dealing in depth with content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Higher Education and by focusing on ECTP in pre-service Teacher Education.

Keywords: CLIL, effective teaching practice, Higher Education, observation tools, integration in education, ECTP

1. The Role of CLIL in Higher Education

The content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Higher Education (HE) is rather heterogeneous. Universities design graduate and postgraduate studies for different reasons using different CLIL models (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). They are all aware of the importance and prestige of internationalisation and the added value of plurilingual competence (Alcón & Michavila, 2012; Doiz & Lasagaster, 2016). According to Dafouz and Llinares (2008), in the year 2008 there were 30 institutions in Spain that offered bilingual studies (English being the additional language), especially dealing with economics, tourism, law and engineering. This number has rapidly increased (Doiz & Lasagaster, 2016), especially considering the "status of English as a *lingua franca* in so many areas, not merely the academic field" (Ball & Lindsay, 2013).

Although CLIL has been mostly associated with primary, secondary and vocational education, there seems to be no reason to underestimate its potential in HE: "quite the reverse, it has been proved that one of the secrets of success for CLIL is continuity throughout the educational process" (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013).

Some specialists have seen the need to differentiate CLIL from the practice of using an additional language in a university context, as one can assume that students are already proficient in the language: "Maybe another terminology is needed for university-level CLIL (. . .); (. . .) but at university level the

FL is 'known' so to speak, so students are working on content, learning their field (major) while practicing/keeping up their LS – is this really CLIL?" (Ting et al., 2007, p.7). This assumption has pushed some authors to look for alternative terms to refer to the teaching of content subjects through an additional language specifically in university contexts (ICLHE[1], ICL[2], EMI in HE[3], ELFA[4]). The term CLIL, however, has become very familiar in the international arena and has transcended ideological and geographical boundaries (i.e. Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning) (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013).

There has also been discussion over whether additional language competence should be considered a basic competence to be covered at university. Should language and information communication technology (ICT) competences be considered secondary competences in HE or should they be considered fundamental? "(. . .) the rising importance of a global language such as English has led to some re-positioning of this specific profession [language teaching in higher education]" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p.24). Employers and society in general, however, believe that language competence and ICT are essential and necessary for any future professional to succeed. And this means that special focus should be placed on communication competence throughout the different university degrees (Räsänen, 2008). Unfortunately, this competence still remains a challenge for many students in a number of European countries (Eurostat, 2014).

Räsänen visually shows the different potential approaches to CLIL in HE and defines them as a continuum. Figure 1 describes six possible realities where additional language and content respectively play more or less important roles in HE teaching and learning:

We should focus on the last four models to coherently identify CLIL university practice. Several institutions in Europe have already developed pre-CLIL experiences. Students are offered language support before taking the subject courses, or they have LSP/LAP[5] courses coordinated with the subject specialist. Adjunct-*CLIL* and pure *CLIL*, using Räsänen's words, are also being implemented in some European countries, but coordination between subject teachers and language teachers is a must, via either joint planning of the CLIL module or

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1   ICLHE: Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (Wilkinson and Zegers, 2008)
2   ICL: Integrating Content and Language (Gustafsson, M. et al., 2011)
3   EMI in HE: English-Medium Instruction in Higher Education (Doiz et al., 2013)
4   ELFA: English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (Jenkins, 2014)
5   LSP: Language for Specific Purposes
    LAP: Language for Academic Purposes

STEPS from non-CLIL to CLIL in L2 and FL mediated Higher Education

NON-CLIL

- No concern for language learning, other agendas.
- No (pedagogical) collaboration.
- e.g. visiting experts, individual lectures.
- Incidental, unsystematic limited exposure (<25%)

LSP/ Discipline Based Language teaching

- Language specialists providing discipline - specific LT to support learning.
- No (systematic) collaboration.
- With subject specialists, FL teacher chooses materials.
- Possible power plays, role formation.

PRE-CLIL (language)

- Pre-sessional teaching of language, discourse, academic practices etc. to support students' learning in the content course/ programme that follows.
- Possible collaboration between teachers.
- Language learning outcomes specified according to content learning needs.

PRE-CLIL (content)

- Courses/programmes provided systematically by subject specialists to mixed, multicultural and multilingual groups (>25% exposure).
- Languages learning expected due to exposure, but outcomes not specified; implicit aims and criteria.
- Collaboration possible, but rare.

ADJUNCT - CLIL

- Language support coordinated with/ integrated in subject studies and takes place simultaneously.
- Joint planning between teachers and specified outcomes and criteria for both content and language

CLIL

- Fully dual approach and full integration of language across subject teaching by subject specialist or via team teaching.
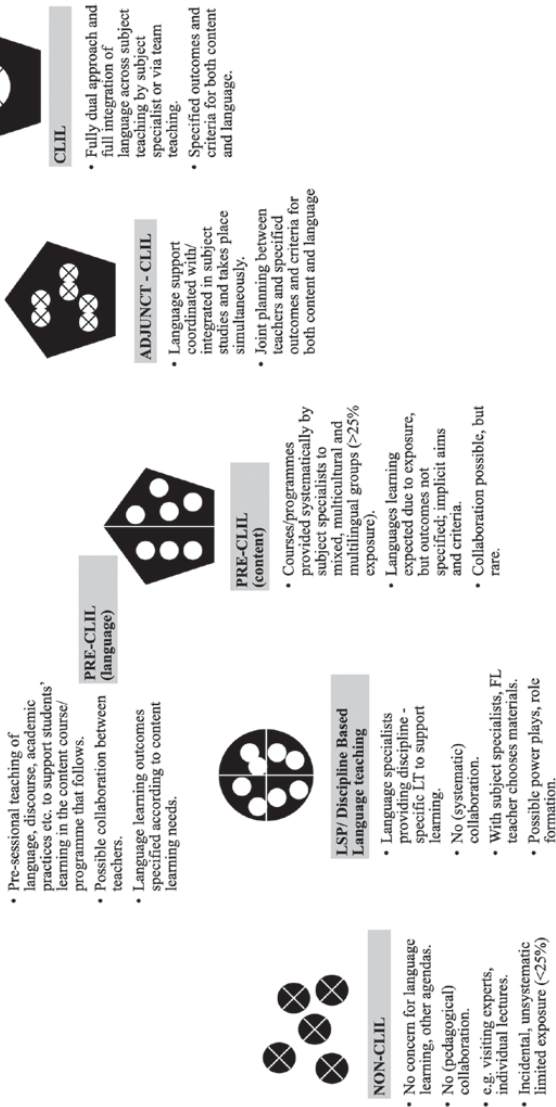- Specified outcomes and criteria for both content and language.

Figure 1. Anne Räsänen's Continuum. Source: Räsänen (2008)

Table 1. Advantages of CLIL in Higher Education. Source: Author's Design Based on Different Authors

ADVANTAGES OF CLIL IN HIGHER EDUCATION: CLIL. . .		Based on: Beatens Beardsmore, 2002; Boughey, 2011; Curry & Lillis, 2013; Dafouz & Nuñez, 2009; Dale & Tanner, 2012; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2016; Fortanet-Gómez, 2013; Hellekjær, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2011; Räsänen, 2008		
REASONS RELATED TO TEACHING AND LEARNING		INTERCULTURAL REASONS	INSTITUTIONAL REASONS	PROFESSIONAL REASONS
TEACHERS	LEARNERS			
Enhances motivation Increases participation		Develops intercultural awareness	Raises the profile of the institution	Prepares multi-skilled professionals ready for internationalization
Is an opportunity for professional development Improves oral and written communicative skills	Promotes cognitive development	Develops the European dimension	Provides experiences in teaching/learning languages in a context where such experiences have been minimal or non-existent	Prepares domestic students for the global labour market
Promotes teacher mobility and international collaboration	Develops language proficiency at no cost to other skills and knowledge	Attracts international students (courses)	Promotes cooperation among universities	Opens working possibilities
Requires a diversity of learning and teaching processes			Helps recruit foreign specialist teachers	
Promotes future academic, research and professional networking			Promotes funding	
Increases accessibility to the academic world and to the knowledge of the discipline			Supports the perception that some international subjects should be taught through an international language	
Promotes plurilingualism (citizenship, intercultural competence, employability)				

by co-teaching. The planning should involve learning outcomes and assessment criteria, which could also consider a possible distribution of credits. Reflection, agreement and gradual development of CLIL in HE is a challenging but potentially encouraging opportunity for the students and teachers of the 21st century, as it implies innovation in education.

The reasons for CLIL in HE may be classified into four main categories: reasons related to teaching and learning, intercultural reasons, institutional reasons and professional reasons. Table 1 shows the advantages that researchers in the field have provided regarding CLIL in HE. Some of them may be similar to the advantages found in previous educational stages, but most of them relate to academic, professional and international issues (Lasagabaster, 2008; Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Räsänen, 2008). Räsänen, for instance, provides justifications in line with the objectives set by the European Higher Education Area. Some reasons are to enhance the institutional profile, to promote plurilingualism (social, citizenship and intercultural competence and employability), to open working possibilities, to promote future academic/research/professional networking and to develop the European dimension, among others.

Experiences in teaching languages in HE have been minimal or non-existent due to the compact degrees and the competition for hours among departments, especially after the Bologna Agreement. The economic crisis has also affected university budgets and consequently the courses offered to students. Fortanet-Gómez (2013) sees CLIL as a possible solution to these two problems.

Dale and Tanner (2012) highlight reasons related to motivation and cognitive development, to the improvement of oral and written communicative skills, intercultural awareness and to the diversity of learning and teaching processes, among others.

Emphasis on the need to offer courses for international students, on cooperation among universities and on the recruitment of foreign specialist teachers support CLIL in HE, as does the positive perception in some university departments that some international subjects should be taught through an international language (Hellekjær, 2007). Boughey (2011) and Curry and Lillis (2013) add other reasons, such as the increase in participation and accessibility to the academic world and to the knowledge of the discipline, which eventually enhances the quality of the future professional/researcher's pre-service training. Finally, Doiz and Lasagabaster (2016) justify the academic "jump on the EMI bandwagon" through the survey carried out by the European Commission (2008), which concluded that "Universities are motivated to offer the programmes in order to attract international students (circa 83 % of institutions), to prepare domestic students for the global labour market (around 80 %) and to raise the profile of the institution (53 %)."

Integrating Content and Language in HE may also be an opportunity for professional development, as some teachers and researchers may not have been trained in educational methodologies and may not be familiar with interactional modes of teaching, fundamental in CLIL pedagogy (Dafouz & Nuñez, 2009). Moreover, teacher mobility and international collaboration and funding require

multi-skilled professionals ready for internationalisation (Kirkpatrick, 2011). Therefore, university professionals could take the advantages and challenges that CLIL provides as new opportunities for improving their professional status.

2. CLIL Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

University classroom settings provide critical moments that can show effective learning, from a social-constructivist perspective, and higher-level thinking. Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006) studied classroom management discourse, and one of their conclusions was that classroom and school settings still placed limitations on the evolution of discourse. Dafouz and Linares (2008) studied the role of repetition in CLIL teacher discourse and concluded that teacher repetition is more frequent in the instructional register (Christie, 2002), when the teacher focuses on the content and not so much on the instructions on how to proceed. They found IRF structure (i.e. Initiate, Response and Feedback) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) in CLIL classes less rigid than in additional language classes.

Fortanet-Gómez (2013) contextualises the special pedagogy for CLIL in European HE institutions in a multilingual environment and places plurilingual awareness and practices as one of its main priorities:

> (...) that is, even though only the priority languages are included in the curriculum, all other languages known by students, either as first or subsequent languages, are respected and can be used as a resource by teachers in order to clarify concepts or compare specific terms in several languages.
>
> Fortanet-Gómez, 2013: 147

She refers to CLIL's multimodality when she calls for the use of visual support, audios and computer-based materials. Fortanet-Gómez also states that deductive methods of teaching have unfortunately had a strong tradition in several countries in Europe, whereas inductive methods have been less common. She provides examples of European settings where collaborative learning through classroom discourse between teacher and learner is not supported by university practices. García (2009) relies on the combination of three methodological approaches generally related to language learning when trying to provide elements for CLIL pedagogy: a) the grammatical approach: focus on form, language patterns and discourse markers in academic discourse; b) the communicative approach (which derives from the constructivist and socio-constructivist frameworks): simplified discourse, higher order thinking skills, collaborative learning by means of interaction, project work (Stoller, 2002) and case studies (Almagro Esteban & Pérez Cañado, 2004) and c) the cognitive approach: emphasis on the learner's meta-cognitive processes, relating new knowledge to students' previous experiences,
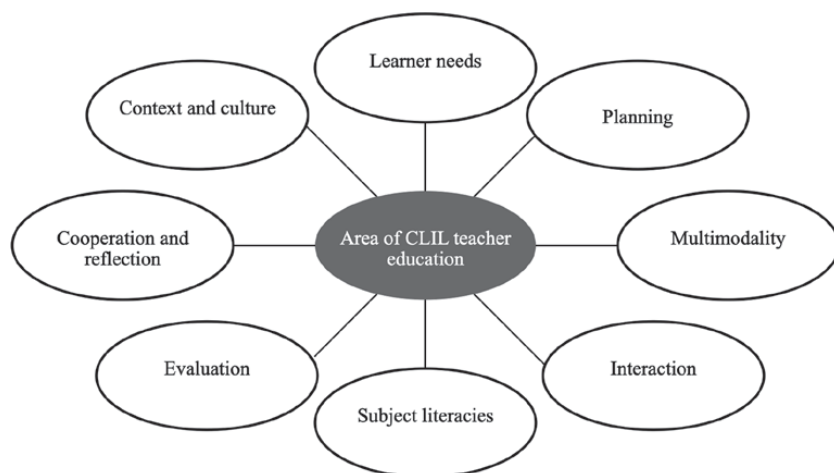
Figure 2. Areas of CLIL Teacher Education. CLIL Competences. Source: Socrates-Comenius 2.1. Project (2006)

to what they have learned and to the world at large. García, however, does not mention content or culture (two of Coyle's Cs) in her attempt to list elements for CLIL pedagogy, nor does she mention socio-affective features.

CLIL In-service and Pre-service Teacher Education needs to be promoted at a pre-service and in-service level in order to guarantee teacher supply and the quality of CLIL teaching practice, which requires skilled multilingual practitioners. Kelly et al. (2004) identify 40 elements that should be included in any programme of CLIL pre-service and in-service TE. With the same aim, the final report of the Socrates-Comenius 2.1 Project (2006) provides eight main areas for the development of CLIL competences.

Marsh et al. (2010) also suggest eight professional competences for CLIL TE and a series of corresponding modules which should be implemented in order to acquire the competences: a) Personal reflection; b) CLIL fundamentals; c) Content and language awareness; d) Methodology and assessment; e) Research and evaluation; f) Learning resources and environments; g) Classroom management and h) CLIL management.

Escobar Urmeneta (2010) presents the model of PTE (TED for CLIL) developed at the UAB and which has been "the result of an on-going process of design, experimentation and discussion among all stakeholders: student-teachers, school mentors, university tutors and researchers" (p.188). Although the experience has been basically implemented in a Master Course context, where student

teachers were to be secondary school teachers at the end of the course, there are several aspects that are worth considering when thinking in PTE (primary education). She especially highlights the importance of the collaborative element of the research carried out among all the participants, and of considering teachers as a "Community of Practice." The TED for CLIL component described by Escobar offers students, teachers, tutors, mentors and the rest of the school the opportunity to act and reflect, learn and develop, to keep and to change, to become a real community with a "living curriculum for the apprentice" (p.192).

Novotná et al. (2001) suggest several CLIL competences classified into two categories: the verbal-visual-meta-cognitive category and the peer-affective category. The first group includes competences such as showing an understanding of the amount and type of content language she/he should use during the lesson, contextualising new content language items and presenting them in a comprehensible way, using a variety of non-verbal communicative techniques and authentic situations, speaking clearly, breaking tasks down into component parts and giving instructions for each part, teaching thinking skills and learning strategies, clustering content material and relating it to past classroom experience. The second category comprises competences such as showing an understanding of and sensitivity to individual learners' needs, involving learners, encouraging collaborative learning, praise, feedback and encouragement.

Navés (2002) identifies several macro features that may influence effective CLIL and that should be taken into consideration before implementing content and language integration: (1) respect and support for learners' L1 and home culture; (2) multilingual and bilingual teachers; (3) integrated dual language optional programmes; (4) long-term teaching staff; (5) parental involvement; (6) joint effort of all parties involved; (7) teachers' profile and training; (8) high expectations and assessment; (9) materials and (10) underlying CLIL methodology. There is no doubt that all these features have their role to play and may affect outcomes considerably. Empathy and respect towards cultures and languages, collaboration and professionalism from teachers, parents and educational stakeholders, and optimism and help in meeting the challenges that programming and assessment entail are all conditions that should go along with any educational practice. Navés provides some examples of positive CLIL teaching by listing a number of strategies that involve some of the features mentioned above. Some of these strategies are giving instructions clearly, describing tasks accurately, maintaining learners' engagement by maintaining task focus, demonstrating, outlining, using visuals, scaffolding, rephrasing, linking new information to learners' previous knowledge, checking comprehension and allowing learners to respond in different ways. In some of these teaching strategies, we can

see how the learner is invited to take a more active role. These strategies, however, may not be different from successful language teaching. In fact, they might even be some of the components of positive teaching.

All the aforementioned authors seem to list a large number of competences and conditions without distinguishing them from positive language teaching practice or positive teaching practice in general. The accounting of effective CLIL practices is thus slightly imprecise.

For the purpose of going deeper into identifying and measuring specific elements of positive CLIL teaching, several authors have designed and employed different tools.

In recent years, many European CLIL practitioners have been satisfied with the *CLIL observation tool* (De Graaff et al. 2007), which includes five principles from second language learning that can also be applied to optimal CLIL pedagogy. The teacher then becomes the facilitator of what they call "essential conditions" for "effective language teaching performance": (1) exposure to input; (2) content-oriented processing; (3) form-oriented processing; (4) (pushed) output and (5) strategic language use. Each of the five categories includes indicators that are worth mentioning.

Even though de Graaff et al. prioritise a language learning approach, likely drawn from the field of Linguistics, the variables considered may integrate some of the components of positive CLIL teaching. However, a more CL view of CLIL teaching practice might be needed. Or is it a more teaching practice *per se* perspective that is needed?

Coyle et al. (2010)'s CLIL Unit Checklist has also become a user-friendly tool for CLIL teaching assessment. It was designed by a group of CLIL teachers and was proved useful for reflective practice.

Sagasta and Ipiña (2016) introduce their tool for analysing CLIL units of work, where several criteria are classified into five essential dimensions: a) contextualisation of the unit of work; b) competences and learning outcomes, c) assessment; d) input and e) activities.

More recently, Coral et al. (2017) have designed a task evaluation tool specifically for CLIL Physical Education, and Escobar Urmeneta (2017) has published a manual for HE CLIL teachers on linguistic uses, and discusses variables and recommendations in relation to: a) selection of teaching materials; b) classroom language interaction (teacher-students, students-students, oral production and feedback) and c) tasks and assessment criteria.

Finally, Soler (2017) suggests another CLIL observation tool, which is an adaptation of two previous ones (CARLA, 2000; Coyle et al., 2010). He adds another dimension to the existing ones, as he also focuses on leadership and internationalisation.

Table 2. The Three Levels of Specification for Effective Teaching Practice

Elements of EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE identified in the literature
Elements of EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING PRACTICE identified in the literature
Elements of EFFECTIVE CLIL TEACHING PRACTICE identified in the literature

3. The Study: How Do We Identify Effective CLIL Teaching Practice?

During the academic year 2015–16, a research study was carried out at the Faculty of Psychology Education and Sport Science Blanquerna (University Ramon Llull), Barcelona (Spain). The participants were teachers and first year Teacher Education students.

One of the main objectives was to identify ECTP and, through the analysis of the literature and data gathered from classroom observation, an ECTP observation tool was designed.

In order to identify the indicators that specifically belong to ECTP, two parallel processes were followed: on the one hand, there was a need to explore results obtained from the literature review in relation to effective teaching, effective language teaching and effective CLIL teaching. This analysis provided the optimal framework for comparing, matching and discriminating effective teaching practices and eventually identifying which elements could specifically belong to effective CLIL teaching. On the other hand, the results provided us with an opportunity to design a tool for analysing CLIL teaching.

3.1 Conceptual Specification of Effective CLIL Teaching Practice within an Effective Teaching Practice Framework

The data gathering in relation to the analysis of the literature on effective teaching was a process from which results were classified, categorised and used for a new contribution in the conceptualisation of ECTP.

Several steps were taken, starting first with the literature revision. After data collection, all the indicators were classified, categorised and ordered on a frequency basis. This process was done at three separate levels of specification of teaching practice: effective teaching practice, effective language teaching practice and ECTP.

The first analysis allowed us to classify elements into three main categories: a) subject-matter knowledge; b) pedagogical knowledge and skills and c)

Table 3. Three Main Categories on Teaching Practice

Subject-matter knowledge	Pedagogical Knowledge and skills	Socio-affective skills and attitudes
knowledge and competence of the subject contents to be taught and used in class	knowledge of the pedagogical aspects that affect the teaching and learning process and the ability to carry it out effectively	attitudes and personal characteristics that positively influence the relationship between teaching and learning

socio-affective skills and attitudes. These categories were inspired by Dinçer et al.'s (2013) four categories of good language teaching pedagogy: socio-affective skills, pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge and personality characteristics; and by O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) identification of the three types of learning strategies, namely, cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies.

After classifying the elements, a new categorisation was needed. For this categorisation, three important aspects were taken into consideration: 1) finding common and/or similar characteristics that could assemble elements in a group (a new subcategory); 2) record keeping of the frequency (number) of references and 3) observing whether a category or new subcategory includes elements from the three levels of specification, that is, from the list of elements of effective teaching practice, from the list of effective language teaching practice and from the list of ECTP.

Parallel to this new categorisation, there was a process of identifying the characteristics of *specific* ECTP, discriminating them from the elements of effective teaching practice and of effective language teaching practice. Throughout this process, it was observed that most of the features related to ECTP seem to coincide with the features identified as effective teaching practice and/or effective language teaching practice. However, there were elements that were not found on the two previous levels. Those specific characteristics would be the ones identified as *specific* ECTP. The other characteristics belonging to the other two levels of specification may also be considered ECTP, but not exclusively, whereas the *specific* ECTP would only relate to the characteristics identified in the last stage of the process.

In order to visually represent the process of discrimination, table 4 is provided below, with several equations:

On the one hand, ECTP would be the result of adding the elements of effective teaching practice, *specific* effective language teaching practices and *specific* ECTP. Consequently, *specific* ECTP would be the result of subtracting effective teaching

Table 4. The Four Equations for Effective Teaching

Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (ECTP)	=	Effective Teaching Practice (ETP)	+	Specific Effective Language Teaching Practice (SELTP)	+	Specific Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (SECTP)
Specific Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (SECTP)	=	Effective CLIL Teaching Practice (ECTP)	-	Effective Teaching Practice (ETP)	-	Specific Effective Language Teaching Practice (SELTP)
Effective Language Teaching Practice (ELTP)	=	Effective Teaching Practice (ETP)	+	Specific Effective Language Teaching Practice (SELTP)		
Specific Effective Language Teaching Practice (SELTP)	=	Effective Language Teaching Practice (ELTP)	-	Effective Teaching Practice (ETP)		

practice and *specific* language teaching practice to ECTP identified so far in the literature. The main contribution of table 4 to CLIL literature would be the consistent organisation of what up to now has been used indiscriminately to define ECTP without considering that most of the elements do not specifically *belong* to CLIL but rather to general effective teaching practice.

The final equation would thus be:

Twenty-eight final subcategories were identified after the whole process of analysis. Table 6 shows the final organisation of these final subcategories, which would define ECTP. ECTP would thus be the attainment of these subcategories.

From the analysis of the effective teaching practice provided by research, most of the features identified belong to the category *pedagogical knowledge and skills*, where the teaching practice seems to be more visual and explicit. However, the other two categories, *subject-matter knowledge* and *socio-affective skills and attitudes*, should not be ignored, as they are also fundamental for any educational act.

Two considerations should be made in relation to the *classification of the 28 defining categories for ECTP*:

Table 5. Final Equation for ECTP

EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE		
SUBJECT-MATTER KNOWLEDGE	PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS	SOCIO-AFFECTIVE SKILLS AND ATTITUDES
+		
SPECIFIC EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING PRACTICE		
LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE	LANGUAGE PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS	LANGUAGE SOCIO-AFFECTIVE SKILLS AND ATTITUDES
+		
SPECIFIC EFFECTIVE CLIL TEACHING PRACTICE		
=		
EFFECTIVE CLIL TEACHING PRACTICE (ECTP)		

1. The subcategories may or may not have appeared in the literature review of all three specifications of effective teaching practice.
2. There was a need to add new subcategories in order to complement the table in a coherent way.

In relation to consideration 1: The subcategories appeared in at least one level of specification, which allowed us to reflect on whether they may or may not relate to the other two levels. Out of the twenty-eight subcategories, fifteen were found on the three levels, or effective teaching practice, effective language teaching practice and ECTP, whereas ten were found on one or two levels of specification (six and four subcategories).

Table 7 shows the subcategories that appeared on all three levels of specification.

Table 8 shows the subcategories that appeared on two levels of specification of effective teaching practice.

Finally, table 9 shows the subcategories that appeared on one level of specification.

In relation to consideration 2: When some subcategories emerged, other complementary subcategories seemed to be necessary if the table was to be coherent and complete. For instance, when we take effective teaching practice, language knowledge of the additional language suggests the need for its complementary subcategory of language knowledge of the first/vehicular language. This was the case in the following subcategories:

Table 6. Classification of the 28 Defining Categories for ECTP

1. Subject-matter knowledge	1.1. Subject content knowledge	1.1.1. Content knowledge	
		1.1.2. Language knowledge (L1/AL) BICS + CALP	1.1.2.1. L1 LK
			1.1.2.2. AL LK
		1.1.3. Content language knowledge (L1/AL) CALP	1.1.3.1. Content L1 LK
			1.1.3.2. Content AL LK
	1.2. Contextual knowledge		
2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.1. Appropriate scaffolding for language and content comprehension and output/sharing		
	2.2. Appropriate feedback		
	2.3. Collaboration, interaction, peer work, group work		
	2.4. Multimodality/variety of materials, methods and tasks		
	2.5. Cognitive challenge / HOTS-LOTS/content focus		
	2.6. Connecting /integration		
	2.7. Providing clarity + comprehensible input		
	2.8. Appropriate structuring/pace: positive planning of content delivery		
	2.9. Enhancing self-regulation: /metacognitive processes/ self-directness/autonomy		
	2.10. Enquiry / questioning		
	2.11. Focus on form/language and academic language		
	2.12. Alignment /coherence		
	2.13. Positive class/group management		
	2.14. Diversity / inclusion		
	2.15. Focus on culture		
	2.16. Authenticity, relevance and task focus – students' interests		
	2.17. Being a reflective practitioner and member of a community of practice		
	2.18. Checking understanding		
	2.19. Developing the four communicative skills		
	2.20. Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately		
3. Socio.-affective skills and attitudes	3.1. Positive teacher's attitude: active/passionate/charismatic teaching (intra)		
	3.2. Motivation: engagement/ low affective filter (inter) / empowerment/positive management		

Table 7. Subcategories Appearing in the Three Levels of Specification (ETP + ELTP + ECTP)

	ON ALL THREE LEVELS OF SPECIFICATION (ETP + ELTP + ECTP)
1. Subject-matter knowledge	
	2.1. Appropriate scaffolding for language and content comprehension and output/sharing
	2.2. Appropriate feedback
	2.3. Collaboration, interaction, peer work, group work
	2.4. Multimodality/variety of materials, methods and tasks
	2.5. Cognitive challenge / HOTS-LOTS/ content focus
	2.6. Connecting /integration
2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.7. Providing clarity + comprehensible input
	2.8. Appropriate structuring/pace: positive planning of content delivery
	2.9. Enhancing self-regulation: / metacognitive processes/self-directness/ autonomy
	2.12. Alignment /coherence
	2.13. Positive class/group management
	2.16. Authenticity, relevance and task focus – students' interests
	2.17. Being a reflective practitioner and member of a community of practice
	2.18. Checking understanding
3. Socio.-affective skills and attitudes	
	3.2. Motivation: engagement/ low affective filter (inter) /empowerment/positive management

From the previous analysis, one question arises: which categories would be considered *specific* ECTP?

It seems that subcategory 2.20: Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately, could be one, as it only appeared on the third level of specification (ECTP) of the literature consulted. As for the three new subcategories, the first one, subcategory 1.1.2.1. L1 LK: Language knowledge of L1/vehicular language

Table 8. Subcategories Appearing on Two Levels of Specification

		LEVELS OF SPECIFICATION (2)	
1. Subject-matter knowledge			
2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.10. Enquiry / questioning	ETP	ECTP
	2.11. Focus on form/ language and academic language	ELTP	ECTP
	2.14. Diversity / inclusion	ETP	ECTP
	2.15. Focus on culture	ELTP	ECTP
	2.19. Developing the four communicative skills	ELTP	ECTP
3. Socio.-affective skills and attitudes	3.1. Positive teacher's attitude: active/ passionate/charismatic teaching (intra)	ETP	ELTP

Table 9. Subcategories Appearing on One Level of Specification

				LEVEL OF SPECIFICATION (1)
1. Subject-matter knowledge	1.1. Subject content knowledge	1.1.1. Content knowledge		ELTP
		1.1.2. Language knowledge (L1/AL) BICS + CALP	1.1.2.1. L1 LK	
			1.1.2.2. AL LK	ELTP
		1.1.3. Content language knowledge (L1/AL) CALP	1.1.3.1. Content L1 LK	
			1.1.3.2. Content AL LK	
	1.2. Contextual knowledge			ELTP
2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.20. Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately			ECTP
3. Socio.-affective skills and attitudes				

Table 10. Additional Subcategories for ECTP

1.1.2.1.	L1 LK: Language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (BICS + CALP)
1.1.3.1	Content L1 LK: Content language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (CALP)
1.1.3.2.	Content AL LK: Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP)

(BICS + CALP) would rather complement effective language teaching practice, because category 1.1.2.2: Language knowledge of AL (additional language) (BICS + CALP) appeared on the second level of specification (ELTP), but it would also be considered an element of effective teaching practice without presence in the literature consulted; the second subcategory 1.1.3.1: Content language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (CALP) would also be considered an element of effective teaching practice without presence in the literature consulted, because one would think that, when teaching any subject to students, there must be a competent knowledge and use of the L1/vehicular language specifically related to the subject-content covered; finally, the third subcategory, 1.1.3.2: Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP) would be considered *specific* ECTP as it focuses on the knowledge of the AL specifically related to the subject-content covered and this subcategory may only be seen in the CLIL context.

To sum up, from the twenty-eight subcategories, only two seem to match with ECTP:

Subcategory 1.1.3.2: Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP)

Subcategory 2.20: Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately

Subcategory 2.20., however, calls for careful attention, as this strategy could also be considered an element of ELTP if we added new references on the use of L1 in the language classroom. Some research carried out on the importance of using students' home languages (Cummins, 2007; Sugranyes & González-Davies, 2014) and the use of translation and code-switching in the language classroom (Cook, 2001; Corcoll & González-Davies, 2016; Gonzalez-Davies, 2014; Macaro, 2007; Wilson & González-Davies, 2017) may conclude that strategic use of the L1/vehicular language during lesson delivery could be considered effective

Table 11. Subcategory Exclusive of ECTP

Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP)

language teaching practice. The concept of translanguaging (García, 2009), which is defined as "the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential" (p. 140) has been taken as a consistent, and perhaps effective, step towards the plurilingual approach to additional language learning (García & Wei, 2014).

Finally, there seems to be only one subcategory that could be considered specific ECTP:

The other 27 subcategories would thus be considered elements of ECTP but would also be elements of general effective teaching and/or effective language teaching.

Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP) is a reflection of what Llinares, Morton and Whittaker (2012) termed "subject literacy." The authors define the concept as "the spoken and written language forms and texts through which content knowledge is accessed by CLIL learners." Teachers with this capacity must focus on text types which learners have to understand and produce (genre) and on the grammatical and lexical resources behind these genres (register). Llinares and her colleagues explore what seem to be the "unique characteristics of CLIL" (p.14) and, by doing so, they make a contribution to CLIL pedagogy that may in fact be much more relevant than what could be expected from a book focusing on languages, as the authors themselves may not have been aware of the real "uniqueness" of *The Roles of Language in CLIL* (the title of their book). This chapter has not set out to provide a detailed account of their work, but rather to emphasise the importance for all CLIL teachers to have both content language knowledge of additional language (once this has been identified as the only feature of *specific* ETCP) and knowledge of how content is constructed through language and literacy, what Love (2009) calls "literacy pedagogical content knowledge." This last concept, however, permeates all categories from the second macro-category to pedagogical knowledge and skills, as the focus is on the "how," the same way content knowledge (category 1.1.1.), language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (BICS + CALP) (category 1.1.2.1.) and language knowledge of AL (additional language) (BICS + CALP) (category 1.1.2.2.) would be inherent in all features belonging to pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Once the twenty-eight subcategories were identified, it was necessary to define each of them, and these definitions are thus provided in order to clarify possible doubts. The definitions were the result of integrating the most relevant characteristics identified in the literature and which were grouped under each

subcategory. However, a final and more complete definition could be provided with extensive semantic work on all the elements taken from the literature review.

The following are the definitions of the twenty-eight subcategories for ECTP. For these definitions, the term "category" is used rather than subcategory for the purpose of offering the final outcome of the whole process of analysis. This gives a clearer idea of the most concrete elements of effective teaching practice without leaving out where they come from in relation to the three initial categories (subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and skills and socio-affective skills and attitudes). All definitions start with the phrase "The teacher…" in order to make them more comprehensible and helpful for observation and reflection.

1. Subject-matter knowledge
    1.1. Subject content knowledge
        1.1.1. *Content knowledge*: The teacher has and shows specialized knowledge of his/her specific field, obtained through both academic study and practical experience.
        1.1.2. *Language knowledge*:
            1.1.2.1. *Language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (BICS + CALP)*: The teacher has knowledge of the L1/vehicular language in terms of fluency, accuracy, lexicon and pronunciation, uses it effectively, at an academic and less formal level and provides good language models.
            1.1.2.2. *Language knowledge of AL (additional language) (BICS + CALP)*: The teacher has knowledge of the additional language in terms of fluency, accuracy, lexicon and pronunciation, uses it effectively, at an academic and less formal level, and provides good language models.

        1.1.3. *Content language knowledge*:

            1.1.3.1. *Content language knowledge of L1/vehicular language (CALP)*: The teacher has knowledge of the L1/vehicular language specifically related to the subject-content, uses it effectively, at an adequate academic level and provides good language models.
            1.1.3.2. *Content language knowledge of AL (additional language) (CALP)*: The teacher has knowledge of the additional language specifically related to the subject-content, uses it effectively, at an adequate academic level, and provides good language models.

Table 12. Identification of the 28 Defining Categories for ECTP

1. Subject-matter knowledge	1.1. Subject content knowledge	1.1.1. Content knowledge	
		1.1.2. Language knowledge (L1/AL) BICS + CALP	1.1.2.1. L1 LK
			1.1.2.2. AL LK
		1.1.3. Content language knowledge (L1/AL) CALP	1.1.3.1. Content L1 LK
			1.1.3.2. Content AL LK
	1.2. Contextual knowledge		
2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.1. Appropriate scaffolding for language and content comprehension and output/sharing		
	2.2. Appropriate feedback		
	2.3. Collaboration, interaction, peer work, group work		
	2.4. Multimodality/variety of materials, methods and tasks		
	2.5. Cognitive challenge / HOTS-LOTS/content focus		
	2.6. Connecting /integration		
	2.7. Providing clarity + comprehensible input		
	2.8. Appropriate structuring/pace: positive planning of content delivery		
	2.9. Enhancing self-regulation: /metacognitive processes/self-directness/ autonomy		
	2.10. Enquiry / questioning		
	2.11. Focus on form/language and academic language		
	2.12. Alignment /coherence		
	2.13. Positive class/group management		
	2.14. Diversity / inclusion		
	2.15. Focus on culture		
	2.16. Authenticity, relevance and task focus – students' interests		
	2.17. Being a reflective practitioner and member of a community of practice		
	2.18. Checking understanding		
	2.19. Developing the four communicative skills		
	2.20. Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately		
3. Socio-affective skills and attitudes	3.1. Positive teacher's attitude: active/passionate/charismatic teaching (intra)		
	3.2. Motivation: engagement/ low affective filter (inter) /empowerment/ positive management		

1.2. *Contextual knowledge*: The teacher shows knowledge of the context and of the target culture and, in his/her specific setting, he/she understands the dynamics and relationships, rules and behaviours established.

2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills

2.1. *Appropriate scaffolding for language and content comprehension and output/sharing*: The teacher provides large amounts of comprehensible input at a level just high enough to be challenging, facilitates output production and supports students' learning through expressiveness, the use of contextualised cues, non-verbal communicative techniques (visual aids, realia, body language, modelling...), outlining, rephrasing, repetition, reformulation (intralinguistic), translation (interlinguistic), varying intonation, linking new information to learners' previous knowledge, adapting materials, discourse markers, simplifying discourse, emphasizing key vocabulary, recycling past, present and future vocabulary and language structures consciously, breaking complex information and processes into component parts, affording sufficient wait time and displaying written language throughout the classroom and hallways.

2.2. *Appropriate feedback*: The teacher provides close monitoring through correct formative assessment and in various forms (dual feedback, multiple assessment...) in relation to content and language.

2.3. *Collaboration, interaction, peer work and group work*: The teacher develops reciprocity and cooperation through negotiated interaction, collaborative learning techniques and environments for meaningful participation.

2.4. *Multimodality/variety of materials, methods and tasks*: The teacher uses a variety of teaching styles, different types of meaningful tasks and multimodal resources for content and language development.

2.5. *Cognitive challenge/HOTS-LOTS/content focus*: The teacher emphasises higher-order cognitive processing and challenges students academically through creating the necessary climate and conditions for deep learning to take place.

2.6. *Connecting/integration*: The teacher provides tasks that integrate concepts with language practice opportunities and relates new knowledge to students' previous knowledge and experiences, to what they have learned and to the world; he/she does not provide an isolated unit of work, but establishes connections with other themes or areas of knowledge.

2.7. *Providing clarity + comprehensible input*: The teacher provides instructional clarity through appropriate task introduction and explanations.

2.8. *Appropriate structuring/pace: positive planning of content delivery*: The teacher designs, prepares and develops organised, well-structured lessons at an adequate progression and provides students with shared content and language objectives.

2.9. *Enhancing self-regulation: metacognitive processes/self-directness/ autonomy*: The teacher promotes students' self-regulation and guides them to develop learning strategies, metacognitive/metalinguistic processes, critical thinking, reflective learning and autonomy.

2.10. *Enquiry/questioning*: The teacher provides a learning environment that encourages enquiry through information seeking, good questioning (referential and open questions being preferable to display questions), case studies or project work.

2.11. *Focus on form/language and academic language*: The teacher fosters language awareness by creating opportunities and activities to assist students in noticing and producing specific language in oral and written form. The teacher also works on the language *of* learning (genre appropriateness/content-obligatory language) and *fo*r learning (academic language).

2.12. *Alignment/coherence*: The teacher provides coherence across topics and across tasks and assessment is aligned with the intended learning outcomes and the specific context of learning.

2.13. *Positive class/group management*: The teacher uses effective practices and procedures to maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur. He/she does so by setting up learning arrangements appropriately (i.e. grouping students to support language and content objectives), opening and ending sessions positively and emphasising time on tasks, among other strategies.

2.14. *Diversity/inclusion*: The teacher respects and enhances diverse talents and learning styles through catering for individual needs, mixed ability and inclusion, allowing learners to respond in different ways, surveying students interests and reinforcing concepts and language with multi-sensory activities (visual, auditory, tactile, kinaesthetic, etc.).

2.15. *Focus on culture*: The teacher raises intercultural consciousness, empathy and respect towards cultures as a starting point for developing

students' intercultural competence and offers multiple perspectives of the knowledge/views/attitudes of a topic (from local to global, developing identity and citizenship).

2.16. *Authenticity, relevance and task focus – students' interests*: The teacher keeps students on task by using authentic, interesting and creative situations, student-centred activities and real language.

2.17. *Being a reflective practitioner and member of a community of practice*: The teacher shows the potential for learning, reflective practice and growth coming from collaboration with teachers, parents and educational stakeholders.

2.18. *Checking understanding*: The teacher makes frequent use of comprehension checks to involve students and to ensure understanding.

2.19. *Developing the four communicative skills*: The teacher integrates language communicative skills by providing fluency development activities in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2.20. *Using the L1 as a pedagogical strategy appropriately*: The teacher uses and invites students to use the L1 as a communicative and learning strategy.

3. Socio-affective skills and attitudes

  3.1. *Positive teacher's attitude: active/passionate/charismatic teaching (intra)*: The teacher shows enthusiasm/passion, optimism, action, creativity, tolerance, patience, sensibility, kindness, sense of humour and openness to experience.

  3.2. *Motivation: engagement/low affective filter (inter) /empowerment/positive management*: The teacher encourages and supports students positively by using active and motivating learning techniques, creating stress-free and warm learning environments by lowering the affective filter and thus minimising the fear of making mistakes, by engaging students in meaningful experiences, interacting with them in and outside the classroom and providing confidence throughout the process of learning, by praising, sparing time for students when they ask for help, communicating high expectations, caring for them and providing spaces to share their opinions and their progress.

It is important to note that the twenty-eight categories could be more specified if the definitions were broken down into more concrete indicators. However, there is an attempt to provide here a clear and concise definition of each category.

3.2 The ECTP Observation Tool

In order to design the ECTP Observation Tool, it was important to add, if necessary, the results obtained from classroom observation through the use of the Observation Tool 1 (OT-1). The tool was employed in order to record and analyse several CLIL sessions and was an adaptation of the "Tool for analysing units of work: Dimensions and Criteria considered in the analysis of CLIL units of work" (Sagasta & Ipiña, 2016) and the "Manual d'usos lingüístics per a Graus universitaris amb docència en anglès' (Guidelines for language use in university degrees taught in English) (Escobar Urmeneta, 2017).

After thorough analysis of the tools published in the literature in relation to CLIL teaching practice, Sagasta and Ipiña's tool was finally considered the most suitable one for a number of reasons:

1. The context of their research and professional experience is similar to the one considered in this thesis. Mondragon University is a private university in a trilingual context (2 official languages +1 additional language). This university has collaborated with the FPESSB on a number of projects due to the shared vision and mission of the two HE institutions.
2. Several studies conducted by the authors focus on TE, which is exactly the same setting in which this research study is carried out.
3. The process followed to elaborate the tool was the final outcome of the work done by a professional learning community where "teachers share their practices, pose problems, challenge their own assumptions, discuss their students' learning processes and results, and learn together" (Sagasta & Ipiña, 2016: 162).
4. Sagasta and Ipiña's tool was published in 2016.

It was also deemed desirable to incorporate some elements identified in Escobar Urmeneta's Guidelines, published in 2017, as she adds some aspects that have been considered relevant or more specific (use of the L1 as a strategy, types of assessment and the use of glossaries, among others).

Results from classroom observation seemed to confirm some of the categories already identified and selected for the ECTP Observation tool. The indicators included in OT-1 are present in the ECTP Observation Tool and are classified into three main categories. As far as structure is concerned, OT-1 provided space to record qualitative evidence, which is not possible to gather during observation time. So, the ECTP Observation Tool would not feature this square. Finally, it was also decided to include a 1–4 gradation (from not evident – 1 – to highly evident – 4), following Coral's (2017) gradation used in his

"PE in CLIL tasks evaluation" tool: 1) Highly evident throughout the class session; 2) Evident during most, but not all, of the class session; 3) Evident during a limited portion of the class session and 4) Not evident to any degree during the class session.

The definitions of the twenty-eight categories should always be available for consultation before, during and after observation.

Finally, Table 13 shows the ECTP Observation tool, which is provided with the aim of sharing what, from the author's perspective, is a relevant contribution to CLIL practice and research in Europe.

Table 13. The ECTP Observation Tool/OT-2: The ECTP Observation Tool

			From not evident (1) to highly evident (4)				COMMENTS
			1	2	3	4	
	1.1. Subject content knowledge	1.1.1. Content knowledge					
		1.1.2. Language knowledge (L1/ AL) BICS + CALP	1.1.2.1. L1 LK				
			1.1.2.2. AL LK				
1. Subject-matter knowledge		1.1.3. Content language knowledge (L1/ AL) CALP	1.1.3.1. Content L1 LK				
			1.1.3.2. Content AL LK				
	1.2. Contextual knowledge						
	2.1. Appropriate scaffolding for language and content comprehension and output/sharing						
	2.2. Appropriate feedback						
	2.3. Collaboration, interaction, peer work, group work						
	2.4. Multimodality/variety of materials, methods and tasks						
	2.5. Cognitive challenge / HOTS-LOTS/ content focus						

Table 13. Continued

2. Pedagogical knowledge and skills	2.6. Connecting /integration
	2.7. Providing clarity + comprehensible input
	2.8. Appropriate structuring/pace: positive planning of content delivery
	2.9. Enhancing self-regulation: metacognitive processes/self-directness/autonomy
	2.10. Enquiry / questioning
	2.11. Focus on form/language and academic language
	2.12. Alignment /coherence
	2.13. Positive class/group management
	2.14. Diversity / inclusion
	2.15. Focus on culture
	2.16. Authenticity, relevance and task focus – students' interests
	2.17. Being a reflective practitioner and member of a community of practice
	2.18. Checking understanding
	2.19. Developing the four communicative skills
	2.20. Using the L1 appropriately
3. Socio.-affective skills and attitudes	3.1. Positive teacher's attitude: active/passionate/charismatic teaching (intra)
	3.2. Motivation: engagement/ low affective filter (inter) /empowerment/positive management

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Mariona Casas, Llorenç Comajoan, Núria Medina, and Anna Vallbona

Chapter 6   Language Teaching and Teacher Training in Catalonia in the 21st Century: Plurilingualism in Practice

Abstract: The current chapter begins with an overview of societal changes in Catalonia that have had an impact in the Catalan sociolinguistic landscape and, more specifically, in language teaching at universities and schools. After a brief introduction to the language model of schools in Catalonia and some challenges faced in language teaching, three projects related to teacher training degrees at the University of Vic are presented. The first project takes place in the first year and is a writing project in which students write their own language autobiography and reflect upon issues such as linguistic prejudice and their own dynamic views of multilingualism. The second project is an interdisciplinary experience in which university teachers and students collaborate with primary schools in the preparation of a rap show with student performances in English. The third project focuses on a university teacher program to implement courses following the EMI approach. The three projects can be considered examples of a holistic approach to teacher training that puts plurilingualism at its center, with the goal of improving teacher quality at all levels and language quality in different languages in a plurilingual society such as the Catalan one.

Keywords: language teaching, teacher training, plurilingual society

1. Language Teaching and Teacher Training in Catalonia

The training of future infant and primary education teachers in Catalonia and elsewhere around the world is a key aspect for the improvement of education in general. More specifically, society in Catalonia (Spain) has experienced a number of important changes in the last two decades that have prompted a renewal of teacher training and its relationship to languages. In this chapter, we provide three projects related to teacher training that take place at a Catalan university to illustrate how current needs are addressed at different levels: language attitudes of future primary school teachers, interdisciplinary work in English and music for future primary schools teachers majoring in English, and training of university professors in English as a medium of instruction (EMI). The three projects are developed within the three degrees in teacher training at the University of

Vic: Early Childhood Education, Primary Education, and the Double Degree in Primary/Early Childhood Education Teacher.

The changes in teacher training in Catalonia need to be contextualized within important sociodemographic changes in the last 20 years. Catalonia is officially a multilingual area, with three co-official languages: Catalan, Spanish, and Aranese (a variety of Occitan spoken in a small area of Catalonia).

The largest demographic change in in the last 20 years has been that the number of residents in Catalonia born abroad went from approximately 225.000 in 2000 to about 1.300.000 in 2018; that is, there was an increase of approximately 1 million people in 10 years, mostly from Latin America and Morocco. Such an increase in the population had a high impact at schools, which up to that moment mostly functioned in Catalan and Spanish as the local languages and English as the main foreign language.

The latest sociolinguistic survey data (EULP 2018, Generalitat de Catalunya, 2019) shows that 31.5 % of the Catalan population (aged 15 or above) have Catalan as their first language, whereas 52.7 % have Spanish; 2.8 % declared having both languages as their first language, and 10.8 % declared that they had another first language. These data show that Catalan can still be considered a minority (or minoritized) language within Catalonia, even though there are important geographic differences in the distribution of the population's first languages. Regarding language competence in Catalan, there has been a big increase in the percentage of people who can communicate in Catalan. For instance, whereas in 1986, 31.5 % of the population declared that they could write in Catalan, in 2018 the percentage was 65.3 %. Speaking competence has evolved from 64.0 % of the population in 1986 declaring that they could speak in Catalan to 81.2 % in 2018.

All these sociolinguistic changes need to be contextualized within a sociopolitical climate of linguistic legislation in Catalonia since 1975 and the death of dictator Francisco Franco. Vila, Lasagabaster, and Ramallo (2016) divided the development of multilingual education in Catalonia into two main periods. The first one is the *Normalization period* (1980–2000), in which Catalan became a compulsory subject in primary and secondary education and the first immersion programs were implemented. This is the period of implementation of language policy laws and when the so-called *Catalan conjunction model* of education was implemented, which followed two principles: a) Catalan was the main language of instruction, and b) students could not be separated in schools according to their first language. The second period is the *New Immigrations decade* (2000–2010), characterized by the increase of population in Catalonia, mostly due to a new wave of immigration. New educational measures were adopted to cope with the arrival of a large number of immigrant-origin students at infant and primary

schools. More specifically, two measures proved successful: the *aules d'acollida* or "welcoming classrooms" for newly arrived students where they learned Catalan so that they could understand their teachers in their ordinary classrooms, and the *plans d'entorn* or "environment plans," which were holistic plans with the goal of linking schools with neighborhoods of students and their families.

A number of researchers and studies in multilingual education have analyzed the current situation of language education in Catalonia and have identified some of the challenges faced by Catalan education regarding language education policies and practices. Arnau and Vila (2013, p. 20) reviewed a number of sociolinguistic and education studies regarding language-in-education policies in Catalonia and reached the following conclusion: "All the evidence presented shows that the current language-in-education model in Catalonia is one that favors generalized bilingualization of the student body without harming their academic level." They also critically reviewed language-in-education policies in Catalonia and discussed three main challenges. First, the teaching of Catalan (the main language of instruction in the Catalan model) needs to be improved so that the students' skills in this language can be transferred to other languages, mostly Spanish. Furthermore, languages at school need to be made available in the school environment and with all peers regarding their ethnolinguistic origin in order to ensure that Catalan and Spanish are used in all types of registers and not just associated with specific school settings. Second, schools need to better adapt to the environment where they are found, so that better integrated language teaching of several languages is possible. Even though current legislation dictates that schools are flexible to a certain extent regarding the number of hours they teach Spanish, Catalan, and other subjects, many schools do not take advantage of this and tend to have uniform schedules instead of adapting them to the sociolinguistic realities where the schools are found. In this sense, Arnau and Vila ask for closer collaboration between language teachers and teachers of other subjects. Finally, regarding the integration of immigrant students to the Catalan education system, Vila and Arnau argue that in the initial levels (primary education), the results are mostly positive in terms of student attitude and linguistic competence, but this changes at the secondary level, where better support systems and transitions from the reception to the ordinary classes are required.

Pérez, Lorenzo and Trenchs (2016, p. 184) argued that the Catalan language education model in the last few years had to adapt itself to new times following three strategies: a) the effort toward plurilingualism and social inclusion at schools, 2) the use of technology and virtual environments at schools, and 3) the modernization of basic training and youth employability. Considering the complex situation of such an educational system, the authors argued that the Catalan

model has been overall successful in how it has bilingualized the entire student population of Catalonia irrespective of their origin and that has developed an international typology of space and experiences in two perspectives: language management (co-official status of Catalan and Spanish, and curricular and non-curricular foreign languages) and organization management (autonomy of schools and European cohesion). The authors take stock of the current situation and provide some recommendations "for an educational and international language model in Catalonia", which includes the integral planning of the educational stages, the rethinking of teaching methodologies considering the reality of the classrooms and the available resources, educational leadership, assessment, and European integration.

Finally, Bretxa, Comajoan, and Vila (2017), in a qualitative study of 40 interviews to language teachers and school administrators in secondary schools in Catalonia, provided an overview of the Catalan education system focusing on language teaching and how it relates to a number of sociolinguistic and teaching issues, such as the school environment, teaching methodologies, immigration, social change, and teacher training. They discussed an education language system that overall works well but which has some cracks, namely the negative attitudes of some students and teachers toward Catalan, the use of Spanish as the language of instruction (against current legislation), and the little impact that schooling has in changing sociolinguistic norms (e.g., the trend for Catalan speakers to converge toward Spanish when interacting with Spanish-speaking peers).

In light of such challenges, the Catalan government has implemented a number of measures to improve teacher training. Here we briefly mention two recent initiatives. First, the *Programa de millora i innovació en la formació de mestres* (MIF, Improvement and Innovation Program for Teacher Training), created in 2013, is a coordinating body for Catalan universities and has the main goal of contributing to the improvement of initial teacher training. To this end, it promotes research in university teaching in the degrees of teacher education, awards scholarships for international mobility for university teachers in teaching degrees, encourages the exchange of experiences, and launches activities for debate and dissemination regarding initial teacher training. As a result of the program, a number of research studies have been funded and carried out that have added evidence to some important challenges in teacher training, such as the low level of linguistic and cultural competence of first-year students in Catalan (González, Román & Usó, 2017) and English (Escobar, 2016).[2] Still within the MIF initiative, since 2017, a new entry requirement has been established for the degrees of infant and primary education at Catalan universities.

The exam has as its main goal to increase the levels of two critical competences for future teachers: 1) linguistic and critical reasoning competence and 2) logical and mathematic competence. In addition, the exam also attempts to give more prestige to the teaching profession by raising the prerequisites for becoming a teacher. The results in the first two years the exam has been administered have showed that approximately 40 % of the students do not pass the exam, and thus cannot study a teaching degree in Catalonia.

Second, in 2018, the Catalan government published the document titled *The language model of the Catalan education system: Language learning and use in a multilingual and multicultural educational environment* (Departament d'Educació, 2018), where it updated the description and language teaching methodology recommendations for compulsory education in Catalonia. The main change in the model was the adoption of an "integrated" approach to the teaching of languages, understood in two ways: integration of all languages that are taught at schools (with Catalan as the main vehicular language), and integration of language teaching and other school disciplines: "Our language model is based on a holistic approach to language and its learning which is reflected in a teaching practice that revolves around the integrated management of languages and of contents, and it facilitates both language learning and knowledge building through different languages" (p. 7). In addition, the model has plurilingualism as the main goal, with three key objectives: "Make learners aware of their linguistic and cultural repertoire, and appreciate it. Expand and improve the learners' general communicative competence. Provide all learners with the means to develop this competence independently throughout their lives" (p. 12). Finally, the document also refers to the importance of teacher training if such goals need to be attained. Thus, "The language training of teachers aims to ensure: 1) A high level of competence in the language or the languages that they teach. 2) Plurilingual skills, as a necessary element to collaborate in the construction of plurilingual skills on part of the students. 3) Knowledge and practice in methodological approaches and multilingual teaching: CLIL and CLIL in a foreign language. 4) The ability to collaborate in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of a language program in the school" (p. 67).

In sum, in the first two decades of the 21st century, Catalonia has witnessed a number of sociodemographic changes, which have had an impact in its education system and the teaching of languages. In light of such changes, teacher training programs at universities have had to adapt to new needs and contexts. In the following section, we describe three teaching and research experiences that have been implemented at the University of Vic (Spain) with different goals and

methodologies but in all cases with the objective of improving teacher performance in all levels of education in an ever-changing environment.

2. Teacher Training in Catalan and Language Attitudes via Linguistic Autobiographies

This section presents an educational experience carried out in the subject Expression and Communication Techniques of the 1st year of the Teacher Training degrees at the University of Vic. The subject is considered a core subject (6 ECTS) and is taught in the first semester. The project was implemented for the first time in the academic year 2015–2016 and is still part of the syllabus of the three teacher training degrees of the University of Vic: Early Childhood Education, Primary Education, and the double Degree in Primary/Early Childhood Education Teacher.

The aim of the subject is to provide students with the necessary tools to communicate effectively in the academic and professional field in Catalan. Future teachers will have to be linguistic models, not only from the linguistic-disciplinary point of view, but also from the point of view of linguistic attitudes and from the assumption that the process of teaching-learning languages takes place in multilingual sociolinguistic environments (García -Azkoaga & Idiazábal, 2015; Dolz-Mestre, 2019).

In this framework, the experience described in this section presents the process of rebuilding the linguistic life of students (future teachers) and the reflections that they embody in their linguistic autobiographies. The objective is twofold: on the one hand, to become aware of the multilingual environments in which students coexist and where they will work in the future, that is, in the schools of Catalonia (Barrieras, 2009, Pereña, 2016) and, on the other, to develop their metacognitive capacity by means of a written project (Bazerman, 2016; Corcelles et al., 2015; Carlino, 2004).

The linguistic autobiography project is reflective writing project in which the students write their own linguistic autobiography. Linguistic autobiography is a reflective genre, whose objective is to become aware of the learning process and the use of the different languages throughout life. Several studies highlight the importance of these stories of linguistic life, especially in the training of teachers, since it allows them to reflect and learn to teach languages based on their own experience (Ballesteros et al., 2008; Fons, 2011).

It is an individual written project of 1,500 words that the student writes throughout the semester. The writing process has several phases which are detailed in the work plan of the course. In the first three phases, students must

read and analyze three documents. First they read *El despertar* (Lozano, 2014), which serves as a model of the genre they must write. It is a linguistic autobiography that won the first prize of the 1st Language Autobiography Contest organized by *the Grup d'Estudi de Llengües Amenaçades* (GELA) of the University of Barcelona. The author of *El despertar* was invited to the university to explain to the students the process of elaborating his own linguistic autobiography. Second, they discuss the essay *Una imatge no val més que mil paraules. Contra els topics* (Tuson, 2001). Reading and analyzing this document helps students overcome linguistic prejudices, as the author breaks topics related to languages, such as that the usefulness of a language does not depend on the number of speakers or that local languages are less important than global ones. Finally, they discuss the survey *Els usos lingüístics de la població de Catalunya* (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2014), which helps students to get familiar with the sociolinguistic environment of Catalonia and learn to handle sociolinguistic concepts that they will need to write in their autobiography.

In the successive phases, students plan, textualize, and revise their own linguistic autobiography. Much of the project takes place in the classroom, with the support of the university professor and, in some cases (especially the review phase), in collaboration with other students. The examples below correspond to the projects of the double degree students written during the academic year 2016–2017. This group was made up of 21 students whose first languages were diverse: Catalan (7), Spanish (8), Catalan and Spanish (5), and Tamazight (1). The information provided in their autobiographies shows that they are an effective reflective tool that can bring a number of sociolinguistics and identity matters to the front, such as: linguistic prejudices, linguistic intercomprehension, motivations to learn new languages, or the advantages of plurilingualism, as reflected in the following eight fragments (the names of students are pseudonyms, the originals in Catalan have been translated into English):

Overcoming linguistic prejudices

(1) Anna (Spanish L1): "I have been able to see that not only the language you grow with and that you use in your daily life is important, but all languages are equally important and indispensable, since when we use them they are those and not some others that at that time, allow us to communicate."

(2) Ramon (Catalan L1): "All languages deserve the same respect and have the same prestige, no matter how much or how little they are spoken. Nobody has the right to discredit my language or to make me embarrassed about it, we must be proud of our own language, defend it and fight against the prejudices and inequalities that exists to speak it normally."

Linguistic intercomprehension

(3) Joan (Catalan L1): "In the first year of the baccalaureate I participated in an exchange program with Italy, where I met Gabriela, an Italian girl who has become a great friend. We have been talking throughout this time and we have seen each other twice after the exchange. Our language of communication at the beginning was Spanish, since she did not understand Catalan and I did not understand Italian, but little by little, we have learned words from each language. I would like her to teach me her mother tongue."

(4) Fátima (L1 Tamazight): "Every summer with my family, like most families from Morocco, we spent our holidays in Nador. The problem with this situation was that my little cousins had been born in France and they had a very little mastery of Tamazight, because with their family, they spoke French. This was a difficulty for us, but it ended up being an opportunity to learn a new language: in my case, I learned French and they learnt a bit of Catalan."

Advantages of bilingualism

(5) Gemma (Catalan and Spanish L1s): "I have grown simultaneously between Catalan (my father's language) and Catalan (my mother's language). Now I realize that this family circumstance has allowed me to have more facility to learn new languages."

(6) Clàudia (Catalan and Spanish L1): "I always thought that speaking different languages is not an impediment because two people can understand and even love each other. My father has always spoken Catalan and my mother, Spanish. None of them has abandoned their language for the other. I have learned both languages alike. I thank my parents, who have never spoken the same language but who have taught me how to speak and respect them."

Motivations for learning a language

(7) Aina (Spanish L1). "When I was 11 years old, I fell in love with an Anglo-Saxon singer. This stated to make me interested in English, because I wanted to understand the lyrics of the songs and because, as I am somehow a dreamy person, I thought that one day I would go to one of his concerts and I would be able to talk to him. It seems to me that this is the reason why I want to become an English teacher now."

(8) Jordi (Catalan L1). "At high school, I took German as an optional subject, to tell you the truth, I got bored. At first, I did not see what was going on in the class, but at the end of the year I took part in an exchange in Germany and

then I saw that the classes I had had at the high school had helped me to start practicing this language."

Finally, a more extensive fragment that highlights one students' assessment of the experience of writing her linguistic autobiography is shown. The fragment is part of the conclusions of the writing project:

(9) Laia (Catalan L1). "When at the beginning of the course, the teacher of the subject explained this project, I thought it would be very difficult and boring. It seemed to me that my experience with the languages was not very extensive, that there would be nothing interesting to explain and that everything would be related to Catalan, the language I use in my daily life. But when I started planning it, I began to remember moments of the past related to languages. This encouraged me but in reality, until I had almost finished my linguistic autobiography, I did not realize the importance of language learning in my life."

In sum, the linguistic autobiographic writing project carried out in the teaching degrees at the University of Vic has allowed the students to become aware of their relationship with languages, from the point of view of learning, language use, attitudes, and values. Being aware of their connection with language is key factor when tackling the process of teaching and learning languages once they are teachers, considering the sociolinguistic environment in which they will work. Future teachers must be prepared to develop plurilingual competence for children, which includes not only learning curricular languages, but also encouraging positive linguistic attitudes and recognizing their own linguistic repertoires. The discussion of such topics, in oral and written form, will likely contribute to the development of an education model that has linguistic diversity as a focus and that aims at guaranteeing equity, social inclusion, and educational quality.

3. Teacher Training in English via an Interdisciplinary Music Project

Teaching English as a foreign Language in Primary school in Catalonia has undergone several changes since the 1980s, when only a linguistic approach mostly based on grammar was used. In contrast, current approaches emphasize a communicative approach, using strategies and resources that emphasize the pupils' communicative competence. In this view, foreign language learners co-construct their linguistic knowledge when they are engaged in oral or written

tasks because they must pay attention both to form and meaning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, Enever & Lindgren, 2017). Furthermore, the guidelines from the Catalan government emphasize the integration of the teaching of languages (e.g., Catalan, Spanish, and English) and languages and content (i.e., CLIL methodologies) (Departament d'Educació, 2018).

This section presents an interdisciplinary project in English and Music implemented in the Degree in Primary Education Teacher majoring in English at the University of Vic. The relationship between language learning and music has become a major focus of study and overall it has been shown that there are multiple connections between language and music. For instance, neuroscience research suggests profound relationships between music and language (Patel, 2008), as children acquire music and language by getting immersed in the sound environment we live in (Hallam, 2010). In addition, music and language learning are likely to be developmentally related since the connections between these two fields are created during the prenatal period (Levitin, 2006).

Musical activities tend to be pleasant for children and are said to be a source of motivation, particularly with teenagers because of their rhythm and movement. Music can really involve all the children, even those pupils who don't like singing can join up by miming or dancing. It is a group activity which has been proved to have a positive impact on children socialization, their emotional development, creativity, and imagination, among other areas (Casals et al., 2014). Songs support not only phonetic and language awareness, but also literacy learning.

In a song, language, and music come together. Using songs is a powerful tool to learn a foreign language because pupils are more confident and relaxed, they pay more attention and are more receptive to learning. Moreover, songs are a great help in memorizing the language (Toscano, 2010). Apart from that, pupils increase their fluency with the use of songs, which help them identify the rhyme and rhythm of the language (Fomina, 2000).

In the Catalan context, recent research shows the advantages of using Hip-Hop music as a tool to be used in class (Aliagas, Fernández & Llonch, 2016; Garrido & Moore, 2016). *Rap* as part of Hip-Hop culture introduces the value of speaking in a context traditionally based on writing. Besides, composing *Rap* gives writing a meaning, since it is used in a real social and communicative context. According to Aliagas, Fernández & Llonch, *Rap* (an acronym that stands for Rhythm and Poetry) is a bridge that connects students to poetry. The previously mentioned authors also emphasize the importance of the interdisciplinary work that composing *Rap* poems in class may offer.

The interdisciplinary project between Music and English subjects, also known as *The English Rap Project*, is the implementation of a teaching unit in the 6th year

Table 1. Distribution of Classroom Sessions into Music and English (Medina, 2014).

Music sessions	English sessions
1. Video session with Rap displays	1. Alliteration
2. Rap rhythm	2. Rhyming words
3. Boomwhackers	3. Nursery rhymes
4. Body percussion	4.Tongue twisters, riddles, and jokes
5. Melodies	5. Limericks & kennings
Rap composition (4 sessions)	
School concert	

of Primary Education at schools in Catalonia that involves 3rd-year university teacher training students, university faculty members, and elementary school English learners and their teachers (Medina, 2014). The teaching unit prepares elementary school pupils to use their creativity in order to learn English as a foreign language. This is done emphasizing the process of creating meaning by negotiation when selecting the adequate words in composing a poem. Creating a *Rap* poem stimulates not only the use of humour, play on words, rhyme and rhythm born in the brain and the heart, but also cooperative work; that is, creating *Rap* poems contributes to the inclusion of all the pupils irrespective of their language level, since singing together in a foreign language and group work motivates them to achieve a common goal.

In 2017, the University of Vic organised a training course for English and Music teachers in order to promote *The English Rap Project* in some schools of Catalonia. The course started by introducing the advantages of using *Rap* in teaching English as a foreign language. The university faculty designed the training in different sessions, focusing on activities related to teaching rhyme, such as exercises based on alliteration, creating rhyme awareness by reading some poems, tongue twisters, riddles, and jokes. In a parallel way, music sessions focused on activities related to the use of song and voice using traditional *songs, nursery rhymes,* and percussion music instruments (Boomwhackers and Orff instruments) (Table 1).

The project is also an opportunity for university students to experiment the integration of the curriculum in a transdisciplinary way. Thus, the university students in the course *Approaches and Methods for Teaching English*, a 6-ECTS subject in the 3rd Year of Teacher Training Majoring in English, fully participated in the project by being part of a unit about transdisciplinary work and reflecting upon the importance of students' motivation, creativity, and interest

when learning a foreign language. More specifically, together with the different local schools taking part in the project, the students at the university created their own raps, which were used as a dialogue with the schools (cf. O'Reilly, 2011). The students and faculty at the university learned how to create sung poems integrating aspects like rhyme awareness, homophones and homonyms, play on words and humor. Finally, both university students and faculty members organised themselves into several groups that put together the *English Rap Show*. For instance, the university students prepared the script in English to present the show, organised the order in which the different schools had to perform and in doing so interacted in English with the school pupils, prepared some games in English for the intermission, created the certificates for the participants, and videorecorded and edited the show to include the English *Rap* lyrics for each school group.

After the implementation of the teaching unit to several 6th Year classrooms results showed that the school pupils and university students experimented some changes as far as motivation was concerned (Medina, 2014). Preliminary research has also confirmed that there is an increase in the improvement of the results in learning English as a foreign language in the 6th Year of Primary education in the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, as well as improving vocabulary. Therefore, using *Rap* in the English class in the 6th Year of Primary can be used as a tool to motivate that benefits linguistic improvement.

4. Teacher Training in English via EMI at the University Level

The use of English as a language of instruction in university courses and degrees has recently experienced a significant growth, motivated, on the one hand, by the process of the internationalization of European Higher Education institutions (Wächter and Maiworm, 2008), and, on the other hand, by the globalization process that has promoted the so-called *English-ization* of the higher education system (Dearden, 2015; Fenton-Smith, Humphries and Walkinshaw, 2017). The reasons for the use of English as a means of instruction at university vary between countries and educational environments but, in many cases, they are linked to two main aspects: in the first place, the need to attract students from other universities and to promote mobility between students and teachers (Jensen and Thøgersen, 2011, Dearden and Macaro, 2016); In the second place, the fact that this language has become a language of international communication in the scientific-academic field (Smit and Dafouz, 2012; Björkman, 2008). Thus, those responsible for academic policies in universities consider English Medium Instruction (EMI) as a mechanism for the internationalization of their

educational offer, since EMI allows universities to create spaces and opportunities for students to become part of an increasingly globalized academic world. The term EMI refers to the teaching of subjects in English in countries or environments in which English is not the language of most students.

The implementation of EMI programs in university studies has generated a number of issues that still have no clear answer, and that in many cases depend on the context in which teaching is carried out. In a recent article, Macaro et al. (2018) concluded that the evidence from research is not enough to confirm the benefits that have been attributed to EMI programs in recent years. The same article calls for the need to put on the table research results in key issues, such as: a) the development of the linguistic competence of the students b) the profile of EMI teachers and their general linguistic competence c) the teachers' pedagogical training in the EMI field d) the effects on the content taught and e) the perceptions of both students and students of teachers.

One of the essential elements for the success of an EMI program at university is, without doubt, the training of teachers. As Hoare (2003) explains, teaching subjects in English is not just a simple matter of translating the class content or presenting it visually. It requires the development of didactic strategies as well as knowledge of the most relevant linguistic features of the subjects taught. Hellekjaer (2010) stresses the fact that, in general, EMI involves redesigning and, in many cases, reconceptualizing class sessions and materials that teachers use in L1, which represents an extra workload for the teachers involved. Very few universities have established requirements for the teaching level of their EMI lecturers, as Kling and Staehr (2012) point out. According to Dearden (2015), universities establish their own criteria when selecting these teachers. The criteria most used in the selection process are doctorates in Anglo-Saxon countries, work experience abroad in programs taught in English, and a good level of English, often with no proof of such a level.

Ever since the introduction of the new degree programs under the Bologna Plan (2009–2010), the University of Vic promoted the creation of an International Campus, in which the Faculty of Education offered a significant number of EMI subjects taught in English. Following the formative requirements for lecturers at the University of Vic, the Faculty undertook a process of improvement of the EMI teaching quality to guarantee the academic success of the various teacher training degrees where some subjects are taught in English. To this end, an EMI 40-hour teacher training course was prepared and launched: 32 hours of class participation plus 8 hours of personal work. The course was compulsory for all the EMI lecturers with or without previous EMI experience. The main objective of the course was to increase the lecturers' confidence in preparing and

delivering EMI classes, using a variety of tools and techniques, irrespective of the English language levels of their students.

The course was based on the three fundamental competencies that constitute the pillars of teaching in English in university contexts: the academic linguistic competence, the didactic-methodological competence, and the intercultural competence of the lecturers. Two main specific objectives were set to develop the lecturers' academic language competence: they were trained to recognize the specific linguistic needs of the content to be taught and to identify the linguistic and communicative needs of the students in the different teaching and learning situations (lectures, supervised work sessions, practical classes, tutorials, etc.).

As for the didactic and methodological competences, lecturers were trained to recognize teaching strategies used in university settings and to use specific didactic strategies of teaching through English in university contexts. They were helped to develop the scaffolding process between language and content in an EMI subject, as well as to apply the methodological knowledge learned to the different micro teaching sessions carried out during the course before they implemented the method in their real classes.

As EMI subjects are part of the international campus, lecturers were also trained in intercultural competence so that they could understand and respect the multiple cultural affiliations of the international students and establish positive and constructive relationships in their classes.

It was a practical training course, during which participants applied the methodological knowledge learned in different practical sessions that they carried out during the course. As the training progressed, participants were asked to write an overview of the syllabus of their subjects that included the knowledge and strategies learned during the course.

In order to learn about the lecturers' perceptions, a pre-course questionnaire was prepared to gather information about the motivation for teaching in EMI contexts, the benefits that they expected, the academic and teaching concerns, and the initial perceptions of the teachers involved. Regarding motivation, 71 % of teachers said that they were intrinsically motivated to teach in an EMI program, although a certain degree of extrinsic motivation (29 %) was also mentioned, such as the pressures received from the different departments at the university. The main advantage of EMI programs (67 %), according to the teachers, was that it would better prepare students from an academic point of view. Most teachers (78 %) pointed to the contents as the focus of their class sessions, compared to 22 % who mentioned the need to integrate content and language. Other advantages that were mentioned were that the materials already existed in English and that the EMI offered a context where communication would be

authentic. On the other hand, the problems that they predicted in the teaching of the EMI classes were their own difficulties and the students' difficulties with the language and the contents. Faced with this situation, all lecturers called for clear and precise pedagogical guidelines.

At the end of the year, once the subjects had been taught, the lecturers' perceptions were obtained from a questionnaire and from the opinions expressed in a discussion group. Despite the previous reticence to the course, the general perception was that the EMI training course had helped them in their teaching and, according to informal comments, the students had been more motivated than expected. Teachers perceived that they had not been able to include as many contents as planned, as they had had to provide more time for linguistic support, especially as regards written or oral tasks. In addition, they pointed out that they had appreciated a decrease in the attention span of the students in EMI classes, which forced them to diversify the type of sessions that they had initially planned. Two factors appeared in the subsequent questionnaire that had not emerged in the initial questionnaire: the time of preparation and the workload. Another important aspect that lecturers emphasized was the different levels among the students. Finally, it should be noted that none of their concerns about their own language competence was mentioned after teaching the subject.

In summary, the teachers evaluated the training course positively. They recognized microteaching as one of the most useful components of their training since it allowed them to observe or experiment with different didactic-methodological strategies at first hand. In addition, they emphasized the importance of receiving constructive comments from both trainers and their colleagues. The sessions provided a meeting point for EMI teachers at the university where they could share their concerns and experiences.

As mentioned in the introduction, reality and educational contexts are changing, and that often affect the results of the research. In our case, the study of teachers' perceptions revealed not only the need for the training of teachers in EMI, both in the linguistic and methodological fields, but also the need to offer them support during the courses and the need to establish spaces for dialogue to share the experience of teaching in a foreign language.

Improving the pedagogical knowledge of lecturers will inevitably have an impact on the quality of their teaching at university; thus, it will help them better teach their students. It will also have an impact on the training of students in the teacher training degrees as these students will be able to experience good educational EMI practices that they will transfer to their future CLIL classes. By being exposed to good EMI programs, students will not only progress and improve their language skills, but they will also become more confident teachers, able

to systematically reflect upon their own experience as EMI learners, which will make them capable of evaluating the challenges and needs of their future primary CLIL learners. In sum, as Pavón Vázquez & Gaustad (2013, p. 84) pointed out, "students gain greater self-awareness of their own capabilities in both the classroom setting and in terms of their future professional development."

5. Conclusion

This chapter has presented an overview of current language education in Catalonia from the perspective of one teacher training program for future primary school teachers at the University of Vic, emphasizing the multilingual and intercultural approach of the training of primary school teachers. The three projects are based on the premise that the future teachers must combine their knowledge of the sociolinguistic reality of the school environment with the didactic knowledge related to the coexistence of several languages in their teaching practice.

The three projects have adopted complementary perspectives. In section 2, emphasis is placed on the need for initial training to support the promotion of plurilingual competence. The linguistic autobiography project showed that the process of writing a linguistic autobiography is an efficient way to raise a number of topics related to plurilingualism as well as language teaching and student's identity and their future. This project has proved to help students to become aware of the multilingual environments in which they live and in which, in the near future, they will become teachers (Pereña, 2016). The English Rap project described in section 3 was aimed at students of the degrees of teacher training with an English major. In this project, through the interdisciplinary work in music and English, future teachers interacted with primary school students in English and experienced a communicative task related to rap composition and poetry. The end result was that primary school teachers were exposed to new ways of designing units and university teachers and students collaborated in the design of the sessions, which in turn was used as material for the university course on approaches to teach foreign languages. Finally, in the project in section 4, the focus was not on the novice (future teacher), but on the university teachers who adopts an EMI approach. In adopting the EMI project like the one described in this chapter, the Faculty of Education at the University of Vic has made a commitment to the training of university and school teachers and, in particular, those who will be specialists in teaching in and the English language. Furthermore, the implementation of the EMI program is key because it places the students of the degrees of teaching in a privileged formative space: in their student role as participants in courses taught in the English language and,

therefore, with more opportunities to improve their linguistic competence in this language and, in their role as future teachers, as agents of a process that will benefit them in their teaching practice.

The projects that have been described are still ongoing and have a number of limitations that further research needs to explore, such as the transferability to other university and school environments, their impact in student performance (e.g., final grades), and the impact in the long run, after university students have graduated. Despite the limitations, overall the three projects have been well received by students and faculty members at the university and participants from the participating elementary schools. We hope they are an inspiration for further collaboration with different institution in the hope that the goals of quality education, which include language education in a plurilingual society, are achieved in Catalonia.

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Nagore Ipiña and Begoña Pedrosa

Chapter 7   Perceptions towards Multilingual Practices in Teacher Education

Abstract: Higher Education (HE) in Europe has been attributed an important role in fostering multilingualism and therefore, universities in Europe have developed policies (Extra & Yagmur, 2012; Fortanet-Gómez, 2013; Pavón, Lancaster & Bretones, 2019) and reflected on practices that could promote multilingualism in the last few years. In that line, approaches such as CLIL or EMI have also become common practices in some contexts. However, most of the experiences carried out in HE have proved not to be sufficient (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013) to reach the aims and thus, further research is needed (Dafouz & Smit, 2014). Focusing on Teacher Education, the intent of this chapter is to examine critically the practices carried out in Teacher Education at the Faculty of Humanities and Education of Mondragon University. The study was carried out by means of focus groups with student teachers and semi-structured interviews with teacher educator to analyse the existing perceptions towards multilingual practices at the Faculty of Humanities and Education from an ecological perspective (van Lier, 1998, 2004). Results show that the practices conducted are perceived as meaningful by the participants as a way to foster multilingualism. Moreover, results of this study call for a new step towards Pluriliteracies Teacher for Learning Approach to develop a more holistic and ecological perspective. However, conducting similar research studies in other contexts is needed due to the fact that to our knowledge, very few research studies have been carried out in HE to examine critically the practices carried out.

Keywords: multilingual practices, Higher Education, student teachers, CLIL, EMI.

Introduction

Higher Education (HE) in Europe has been attributed an important role in fostering multilingualism and therefore, universities in Europe have developed policies (Extra & Yagmur, 2012; Fortanet-Gómez, 2013; Pavón, Lancaster & Bretones, 2019) and reflected on practices that could promote multilingualism in the last few years. In that line, approaches such as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) or EMI (English-Medium Instruction) have also become common practices in some contexts. Indeed, as Macaro et al. (2018) state, CLIL and EMI are a growing global phenomenon in all stages of education with a particular emphasis in HE. Thus, more and more universities offer programmes through the medium of English (Corrales et al., 2016; Lasagabaster, 2015;

Lasagabaster, Doiz & Sierra 2014; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018). Consequently, research studies on CLIL and EMI have increased in the past two decades (Sagasta & Ipiña, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016, 2018; Macaro et al., 2018) although primary and secondary education have been the main focus. Indeed, as Corrales et al. (2016), Costa and Coleman (2010), Lasagabaster (2015) and Lasagabaster and Doiz (2018) claim, research on tertiary education remains scarce.

Studies in CLIL and EMI

Several international studies in HE have been conducted in recent years to analyse the impact of both approaches, CLIL and EMI, on students' and lecturers' perceptions towards the practices being carried out. As regards CLIL, Vilkancienė (2011) examined learners' perception regarding language, content and motivation by using a questionnaire. The author found that the participants of the study claimed gains in content, language and motivation, and conclude that CLIL has a lot to offer at tertiary level due to the fact that it brings a new pedagogical approach. Aguilar and Rodríguez (2012) also carried out a study to evaluate students' and lecturers' perceptions of CLIL. The authors conclude that students reported gains in listening and speaking skills. In the case of lectures, findings revealed that lecturers showed a positive attitude towards teaching through English. Nonetheless, the lecturers refused to be trained in CLIL. Similarly, Contero, Zayas and Arco Tirado (2018) conducted a study to identify lecturers' perceptions on their teaching skills when delivering CLIL lessons with 138 lecturers belonging to 66 different fields of knowledge in Andalusia. Their results depicted the following methodological shortcomings among Andalusian CLIL lecturers: interaction, cooperation, student autonomy, linguistic awareness and scaffolding, as well as convincing lecturers to generate an authentic CLIL environment in class.

As far as Teacher Education is concerned, Ipiña and Sagasta (2017) carried out a longitudinal analysis with 100 first-year Teacher Education students involved in a CLIL experience. The authors concluded that students' attitudes towards the target language changed significantly for the better due to educational variables such as the university's language project. Results also showed that the CLIL experience was an important factor in sustaining those positive attitudes. In that line, conclusions drawn in Pérez's (2018) study show that in-service teacher training is the key to develop positive perceptions towards CLIL. Furthermore, the overview conducted by Pérez (2018) depicts five main lines of action to address the deficiencies found in her context: modifying existing undergraduate degrees to guarantee methodological and theoretical basis, reinforcing CLIL preparation in

university teacher trainers, the creation of new bilingual degrees at both graduate and undergraduate level, offering specifically tailored courses for pre- and in-service teachers, and ongoing research into teacher training.

As regards EMI, Corrales et al. (2016) carried out a case study to explore the perceptions of a group of computer science professors, students and the program administrator in a Colombian university. Results revealed that EMI has benefits but also brings some challenges. As regards benefits, the authors conclude that students and teachers have the opportunity to use language in authentic communicative situations and can enhance their technical vocabulary knowledge as well as building confidence when using the language. Moreover, participants of the study noted that working in English prepares them for their future professional needs. As far as challenges are concerned, Corrales et al. (2016) conclude that the success of the course depends on the language level and attitudes of all participants and also on professors' teaching style impact on students' experience. In the study conducted by Ball and Lindsay (2013) in the University of the Basque Country to analyse teachers' own perceptions regarding the demands of EMI, similar results emerged. In fact, the study showed that most of the participants highlighted their awareness of the methodological possibilities EMI offered and evidenced their language improvement as a consequence. Fernandez Costales (2017) investigated the satisfaction degree of 255 undergraduate students engaged in English-taught undergraduate programmes in the University of Oviedo. Although results show that the overall satisfaction with English-taught programmes is rather high, the author identifies some areas of improvement, in particular, the level of English of the lecturers and more quality controls. Furthermore, Fernández Costales (2017) calls for more longitudinal studies to investigate the possible fluctuations in student satisfaction.

However, both theoretically and in terms of research, there is an ongoing debate on the concept of *integration* when defining programmes where content and language are taught together (Cenoz et al., 2014; Cenoz 2015; Cenoz & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015; Coyle et al., 2017; Karabassova, 2018; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Lin, 2015; Llinares, 2015; Meyer et al,. 2015; Meyer & Coyle, 2017; Meyer et al., 2018; Ruiz de Zarobe & Cenoz, 2015; Sagasta & Ipiña, 2016; Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018). In fact, in the last years, the concept is being analysed from several perspectives (Llinares, 2015; Meyer et al., 2015; Meyer & Coyle., 2017; Meyer et al., 2018) but no clear answer has been developed yet. In that vein, Meyer et al. (2015) claim that integration has not been examined deeply yet. In fact, the authors call for a research agenda in which pluriliteracies are taken into account due to the fact that integration is natural in a pluriliteracies approach. As Meyer et al. (2015: 52) assert, "pluriliteracies development involves

the growing ability of individual learners to 'language' subject-specific concepts and knowledge in an appropriate style using appropriate genre moves for the specific purpose of communication in a range of modes." In that line, and paying attention to tertiary education, Schmidt-Unterberger (2018: 3) considers that it is also necessary to think about "if and to what extent the teaching of discipline-specific language and academic communicative skills takes place." Hence, van Lier's (1998; 2004) ecological perspective could serve as a framework to better understand the integration proposed. And that is precisely the aim of the present chapter, to critically analyse student teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions towards the multilingual practices carried out in the Faculty of Humanities and Education.

Ecological Perspective

The "integration phenomenon" of content and language is both complex and conflicting (Coyle et al., 2017) and even more in tertiary education settings. Moreover, as Harrop (2012) claims, although the tension between language and content has theoretically been resolved, the tension still prevails. The research studies presented above also show some dichotomies on content and language outcomes. In fact, a more holistic perspective is needed to value the impact on such approaches in tertiary education. In that line, Meyer et al. (2015, 2018) have proposed the Pluriliteracies Teaching for Learning Approach (PTL) as an educational proposal and anchor the process of learning in van Lier's (1996, 24) ecological perspective (Meyer et al., 2018). The authors posit that "when the ecological potential of learning is shared and understood by those involved – as set out in the PTL approach – then the quality of learning is transparent and driven by participants" (Meyer et al., 2018: 253). Therefore, emergent ecological systems shape each learning and teaching episode and integration becomes natural. That is the reason why van Lier's (1998; 2004) proposal is used to analyse student teachers and teacher educators voices in the present chapter.

Van Lier (1998; 2004) claims that the classroom is a multi-layered ecosystem and as a result, it is necessary to analyse more than teacher-student or student-student interaction (Carretero, 2004). Moreover, it is necessary to analyse, on the one hand, individual relationships within the context and on the other hand, the personal state. In that line, van Lier (2004) introduces the term of classroom ecology. From an ecological perspective, language is the tool individuals use with all the resources or content that the environment provides, by means of social interaction (Pedrosa, 2011). The multi-layered ecosystem is composed by three systems: the macrosystem (curriculum, language project and language policy),

the exosystem (syllabus, pedagogical actions and subjects), and the microsystem (teachers, students and opportunities for language use). Therefore, the individual is an active organism, and as van Lier (2004) mentions, language is the tool to interact with the rest of the ecosystems. Consequently, social interaction becomes a compulsory factor in teaching and learning processes (van Lier, 2004) and language and content cannot be divided. Indeed, as the author states there is an inseparable connection between language and content and the integration "lies at the core of the ecological approach of language learning" (van Lier, 2004: 3).

As Macaro et al. (2018) state, a systematic review of research in EMI and CLIL in HE is urgently required due to the fact that there are also insufficient studies demonstrating the kind of practice which may lead to beneficial outcomes including positive perceptions towards multilingual practices. And that is the added value of this chapter: to examine critically, following van Lier's (2004) framework, perceptions student teachers and teacher educator have towards the multilingual practices carried out in Teacher Education at the Faculty of Humanities and Education of Mondragon University.

The Study

Our study involved teacher educators and Year 4 student teachers. The aim was to examine critically the perceptions towards the practices carried out in Teacher Education at the Faculty of Humanities and Education of Mondragon University and therefore, participants were invited to give their opinion regarding the practices carried Teacher Education degrees, both Early Years and Primary Education. In this chapter, we focus on factors and variables developed by van Lier (2004) regarding the ecological perspective in order to answer the following research question: How do Teacher Educators, Early-Years student teachers, and Primary student teachers perceive the multilingual practices carried out in Teacher Education at the Faculty of Humanities and Education of Mondragon University?

Teacher Education at the Faculty of Humanities and Education of Mondragon University is a trilingual programme that has been running since 2009. The programme offers a four-year, full-time degree and consists of 240 ECTS. 80 % of the credits are delivered through the medium of Basque, 10 % through the medium of Spanish, and 10 % through English. Student teachers are expected to attain a C1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) in Basque and Spanish, and B2 level in English in four years. As far as Spanish is concerned, three half-modules are offered to students

Table 1. Number of Participants per Year and Degree

Degree	Type of participant	Total	Participants selected
Early Years education degree	Teacher educators	6	2
	Student teachers (Year 4)	91 (whole cohort)	6
Primary Education degree	Teacher educators	7	2
	Student teachers (Year 4)	114 (whole cohort)	12

in Year 1, Year 2 and Year 4 and input in the 35 % of the modules is also offered in Spanish to all students. In the case of English, three full modules are taught in English, in Year 1, Year 2 and Year 4 as well as input in 20 % of the modules.

The participants were randomly selected for the present study. The student teachers were chosen from the different degrees offered in the faculty: Early Years Education degree and Primary Education degree. As far as teacher educators are concerned, they were considered in this study because as Banegas asserts, CLIL teachers themselves are central to understanding why CLIL may or may not work (Banegas, 2012). The selection criterion for teacher educators was the following: teacher educators should unfold lessons in both cycles of Early Years Education degree or Primary Education degree (1st cycle: Year 1 and Year 2 and 2nd cycle: Year 3 and Year 4). The following table [Table 1] depicts the participants involved.

Two focus groups were conducted in this study with students teachers. All of them followed the same guidelines which was previously designed by the researchers following the phases recommended by Murillo and Mena (2006). The aim was to obtain the opinions, perceptions and feelings (Krueger & Casey 2000) of the participants about the multilingual practices being carried out at the faculty and to reflect on the topic (Egaña 2010; Kitzinger 1994, 1995). All focus groups were audio-recorded. The focus groups conducted in 2014–2015 academic year were 54:06 minutes long on average.

In the case of the semi-structured interviews conducted with teacher educators, an outline was designed and followed by the researchers when carrying out the interviews in order to get comparable data (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) and to establish the core of issues to be covered (Freebody, 2003). The semi-structured interviews were 46:21 minutes long on average and followed the recommendations given by Newby (2010) to reflect the main research questions and avoid misunderstandings.

Table 2. Frequencies and Percentages of the Analysis Conducted from the Focus Groups

	Primary Education Degree Year	Early Years Education Degree Year
Macro-system	6,39 % (11 turns)	3,88 % (11 turns)
Meso-system	53,48 % (92 turns)	60,07 % (170 turns)
Micro-system	40,11 % (69 turns)	36,04 % (102 turns)
Total	172 turn coded (total: 254 turns)	283 turns coded (total: 316 turns)

The data gathered from these focus groups and semi-structured interviews were transcribed and analysed using the Atlas.ti software and following the categories proposed in van Lier's (2004) framework. That is to say, van Lier's ecological system was used as a framework to analyse students' and teachers' voices. Turns of interaction were the unit of analysis of this study in both, focus groups and semi-structured interviews. In the macrosystem or exosystem topics related to the language policy or language program of the university were included. Under the concept of meso-system, turns coded as syllabus and pedagogical actions were identified. In the micro category proposed by van Lier (2004) turns of interaction coded as teachers, students and classroom sessions were analysed in order to capture the perceptions towards the multilingual practices.

As regards the procedure followed, first, two blind researchers examined and coded 15 % (10 % of the focus groups and 5 % of the semi-structured interviews) of the data with a success rate of 83 %. Consistent discussion was conducted when disagreeing. Second, the rest of the data were coded with a success rate of 94 % by the blind researchers and discussions were carried out when researchers disagreed. Third, percentages of the turns were calculated to allow descriptive quantitative comparison. Last, participants' voices that provide critical analysis were elected to exemplify the factors and variables adduced by the student teachers and teacher educators when discussing on the multilingual practices carried out in the degrees.

Results

The following table [Table 2] depicts the frequencies and percentages calculated following van Lier's (2004) framework of macro-, meso- and micro-systems from the analysis of the focus groups.

The main focus of both groups, Early Year Education student teachers and Primary Education student teachers, is on the meso-system (60,07 % of the turns in Early Years Education and 53,48 % in Primary Education). However, Early

Years Education and Primary Education participants also adduced to macro-system and micro-system as displayed in Table 2[1].

Among the turns coded under the category of macro-system, language program and policy of the university play an important role for both groups of student teachers. As depicted in the following example, Primary Education student teachers perceive that the language policy and language program should be explicitly discussed with students while unfolding the multilingual practices.

Extract 1: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 143–144)
ST_G2PE: I think. . . well, I miss knowing about the language policy of the university, I don't know... I guess that you put into practice that policy and it may be logical for you but we may not understand what we are doing nor why. And I reckon that knowing why we do what we do and how we do it is important. Now, in our 4th year, I understand why we were doing that and the other in our first and second year but I didn't understand it while I was doing it.
SS_G1PE: They mentioned something in our first year about the language program and the language policy but it should be repeated while we are doing things. I agree with her, I've understood some things in my 4th year about the language program.

Moreover, Early Years Education participants of our study point out the fact that the university's main language is Basque and the importance of being aware of it from the very beginning. Indeed, the role of Basque in the language program and language policy is perceived as an important factor:

Extract 2: Early Years Education student teachers' focus-group (turn 124)
SS_G4EY: When you enrol this University, you know that it is a Basque university and that your Basque language level should be high, or . . . can you imagine yourself going to a Catalan university and saying "I don't know catalan" [the rest of the students laugh] You should know where you are coming and that the Basque will be the main language of communication.

Although the macro-system is not the main focus for the participants of our study (6,39 % in Primary Education and 3,88 % in Early Years Education), it is notable that for both groups, being aware and knowing about the language program and language policy is important. Thus, participants of this study clearly identified aspects to be improved. That is to say, the macro-system should also be worked on with student teachers in order to better understand the multilingual practices carried out in the faculty.

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1   All focus groups were carried out in Basque and extracts were translated by the researchers for the present chapter.

Among meso-system, the syllabus is the main area of concern for Primary Education and Early Years Education student teachers. However, the participants of our study refer also to specific multilingual pedagogical actions in the focus groups conducted in this study. As it could be observed in the example below, student teachers taking part in our study consider that some multilingual pedagogical actions could be important for their future career.

Extract 3: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turn 32)
SS_G4PE: ...and then we have some sessions in Spanish but I don't know if carrying out some tasks in Spanish is meaningful. . . sometimes I think that it may be better if we do that in Basque but I guess that those actions may also be linked with our future needs. . . having an interview with some parents for example, we should know how to do that in Spanish also.

Extract 4: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turn 84)
SS_B4PE: (...) . . . but then in our 4th year (...) is a language exam enough to measure our language level? I don't agree. . . and only in Basque. If I learn by heart some rules and I pass the exam? Does that mean I master the language? No way! You will forget everything in 2 months! I think that the process is important.

As stated above, the syllabus is the main area of concern. In that line, do not question the use of different languages in the curriculum and subject as displayed in the examples above.

Extract 5: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 146–150)
SS_G7PE: .. and then you have a subject in English.. and. . .
SS_B2PE: Yes, suddenly you have a subject, Life Place Learning. . . (participants laugh) and you don't understand why you have to do that subject in English...
SS_B1PE: uff
SS_B2PE: We have had different subjects in English in our first, second and third year linked with european education systems, multiculturalism, language learning. . . but.. that one?
SS_G4PE: I think that the language is not the problem in that subject, I think that the content is the problem. I don't understand the sense of the subject. In fact, I think that having some subjects in English is a great opportunity for us... using the three languages, Basque, Spanish and English in the curriculum is very useful.

Data about language accuracy and the transversal process of language learning is also revealing. The extract below shows student teachers' reflection on language development opportunities in the curriculum.

Extract 6: Early Years Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 133–141).
SS_G3EY: I think that a huge importance is given to language accuracy.
SS_G2EY: I agree. It doesn't really matter the language but the process should be the aim, the writing and oral skills but not the number of mistakes in a sentence.

SS_G4EY: I would include more practical things

SS_G3EY: Yes, that's it. In order to focus on language accuracy in some subjects we could work on how to write notes to parents and work on language by means of those activities in different languages.

SS_G1EY: Language and content should be coherently assessed in all subjects, not only in some of them and they should be meaningful.

SS_B1EY: Not just in the last task

SS_B2EY: That's it, during the 4 years.

SS_B1EY: And in all the subjects.

SS_G3EY: Yes, to have more opportunities to develop our languages.

Concerning the micro-system, Early Years Education and Primary Education student teachers refer to teacher educators as an important factor. As it could be observed in the examples below, student teachers taking part in our study consider that teacher educators have a big responsibility on the practices carried out in the Faculty.

Extract 7: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 80–81).

SS_G5PE: I think that in practice there are differences among classrooms. Depending on the teacher you have, you may work more on some things, they may be more severe... I think that as they ask us to work on groups, they should also work together and agree on the criteria.

SS_G4PE: yes, using the same criteria is important because you can see that all students pass the subjects in some groups and not in other groups...

Extract 8: Early Years Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 208–221).

SS_B1EY: The minimum language-requirements should be set for all subjects and in all languages.

SS_G2EY: And who will assess those requirements?

SS_G1EY: And do you think that all teachers will be able to assess those minimum requirements?

SS_B1EY: I think so. But, it requires more time and more work.

SS_G1EY: Do you think so? Imagine SS_G2YE that I do a master next year and I start working here, do you think that I will be able to assess your content and your language?

SS_G2EY: Yes, you should.

SS_G1EY: I have the language title needed but it may not be enough to work in this university.

SS_G3EY: . . . I don't know. . .

SS_G1EY: That is what I mean.

SS_G2EY: Yes, yes

SS_G4EY: Should teacher be content experts and language or languages experts then?

SS_G1EY: Or content teachers can assess the work done first and language experts after. . .

SS_B1EY: Or teachers could be trained on language

SS_G2EY: Training yes...

Table 3. Frequencies and Percentages of the Analysis Conducted from the Semi-Structured Interviews

	Early Year Education teacher educators	Primary Education teacher educators
Macro-system	54,61 % (71 turns)	44,91 % (53 turns)
Meso-system	27,69 % (36 turns)	28,81 % (34 turns)
Micro-system	17,69 % (23 turns)	26,27 % (31 turns)
Total	(130 turns coded (total: 151 turns)	118 turns coded (total: 134 turns)

The participants of our study refer also to the opportunities for language use offered by and in the faculty. As shown in the example below, student teachers participating in our study think that the multilingual practices offered by the faculty are not enough and individual processes as well as personal effort are needed.

> **Extract 9: Primary Education student teachers' focus-group (turns 178–179)**
> SS_B2PE: I think that the university offers resources for language development; mainly for Basque and English but practices should be more consistent and constant.
> SS_G3PE: But it may not be enough for all students. For example, a student that may not have a high language level, do you think that he or she could develop the level required in 4 years?

> **Extract 10: Early Years Education student teachers' focus-group (turn 196)**
> SS_G1EY: . . . or setting some aims to be achieved in 4 years and design individual processes to reach the objectives. Because being aware is necessary but you need to make some effort to improve your language level and the faculty could not offer individual opportunities during 4 years.

As displayed in Table 2 and exemplified above, the macro-, meso- and micro-factors adduced by the Early Years Education and the Primary Education student teachers are similar. Therefore, we might say that student teachers in both degrees perceive the multilingual practices carried out at the faculty as useful but improvable.

As far as teacher educators are concerned, data from the semi-structured interviews is summarised in the following table [Table 3]. Table 3 shows the frequencies and percentages calculated following van Lier's (2004) framework of macro-, meso- and micro-systems from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews[2].

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2   2 interviews were carried out in Basque, 1 in Spanish and 1 in English: Extracts were translated by the researchers for the present chapter.

The main focus of the semi-structured interviews is on the macro-systems; 54,61 % of the turns in Early Year Education and 44,91 % in Primary Education. As displayed in the example below, teacher educators pay particular attention to the integration of content and language. In fact, as exemplified below teacher educators consider that the design of the curriculum may help student teachers develop their language level.

Extract 11: Early Years Education teacher educators' interviews (turn 9)
T4EY: ... I think that the integration of content and language could be more than a pedagogical approach. Indeed, I believe that it is a way of understanding teaching and learning processes and organizing the curriculum by means of the integration of content and language in different languages could be a good opportunity to foster students' language development.

Extract 12: Primary Education teacher educators' interview (turn 24)
T2PE: In the case of English, I think that the integration of content and language is necessary if we want student teachers to foster that approach at schools. Moreover, I really believe that this approach is interesting due to the fact that individual students' learning path throughout the four years could be promoted.

Teacher educators also alluded to factors related to the meso-system. As shown in the following extract, a high percentage of turns refer to the syllabus and subjects offered in the Faculty as well as to the pedagogical actions and interventions of the teachers.

Extract 13: Early Years Education teacher educators' interview (turn 49)
T1EY: [...] The integration of content and language implies using different methodologies in our subjects and therefore, the design of the sessions takes into account diversity. But not only that, the syllabus of the course is also created considering the diversity of the students.

Extract 14: Primary Education teacher educators' interview (turn 30)
T2PE: [...]... by means of subjects offered at the faculty student teachers deal with real materials and real tasks and they realize that they, they do have a lot more knowledge in the language and content than expected . . . From my experience the CLIL approach includes students as well and expects them to.. to use their own knowledge, giving students the protagonism in all subjects.

Teacher educators share their perceptions towards the micro-system factors. The extracts depicted below show the added value of the integration on students' feelings. Indeed, both extracts emphasize the impact of the approach on students.

Extract 15: Early Years Education teacher educators' interview (turn 49)
T4EY: [...] I feel that it [meaning integration of content and language] fosters natural interaction among student teachers and of course, with me. I think that they feel

comfortable in the classroom, there is a relaxed atmosphere and their attitude towards learning changes. I guess that our characteristics, as teachers I mean, may also have an impact, eh. . . some students may feel better with one teacher than with another but. . . anyway, there is a big difference promoted by the approach itself and the way of understanding language teaching and learning processes.

Extract 16: Primary Education teacher educators' interview (turn 63)
T3PE: I see that the diversity of options offered to the students methodologically... individual work, group work. . . makes a difference and students feel secure. However, I believe that it is not easy to get used to the integration of content and language at the very beginning. Some students may feel lost in the first subject but they get used to it in a couple of weeks.

Discussion and Conclusions

Approaches such as CLIL or EMI have become common practices to foster multilingualism (Corrales et al., 2016; Lasagabaster, 2015; Lasagabaster, Doiz & Sierra 2014; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018) in HE. However, studies are still scarce (Corrales et al., 2016; Costa and Coleman, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2015; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018) and hence, systematic research is urgently required (Macaro et al., 2018) to identify the factors that may impact on undergraduate students' and university teachers' positive perceptions.

The present study offers further original insights into the perceptions about multilingual practices in the context of HE. Its goal has been to critically examine the multilingual practices carried out in the Faculty of Humanities and Education at Mondragon Unibertsitatea to arrive at a more accessible understanding of our programme from an ecological perspective. In so doing we have collectively, both from the perspective of student teachers and teacher educators, drawn on scenarios to improve multilingual practices because as Fernandez Costales (2017) claims, the influence of EMI or CLIL at university level needs to be evaluated, not only in relation to the benefits in language competence or the gains in particular skills, but also at a macro-level and using multidisciplinary approaches. In the same line, van Lier's (2004) ecological perspective served as a framework to capture learning and teaching episodes in the present study. Moreover, the complexity of the ecosystem was to be captured by analysing student teachers' and teacher educators' voices.

This study confirms that student teachers, both Primary and Early Years, perception towards the multilingual practices carried out at the faculty as useful but

improvable as in other studies (Corrales et al., 2016). In particular, the present study revealed that the student teachers' voices clearly indicate that participants' perception is rather positive towards the multilingual practices offered at the university, a conclusion which is supported by previous studies (Aguilar and Rodríguez, 2012; Fernandez Costales, 2017). However, the data of the current study also revealed that most student teachers identify aspects to be improved in the Faculty's offer. Our study depicted that no difference was found among the factors alluded by Early Years Education and the Primary Education student teachers. It is interesting that the main focus is on factors related to the meso-system for all student teachers. As our findings show, the syllabus is the main area of concern for student teachers although they refer also to specific multilingual pedagogical actions as they are the most noticeable variables of their daily multilingual practices. Among macro-system, language program and policy of the university play an important role for both groups of student teachers and the role of Basque in the language program was considered important. Indeed, in contexts where a minority language is the language of instruction – which is our case – students recognise the need to develop their minority-language competence in academic settings. Concerning the micro-system, student teachers participating in our study emphasised the importance and responsibility of teacher educators. Indeed, teachers are the most significant variables that have an effect on students' perceptions towards classroom practices (Havik & Westergård, 2019) through their interactions with students.

However, findings enacted from student teachers show areas to improve. Student teachers highlighted the importance of being aware and knowing about the language program and language policy. Some participants agreed on the idea that to better understand the multilingual practices being carried out in the Faculty systematic explicitation is needed on the part of teacher educators. Focusing on individual factors, participants in our study allude to the effort needed to develop their individual language competence. Furthermore, as in other research studies conducted in HE (Aguilar and Rodríguez, 2012), the main focus of the focus groups was placed on language and not in content. This should lead us to consider that student teachers require a holistic view of the program in order to develop positive perceptions towards all pedagogical actions designed at the university.

As regards teacher educators, the main focus was of the interviews carried out in this study was on the macro-system and a particular attention was paid in the integration of content and language. As student teachers, teacher educators refer to the syllabus and subjects offered in the Faculty as well as to the pedagogical actions and their interventions. Teacher educators reflect on students' feelings.

As far as the interactive model is concerned, this CLIL experience presents as a transactional model and not a transmission model (Van Lier, 2004), and it is focused towards the protagonism of the learner, engaging the learners as active participants in the learning process: "the centrality of student's experience and the importance of encouraging active student learning rather than a passive reception of knowledge" (Van Lier, 2004).

The present study was an attempt to conduct a comprehensive analysis on the implementation of multilingual programmes at university level as proposed by Fernandez Costales (2017) with a particular emphasis on holistic issues that might contribute to determine the value of integration of content and language. While the general outcome seems to be rather positive, this research underlines that there is still room for improvement, in particular as regards the awareness on content and language development. In this sense, moving towards a *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* (Meyer et al., 2015; 2017; 2018) can be useful to unreveal some of the complexities of multilingual practices in integrated learning settings. In that line, our findings confirm what Meyer et al. (2015: 44) assert. The authors state that "adopting a CLIL research does not automatically lead to effective learning and increased subject-specific task performance." Thus, teaching explicitly academic language is necessary to impact on the construction and communication of knowledge (Meyer et al., 2015; Meyer & Coyle, 2017). Mohan, Leung, and Slater (2010) stress the importance of conceptualising learning if integration is the aim and moreover, as claimed by Coyle et al. (2017), taking into account the ecosystem of learning may help us systematically including other factors (emotional and affective factors among others) that impact on the learning process.

The emerging research agenda around CLIL evidences the need to focus on a deeper understanding of the role of subject specific literacies in the enablement and improvement of the effective learning. Meyer et al. (2015, 2017) believe that it's essential to work on a model which support new classroom practices as well as prioritise and promote the development of the students' pluriliterate repertoires. In that vein, the authors propose the *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* to develop subject specific literacies in more than one language, and to provide pathways for deeper learning into and across languages, disciplines and cultures (Meyer et al., 2018) which will prepare students for living and working in the Knowledge Age (Meyer & Coyle, 2017). Hence, the *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* focuses on the development of subject specific literacies and transferable knowledge and skills as well as on personal growth, offering a pathway for deeper learning. We believe that redesigning our practices considering the *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* could help us improving

the aspects highlighted by student teachers. Furthermore, Lasagabaster (2018) asserts that English-medium instruction (EMI) or CLIL courses are common at university level on a global scale but there is a scarcity of pedagogical guidelines about how to implement effective courses. In that line, this study offers also some pedagogical implications.

Based on the results obtained, our plurilingual curriculum will take into account the approach proposed by Meyer et al. (2018) to foster the meaning making of student teachers. Hence, the proposal will strengthen the connection between the conceptualising continua and communicating continuum (Meyer et al. 2015) because it "becomes evident as novices increase their meaning-making potential by moving outwards along the continuum alongside an ability to verbalize their increasingly complex conceptual understanding adequately in the appropriate language" (Meyer & Coyle, 2017: 7). Nonetheless, the *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* will also evidence the fundamental importance of variables such as generation and sustainment of learner commitment and achievement, and mentoring dimension in order to offer a unified model that "allows for the design of deeper learning ecologies where mentors and mentees are engaged in the processes of constructing and communicating of knowledge" (Meyer et al., 2018: 241).

At an institutional level and from the view of teacher educators, more training is required to understand the *Pluriliteracies teaching for learning approach* and impact on both, student teachers' and teacher educators' perception towards the multilingual practices conducted. Furthermore, longitudinal studies are welcome to investigate the possible fluctuations of the same participants from Year 1 to Year 4. Also, conducting similar research studies in other contexts is needed due to the fact that to our knowledge, very few research studies have been carried out in HE to examine critically the perceptions of all actors involved in the practices carried out.

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Ainara Imaz Agirre and Agurtzane Bikuña

Chapter 8   Challenges in English as a foreign Language Teaching in the Basque Country: Pre-Service and In-Service Teachers' Perspectives

Abstract: The introduction of innovative English as a Foreign language programmes has revealed a change in the role of the foreign language teacher as well as the need of continuous teacher training (Enever, 2011). Regarding the development of primary English as a foreign language teachers two competencies have been identified as key throughout the teachers' career (Wilden and Porsch, 2017): language proficiency and subject specific teaching methodologies. Thus, this study examines the perceptions in-service English foreign language (EFL) teachers encounter in their daily practice in the Basque Autonomous Community (Spain). A total of 15 school foreign language expert and novice teachers in primary education were interviewed. Data were collected from semi-structured interviews with the English as a foreign language teachers focusing on teacher training to teach subject-specific content, language competence required to teach primary children and teachers' concerns regarding the implementation of innovative English as a foreign language programmes in primary education. The analysis of the data showed that teachers shared their views and concerns regarding the criteria examined in the interviews. Foreign language teachers' concerns were enhanced in schools implementing innovative programmes suggesting the need for reinforcing teacher training in new pedagogical trends. Findings also revealed a need for reflection on the understanding of how current language policies understand language competence for foreign language teachers. In addition, a deeper reflection on the English as a foreign language teacher's role in primary education is requested.

Keywords: EFL, Pre-service teachers, in-service teachers

1. Introduction

Recent research in the educational field has highlighted the need to address the problems identified by teachers and researchers in the practice of such interaction (Breidbach and Viebrock 2012; Bruton 2013; Laurent & Corey 2017; Llinares, Morton, and Whittaker, 2012; Pérez Cañado 2016). These works have revealed the conceptual and pedagogical limitations that show the previous approaches (CLIL, CBL, etc.). In a similar vein, the introduction of innovative English as a foreign language programmes has revealed a change in the role of

the foreign language teacher as well as the need of continuous teacher training (Enever, 2011).

In the last decade, the teaching of foreign languages is spreading throughout Europe and the age of introduction at school is extending to younger age groups (De Bot, 2014). Taking this tendency into consideration, researchers are calling for a specific training of foreign language teachers. However, research into the challenges of foreign language teachers is still in its infancy. In pursuit of this goal, the purpose of this research work will be to gather evidence on the training needs and challenges of foreign language teachers. Specifically, to meet the training needs that identify students receiving initial training as well as in-service teacher voices.

2. Theoretical Background

The current educational context of the Basque Autonomous Community has a significant feature: multilingualism. Two official languages, Basque, the minority language, and Spanish, the majority language, co-exist with English, the predominant foreign language at school. Concerning minority language at this stage, around 18,7 % of children's mother tongue is only Basque, whereas near 10 % of children are bilingual from their homes (Basque Government, 2016). So on average 70 % of children entering pre-primary school do not know the official minority language. So the goal at this early age is to introduce the language to those who do not know it through immersion programs before English (third language) is introduced. This fact influences the introduction of English in pre-primary, which very often starts at the age of three.

As the teaching of foreign languages has widespread in almost all European countries, the reflection on foreign language teaching has also emerged. In recent years, several lines of research have been launched focusing on the foreign language teaching (Lorenzo & Trujillo, 2018). In this vein, research has shown two main issues emerge when the teaching of the foreign language comes to the floor: the methodology used to introduce the foreign language and creating good quality spaces for communication to occur.

There have been many and extensive discussions on methodologies for teaching a foreign language in different fields of research. Also, several approaches have been used to make the teaching a foreign language more meaningful or successful in the last decade. However, research on these approaches has shown mixed results so far. Even though several studies have explored the advantages of CLIL (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter, 2013; Lasagabaster, 2011; Dalton-Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo & Nikula, 2014) some other studies have revealed that CLIL

may not be reaching its full potential (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016; Meyer, Coyle, Halbach, Schuck & Ting, 2015).

The emerging critical research agenda around CLIL points out the conceptual and practical shortcomings such as deficits in academic language use, in the knowledge and in the mastery of writing and oral communication as well as an absence of cognitive discourse functions (Dalton-Puffer, 2013; Meyer et al., 2015). Moreover, several studies (Arum & Roska, 2014; Meyer, Imhof, Coyle & Banerjee, 2018) have shown concerns on students' learning approach and have emphasised the need to encourage deeper learning by developing the subject specific literacies.

The Pluriliteracies Teaching for Learning (PTL) (Meyer & Coyle, 2017) model attempts to address the conceptual shortcomings of CLIL by focusing on the development of specific literacies and offering pathways for deeper learning across disciplines, languages and cultures. The PTL approach addresses the development of 21st century skills cognitive, linguistic and emotional dimensions of learning. The PTL approach "allows for the design of deeper learning ecologies where mentors and mentees are engaged in the processes of constructing and communicating of knowledge" (Meyer et al., 2018: 241). Moreover, emotional and cognitive engagement are socially constructed and reconstructed in daily and school interactions, emphasising the social nature of the education.

However, apart from the methodological issues, foreign language teaching has a remarkable feature that makes it comparable to second language teaching: having fewer real contexts for using the same language outside educational contexts. This has a direct impact on foreign language teaching. In fact, it tends to create contexts for meaningful and effective communication for the purposes of professionals engaged in the teaching of a foreign language. To this end, a number of research studies have shown that teacher communication skills are of utmost importance in foreign language teaching.

In this respect, as Enever (2011) mentions, the profile of the foreign language teacher for young learners should consider the development of the child's language and combine them with expertise in the foreign language, which is appropriate for each age. Furthermore, Mourão and Ferreirinha (2016) claim that "both pedagogical and language skills are essential" (p. 10) for foreign language teachers to work with primary and pre-primary young learners. Furthermore, teachers "require an understanding of the principles of pedagogy and child development as well as being sufficiently confident to speak fluently and spontaneously to children in the second language using language considered appropriate for this age group" (p. 10).

Table 1. Description of the Participants

	Pre-service teachers	In-service teachers
Number of participants	21	19
Years of experience	None	15 (sd:2.53)

3. The Study

As noted in the previous section, the spread out of foreign language programs to early ages has raised a need of researching teachers' voices. Furthermore, the changes in education in recent years have led to a profound reflection on the profile of the foreign language teacher. However, very few research studies have considered foreign language teachers' voices in this context. In order to achieve this aim, the purpose of this research work will be to gather evidence on foreign language teachers' training needs and challenges. More specifically, to meet the training needs that identify students receiving initial in-service training as well as in-service teacher voices. Considering this gap in research, the following research question was entertained:

i. what challenges do pre-service and in-service English as a foreign language teachers encounter in Primary Education?
a. Participants

A total of 40 English as a foreign language pre-service and in-service teachers in Primary Education were interviewed for this study. On the one hand, 19 pre-service teachers participated in the study. All the participants were in the fourth and last year of Primary Education with a minor in foreign language teaching. At the moment of the interview, student teachers were finishing their school internship in the English as a foreign language classroom. On the other hand, 21 teachers were in-service teachers. All teachers were highly experienced English as a foreign language teachers in Primary education ranging from 11 years until almost 20 years of experience. At the time of the interview, they were working at public or charter schools with a permanent position. Regarding their teaching experience, all teachers acknowledged having left the textbooks aside and they were trying to introduce different approaches or methodologies to teach the foreign language.

b. Data collection instrument

For the present study, semi-structured interviews were employed due to their flexible approach that allows the interviewee to establish areas of interest

(Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). Following the requirements and criteria mentioned earlier, individual semi-structured interviews were designed, carried out, transcribed and coded to gather qualitative data and get a holistic view of the phenomenon. Attention in the interviews was specifically paid to three criteria: teachers' training, methodological aspects and the use of the language. In fact, the questions were open-ended and flexible because the content, the flow of information and the choice of themes vary according to what the interviewer feels, shares and answers in order to approach the real meaning of the answers. The semi-structured interviews lasted on average 45 minutes and interviews were conducted either in Basque or in English. Moreover, it should be noted that all the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed with the consent of the participants, but their names were replaced by pseudonyms in order to keep their anonymity and ensure the accuracy of the study.

c. Data collection procedure and data analysis

All the data gathered from the interviews were transcribed and coded by the researchers. The units of analysis of this study were the turns of interactions identified in the transcription of each interview. Regarding the procedure followed to analyse the data, first, two blind researchers examined the transcriptions independently and coded 15 % of the data with a success rate of 95 %. The analysis was carried out considering four main categories: teacher training, teaching methodologies, communication in the foreign language and challenges as foreign language teachers. The rest of the data were coded with a success rate of 95 % by blind researchers. Consistent discussions were carried out when disagreements were found. A few turns of interaction in our data set were left uncoded due to the lack of relation with the main theme. After coding the main categories, the percentages of categories were calculated to allow a descriptive comparison. The groupings and percentages are shown below in the results section.

4. Results

The main objective in this study was to examine the challenges encountered by pre-service and in-service English as a foreign language teachers in Primary Education. A total of four main criteria were used to codify the data: teacher training, the methodological approaches adopted, the use of the foreign language and the future challenges. Table 2 describes the occurrences and percentages calculated from the codification of the interviews by in-service teachers.

Table 2. Descriptive Data of the Interviews

	Pre-service teachers	**In-service teachers**
Teacher training	79 (34. 34 %)	63 (22.82 %)
Methodological approaches	59 (25.65 %)	87 (31.52 %)
Use of the FL	60 (26.08 %)	79 (28.26 %)
Future challenges	32 (13.91 %)	47 (17.02 %)
TOTAL	230	276

Table 2 shows clear trends in terms of the criteria identified by pre-service and in-service teachers. Pre-service teachers focus mainly on teacher training, even though they highlighted methodological aspects and the use of the foreign language too. However, training seems to be teachers' main concern. In-service teachers, on the other hand, mainly referred to methodological aspects and language use. Two criteria clearly associated with their daily experience. In spite of the fact that teacher training was also frequently mentioned by in-service teachers, they claimed for lifelong learning opportunities within their professional career.

Regarding teacher training, in-service teachers indicate the need to take a new perspective on foreign language teacher training programs. A more in-depth reflection should be posed in order that training to respond to the challenges of future education.

"It seems to me that if we are in a foreign language, we need to start a real reflection process. Nowadays, the ways we do things sometimes seem to be conformist, I wonder if we are making a real bet. Are we ready to respond to the needs of the future society, the educational model, the student profile? Is this the training we receive as a foreign language teacher? I have doubts. "

(IS_03)

Most teachers stated that they are undergoing a process of innovation in their school but the foreign language is not fully integrated on these processes. This issue raised the question about the need for specific training in the foreign language is emphasised. There is also a shift in perspective in foreign language teaching and this, in conjunction with the rest of the education system, should address the challenges of the 21st century.

Foreign language teachers also point out the importance of the specific training in their teaching. In fact, certifying the C1 level in the CEFR framework in Spain is sufficient in English (Fleta Guillen, 2016). However, if in-service

teachers want to take a significant step forward, receiving specific training rele-
vant to this profile will be viewed as a key factor for in-service teachers.

> *"It is known that a good level of English for a foreign language teacher is essential. Is that*
> *enough, though? I would say no, we need pedagogical training in foreign languages and*
> *multilingualism."*

<div align="right">(IS_13)</div>

Concerning the methodological aspects in teaching and learning of the FL, inte-
grating language and content in the everyday classroom practice is a main chal-
lenge. Pre-service teachers aipatzen dute atzerriko hizkuntzaren izan ohi dela
ikastetxeko berrikuntza prozesuetatik kanpora geratu ohi den arloa.

> *"How to integrate the English projects with the other projects which are being developed in*
> *the school or corresponding grade. it is important not to have English as an "extra, isolated"*
> *element. Try to include it in the other projects. Trying to identify the different problems*
> *or interesting topics in society so that they can be brought to the classroom. To be able to*
> *integrate into other projects, materials need to be designed and developed. This area would*
> *need more attention."*

<div align="right">(PS_11)</div>

As stated in the following quote, a more integrative approach to continue inte-
grating the foreign language with other areas of knowledge would be beneficial.
In fact, training may lead to a change in that situation. In addition, pre-service
teachers claim a need for developing critical criteria to connect the theoretical
knowledge of the methodologies studied throughout their degree and the reality
they find at school.

> *"Student-teachers need training on how to foster language development and use in nat-*
> *ural ways. They need to have criteria on which pedagogical approaches will best enhance*
> *language development and use in different contexts. Therefore, it is not only a questions*
> *of learning what each pedagogical approach is about. They need to discriminate the peda-*
> *gogical rationale behind different approaches concerning language development and use."*

<div align="right">(PS_04)</div>

In-service teachers identify their foreign language lessons as an isolated subject
from others, and even in some cases, having little contact with other teachers.

> *Another great difficulty lies in the relation among teachers. If we aim at integrating the for-*
> *eign language within the projects, coordination among teachers would be crucial.*

<div align="right">(IS_01)</div>

In-service teachers showed difficulties in integrating the foreign language in
project-based methodologies or found difficulties when in advancing both
language and subject specific knowledge. Indeed, from the perspective of what

has been done so far, it would require a change of perspective and knowledge in other areas. Likewise, the connection between content and language, based on CLIL approach, highlight the concerns mentioned in the interviews.

> *"We are working on combining the field and the language, we do social sciences in English, but we do not realize the full potential of this combination. It seems to me that such an approach can give us another game."*
>
> (IS_08)

Beyond the link between content and language so far, the pedagogical and methodological innovations mentioned above have revealed a growing need to integrate the teaching of the foreign language with other areas of knowledge or school subjects. Hence, adopting an interdisciplinary approach in the foreign language seems to be an important aspect. In fact, in-service teachers claim for a step further in foreign language teaching.

> *"How to integrate the English projects with the other projects which are being developed in the school or corresponding grade."*
>
> (IS_06)

Concerning the second criteria, communication in the foreign language criteria comprises two subtopics: language competence and language use. Teachers' language competence as well as students' language use were mentioned in the interviews. Among pre-service and in-service teachers, language competence has been one of the most recurrent aspects. In these conversations, it seems extremely important for teachers to have a good linguistic competence. But not only to have a good level of language according to the CEFR, but also to have the ability to adapt that language for each age group they are teaching to.

> *Foreign language teacher must have a good level of English. B2 level? Level C1? The higher, the better. But we must not forget, we ask a child 'shall we wear an apron?', 'Shall we read a story?' Or 'what will we write on the blackboard?' And sometimes that's the difficult part.*
>
> (PS_16)

On the other hand, the use of the foreign language was also a remarkable issue in the interviews. Three main aspects were identified by pre-service and in-service teachers: creating the need to use the foreign language, creating the use of the foreign language outside the classroom and answering to language diversity in the classroom. Promoting the use of foreign language within the classroom is one of the challenges identified by pre-service and in-service teachers. Creating spaces for children to use natural language in a foreign language classroom to make the room a breathing space for the language.

> *"We need to find ways so that the kids find the connection between the language and their daily life; so that they find language useful and meaningful. I believe these two aspects are key: usefulness, functionality and meaningfulness. And so I think it is essential to embed the foreign language in their daily life in order to reach those objectives. So that children can feel they can play, laugh, have fun... with that language; so that they connect the language with positive experiences and with pleasure. Apart from that, we need to have a very clear idea of the foreign language objectives we set for each stage. Those must be objectives directly related to the (maturation) development of the kid and also we need to give relevance to experiences."*
>
> (PS_03)

Teachers also identify the difficulties of moving this situation out of the classroom. In other words, given the sociolinguistic context, teachers find a real challenge in creating opportunities to use the language outside the classroom.

> *"Approach the language to make them feel closer to the child's everyday reality, to find usefulness and not to feel strangers."*
>
> (IS_02)

The third element identified by teachers is the need of strategies and resources for managing the linguistic diversity they have in their daily lessons. In-service teachers mentioned that, in addition to the official languages of the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC), Basque and Spanish, some of their students have other mother tongues. Taking into account the goals set by the curriculum in terms of language proficiency for two official languages, teachers show difficulties in integrating these goals with linguistic diversity they find in their classrooms.

> *"We have difficulties in achieving the goals set for the foreign language. What about other languages? How do we strengthen home languages?"*
>
> (IS_09)

Final remarks depicted the challenges pre-service and in-service teachers have when teaching the FL. Both pre-service and in-service teachers identified continuous training as a necessary element to continue improving their professional profile. More specifically, as indicated by all teachers in order to continue improving their language competence as well as the new methodological trends outcoming by new pedagogical advances opportunities for continuous training are required.

> *"Need to have continuous training both regarding language and new pedagogic trends. In the past there was more support from the Basque government."*
>
> (IS_12)

However, in-service teachers also claimed for a more integral language policy by stakeholders in order to *"enable opportunities for continuous training for teachers as well as stronger connections between primary education and universities"* (IS_08).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Evidence from the interviews revealed that teacher training was one of the many repeated topics in the teachers' discourse. Among pre-service and in-service teachers, apart from a high language level in the foreign language, the need for specific training was mentioned. That is to say, training adapted to the child's context, school education project and social challenges is needed both, pedagogically and linguistically. Several recent studies in other contexts, such as, Madrid or Portugal, also highlight the need for this specific training (Enever, Fleta and Mourao). However, it is understood from the teachers' interviews that in the schools where pedagogical innovations are taking place, teacher training becomes even more necessary.

Pre-service and in-service teachers identify in the interviews the need to develop methodological aspects. In current research, methodological aspects have also played an important role. A wide range of research studies have focused so far on CLIL but these studies to date have yielded different results (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, 2016; Meyer et al. 2015; Lorenzo and Meyer, 2018). In the voices of teachers, the field and the combination of language are not sufficient to meet the goals of the curriculum. Likewise, the difficulties or challenges that teachers have expressed in connecting foreign language with other projects also seem insurmountable with the current model. To this extent, PTLs can expand the possibilities of combining the foreign language with other areas of knowledge, with the aim of achieving deeper learning.

Inspite of the PTL approach addressing the 21st century skills, there still remain several questions unresolved. Teachers in their interviews indicated that from an interdisciplinary approach, the integration of the foreign language with the rest of the school subject or disciplines is required. In fact, in order to make the use of foreign language more natural in this context, the teaching of foreign language should also be integrated under the interdisciplinary approach. To find out how PTL can help us achieve this integration, we will need further research.

The third major challenge identified in conversations is the use of foreign language. Creating contexts to engage students in using a foreign language, both inside and outside the classroom, becomes a task for teachers. Similarly, for

communication to be effective and for interaction to occur in a foreign language, it is necessary to use linguistically appropriate strategies (Enever, 2011).

A final thought that emerges from the interviews is a need for different institutions, i.e. government, universities and schools, to work together in order to approach the challenges foreign language teaching has in a holistic manner. Moreover, as Fleta Guillén (2016) points out there is a need to redefine the education policies concerning the teaching of FLs in primary and, thus, in pre-primary education.

In conclusion, this study has been an attempt to identify the challenges pre-service and in-service English as a foreign language teachers encounter in the Basque Autonomous Community. Evidence from semi-structured interviews showed that teachers in both public and charter schools shared their views and concerns regarding the teacher training, the methodological approaches for English as a foreign language teaching and the use of English in the classroom. English as a foreign language teachers' concerns were enhanced in schools implementing innovative programmes suggesting the need for reinforcing teacher training in new pedagogical trends. Findings also revealed a need for reflection on the understanding of how current language policies understand language competence for English as a foreign language teachers. Nonetheless, this contribution has shortcomings that we need to acknowledge but we believe they open up new lines for research. Future work should include a larger sample and should be replicated in other educational contexts. Other interesting lines of research should examine foreign language teacher training and continuous training in more depth. This line of research could also contribute to analyse the new methodological approaches (i.e. PTL approach) in more detail. In order to address the challenges of future education, research should also consider a deeper reflection on the English as a foreign language teacher's role in primary education.

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Do Coyle

Chapter 9   Constructing Research Pathways from Multilingual Challenges to Pluriliteracies Practices

Abstract: Global, social, and cultural movements intertwined with educational challenges have fostered a new research agenda in terms of language and subject literacy development. Considering the trajectory of CLIL research, the author claims for a more holistic and connected research paradigm. Thus, this chapter presents a conceptual framework for a multiperspectival, participatory, and 'close-to-practice' research. It is also highlighted the importance of Research Partnerships if the potential of language and subject literacy is to be promoted.

Keywords: pluriliteracies, multilingualism. research agenda

This chapter of the volume seeks to frame a research agenda in terms of recent shifts in thinking driven by global, social and cultural movements referred to by Vertovec (2007) as 'super-diversity'. Whilst the complex roles of language and languages in multilingual contexts have driven education debates, theoretical frameworks and practice-oriented models over centuries (Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012), the dynamic, hybrid and transnational linguistic repertoires' (May, 2014:1) of the *here-and-now* are demanding alternative ways of understanding the principles, perceptions and practices of multilingual education. Moreover, the realities of increasingly diverse classrooms in increasingly diverse contexts have required stakeholders to listen to teachers, learners, families and communities in order to rethink how challenges can become opportunities for enriching social and linguistic capital. The rhetoric is grand, the canvass is complex and the research is hybrid.

More recent discourses in language education have increasingly embraced issues of inclusion and social justice in line with principles outlined in the UNESCO report (2013:4).

> The ever-fast evolving cultural landscape is characterised by an intensified diversity of peoples, communities and individuals, who live more and more closely. The increasing diversity of cultures, which is fluid, dynamic and transformative, implies specific competences and capacities for individuals and societies to learn, re-learn, and unlearn so as to meet personal fulfilment and social harmony.

Yet, transforming such underpinning values into regular classroom practices demands changes in the way that bilingual education is designed and understood, context-embedded and sustained at many different levels. A more holistic view not only of language education *per se* but also the roles of language in school learning in general are urgently required (Schleppergrell, 2004: 1).

> It is through language that school subjects are taught and through language that students´ understanding of concepts is displayed and evaluated in school contexts. In addition, knowledge about language itself is part of the content of schooling, as children are asked to adopt the word-, sentence-, and rhetorical-level conventions of writing, to define words, and in other ways to focus on language as language. In other words, the content, as well as the medium, of schooling is, to a large extent, language. (2004:1–2)

Increasing amounts of research have focused on the nature of 'integration' leading to different interpretations of integrated learning in bilingual education especially content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Pendulum swings and pedagogic trends tend to identify and focus on specific elements of what integrated learning entails – typically knowledge-based versus skills-based learning; disciplinary focus versus interdisciplinary learning; language learning versus language using; focus on form versus focus on meaning; target language versus translanguaging; generalisable study skills versus language strategies and so on. Yet these debates are problematic since, whilst there is agreement about the importance of language for learning, there is less consensus concerning the underpinning theoretical constructs, which focus on conceptual development and its profound interrelationship with meaning making and knowledge building. Leung (2005: 240) notes that curriculum and content learning and language learning are still seen as 'two separate pedagogic issues'. And Mohan, Leung and Slater (2010: 220) call for a 'language-based theory of knowing and learning that addresses characteristics of literate language use in all modalities'. Moving thinking forwards, Nikula, Dafouz, Moore and Smit (2016) in their volume dedicated to integration in CLIL and multilingual education, identified three fundamental perspectives requiring urgent attention: curriculum and pedagogy planning, participant perspectives and classroom practices. Focussing on the latter, Scarino and Liddicoat, (2016: 33) emphasise the need for a strong steer towards interdisciplinary approaches required to understand the dynamic complexities of pedagogies and classroom practices. Increasingly diverse and multilingual in nature, neither the theorising of learning nor language is sufficient to realise the potential and address the challenges of the role of *languages* in bilingual learning. They draw attention to

the capacity to 'move between' linguistic, cultural and knowledge systems; participating in and understanding communication as an act that involves reciprocal exchange of meanings; and using processes of reflectivity and reflexivity to develop consciousness and self-awareness about what is entailed in interpreting, creating, and exchanging meaning in diversity.

The current trend emphasising opportunities created through interdisciplinarity suggests greater attention needs to be paid to the development of subject-specific discourse and literacies especially in writing and to greater understanding of teaching *through* another language (Vollmer, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2013; Bruton, 2013). As Morton (2018: 57) suggests literacy-based approaches embrace deeper integration through focussing more on meaning-making in different subjects rather than balancing content and language. This current phase takes account of the above by working towards theory-related practices of language, resonating with interest in literacies across languages (i.e. Pluriliteracies) and thereby positions CLIL in a much broader educational arena. It signifies a shift from CLIL being very much a language-related phenomenon to one which connects to pedagogic movements where language and literacies, especially subject literacies, are seen as core to all learning in any language at any level. The implications of this re-positioning are far reaching.

In what Kumaravadivelu (2012) describes as the postnational, postmodern, postcolonial, posttransmission and postmethod era, there is little wonder when language education research adopts the broader perspective of education and subject disciplinary learning that different epistemologies or lineages – coined by Dale, Oostdam and Verspoor (2017) – are brought into the frame. As referred to previously, as current societal and economic global moves shift educational agendas so too the power of connecting first language and other language perspectives with pedagogic understanding indicates that the boundaries described by Becher and Trowler's (2001) academic tribes and their territories are beginning to merge through transdisciplinary exigencies. Whilst this chapter focusses on schooling, the rapid increase of English-medium programmes in higher education is drawing increasing attention and thus far I contend that, despite growing evidence from research (Block and Moncada-Comas, 2019; Dafouz, 2014), in practice, these currently remain below the surface.

Over ten years ago, a paper in the *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* (Coyle, 2007: 543–558) entitled Content and Language Integrated Learning: Towards a Connected Research Agenda for CLIL Pedagogies, sought to provide a forum for openly discussion and trigger debate and critique. The tenet of this piece stated that future research agendas for CLIL should 'embrace a holistic approach', in order to continue 'mapping
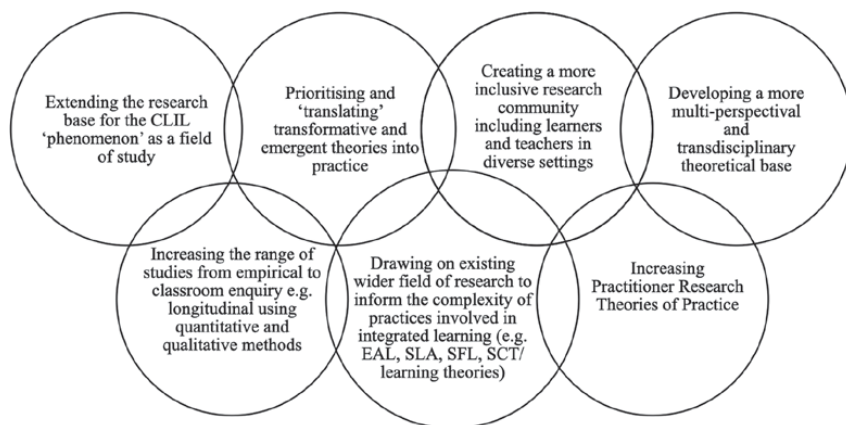
Figure 1: Mapping the future research agenda (Coyle 2007).

the terrain' and to respond to rapid societal change and thereby 'connect' and 'be connected' within a range of research communities. Seven key points were raised in terms of creating a pathway for future research. These are presented visually in Figure 1.

Reviewing a projected CLIL research agenda more than a decade later provides a temporal perspective on paradigmatic trends and pedagogic positioning. It is of course useful to note the extent to which the same issues continue to be priorities. Figure 1 encapsulates research demands which straddle the development of CLIL driven by research, policy and professional learning and practices throughout the last decade. In tracing these trajectories three phases discussed in detail in Coyle (2018) can be described as follows: first, the content *and* language stage; second, the *integration* of content and language and third, the focus on *inclusive learning* and the *quality of learning experiences*.

In the earlier phases of CLIL research, debates centred around the importance and balance of a focus on content and/or a focus on language emphasising the need for new and shared pedagogic practices in CLIL classrooms – not only of strategies and techniques drawing on both subject and language areas of expertise, but more fundamentally on the need to create new ways of conceptualising learning. The focus was on language extended to subject disciplines and on the linguistic demands of learning subject knowledge at an appropriate cognitive level. The next phase emphasised different interpretations of integration across

very diverse settings. Now often referred to as an 'umbrella term', different models of CLIL emerged in what Pérez-Cañado (2015) describes as a 'heterogeneous panorama' – some more subject-oriented and others more language-oriented depending on the school context. Such complexity led to constant debate about the distinctive nature of CLIL, its definitions or interpretations and different enactments across national and regional boundaries (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2014). Whilst CLIL is context-embedded and cannot or should not be distilled into a single prescribed approach, the need to accrue, critique and refine theory-driven pedagogic principles applied and adapted across linguistic and cultural boundaries is critical for assuring quality learning outcomes (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).

So where are we now and where are we going?

The current phase embraces broader curriculum agendas, taking a more holistic view of learning in terms of global issues, diversity and multilingual, multicultural classrooms. Viewing classroom learning through an ecological lens has led to a much wider and deeper analysis of the conditions for learning which are conducive to successful or deeper bilingual learning. Increasingly, pedagogic framing built on social justice and inclusive practices is gaining momentum as a realisation of our rapidly changing demographic. This has shifted significantly the emphasis from language learning and content learning to *bilingual education* in the broadest sense at the macro level, and provided a focus on learning design and inclusive pedagogies at the micro level of classroom being, knowing, doing and working together (UNESCO, 1996). Here I use *bilingual education* to describe dynamic ways of being and behaving in classrooms underpinned by values outlined previously, and not as a label or description of schooling in more than one language. Embracing *education* in this sense requires critical reflection on emergent epistemological and ontological principles of what CLIL is and could be. Such positioning embraces both the macro and micro and as such impacts significantly on constructing a research agenda. Hence, the mapping of future research for CLIL focussing on classroom pedagogies begins to take shape – as an example see Figure 2.

However, each one of the suggested areas for research in CLIL contexts uncovers a plethora of variables, factors and issues which not only impact on learning but are themselves the subject of extensive research involving different fields of enquiry. There is logic in using an ecological lens through which to see classroom learning and teaching in bilingual contexts from a more holistic, interconnected perspective. Yet what is prioritised or even brought into the frame is open to wide debate and sometime contentious argument – readers may well identify omissions in Figure 2. Yet herein lies the nub of the issue. Pedagogies
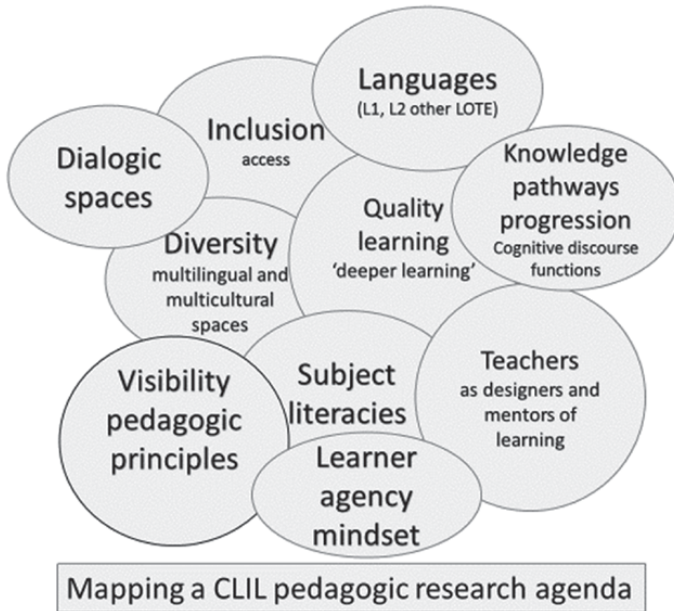
Figure 2: Mapping a CLIL pedagogic research agenda.

do not exist in a vacuum and the implications of transformational change in CLIL classrooms impact on bilingual education as a broad inclusive phenomenon alongside political and educational agendas (macro level) and the contexts in which learning happens, and the learners and teachers who together make it happen (micro level). It is not surprising, therefore, that most recent studies conclude with an urgent need for further research especially in terms of a paucity of hard-to-reach classroom data, longitudinal studies and scientific data. However, if the argument that CLIL is context-embedded holds, challenging questions are raised about who constructs research agendas, how and why – in other words who 'owns' the research?

Dalton-Puffer, in her postscriptum of the 2018 special issue of the *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism,* refers to the 'itinerary of ideas and the generation and appropriation of knowledge within the professional community' (2018: 386) noting that transforming classroom practices is a complex process that not only demands time but an emergent shared understanding between researchers and teachers and between teachers and learners. The

complexity of CLIL classrooms is a given. Yet the need for research to become normalised and thrive by those who teach and learn in classrooms is emphasised by Dudley (2018: 22) stating that 'only through processes of problematisation – making the familiar strange and the over-familiar visible – can the enduring grip of present practice-knowledge be loosened enough to make change possible'.

These messages emphasise the continuous need for CLIL research to be rigorous in terms of its multiperspectival, participatory nature, especially with regard to collecting classroom data and involving teachers and learners as researchers. This stance promotes 'close-to-practice' research which connects and contextualises theory and policy defined by practitioners as 'relevant to their practice, and often involves collaborative work between practitioners and researchers' (Wyse, Browne, Oliver and Poblete, 2018: 14). Such collaboration can be instrumental in leading to a wider range of research, where an identified urgent need for more intervention studies is recognised in order to 'drive forward the translation (or not) of theory/data-driven research results into pedagogical practice' (Dalton-Puffer 2017: 385).

Whilst much has been written about research collaboration drawing on the relative strengths of academic research and practice-oriented enquiry, I would like to return to what for me has been the driver for classroom pedagogic research over several decades. It focusses on Van Lier's (1996: 24) proposed 'practical philosophy of education' in a sense where theory, research and practice are 'dynamic ingredients of the theory of practice' so that the implicit theories we all have are made explicit. According to van Lier, constructing a Theory of Practice (I use capitals to highlight the interpretation and significance of these in the CLIL contexts) – envisions teacher development as pedagogic development:

> a process of practicing, theorizing and researching. Our growing understanding of this process determines the relevance of information from different sources and disciplines [as] a mode of professional conduct which in some respects differs from traditional ways of doing theory, research or practice. In other respects, however, it is no different than any other thoughtful approach to work.

However, I suggest that when Theories of Practice and the research, reflection and exploratory practices inherent in their iteration and reiteration – referred to by Rodgers (2006) as small 't' theories – are co-constructed alongside large 'T' theories – developed by 'those who spend their time creating such theories,' a potentially transformational dialectical relationship emerges which looks for meaning between them. This has powerful connectivity and echoes Lantolf and Poehners' (2014, 27) view that practice is not predicated on the application of theory but rather is 'drawn into the scientific enterprise in a profound way'. In

other words, a case is made to develop trusting relationships where school-based researchers (teachers and learners) and academic researchers work together through ongoing dialogue, (dis)agreement and debate whilst building Research Partnerships. Kinpaisby-Hill (2010) describes these processes as: 'messy' – since society is complex and contradictory; collective – since theorizing is 'done together'; and iterative – since development is not linear. I believe that defining pathways for growing shared understanding between scientific researchers and practitioner researchers is essential for the sustainability of quality-integrated learning. Using Theories of Practice as the trigger for discussion, as the bridge, as the connection for growing a genuinely co-constructed and shared understanding, facilitates ways in which theoretical constructs can be 'translated' into agreed principles, then can be 'transformed' into classroom practices – and crucially *vice versa*. This builds on Dalton-Puffer's (2017) suggestion that we need to generate carefully constructed intervention studies, longitudinal and practice-oriented research.

One such example is the exploratory research carried out by the Graz Group[1] using a holistic 'growth model' for integrated learning and exploring its potential to transform CLIL into plurilingual education for deeper learning. Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning (PTL) (Meyer, Halbach & Coyle, 2015; Meyer & Coyle, 2017, https://pluriliteracies.ecml.at/) brings together classroom practices that promote literacies for deeper (subject) learning and personal growth across languages, disciplines and cultures. It seeks to make transparent the interconnected and interdependent dimensions of learning which need to be activated and made explicit by learners and teachers together. This is an ambitious task. Our intention, therefore, was to explore how a convergence between building, expanding and 'testing' boundaries might lead to shared ownership of existing understanding alongside 'new and different directions' for integrated classroom teaching and learning. Mediated through the construction of a Theory of Practice and embedded in an epistemological position focussing on involvement with the wider community, a means of 'validating' the theory had to emerge. This required a paradigm shift which embraced a transformation of knowledge structures, conventions and rituals in order to integrate 'information that comes from different sources, critical frameworks and academic disciplines' so that new knowledge is constructed 'in dialogue amongst disciplines, through practices of social negotiation and in creative collaboration with peers and experts' (Balsamo, 2010: 430).
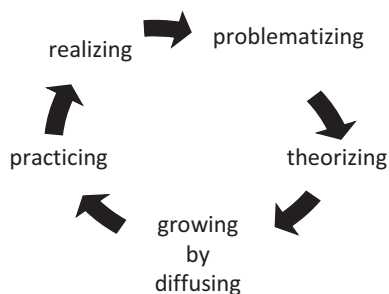
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1   The Graz Group

Figure 3: Processes involved in Research Partnerships.

The outcomes of this Research Partnership are documented (Coyle, Meyer and Schuck, 2017) in 'Knowledge ecology for conceptual growth: teachers as active agents in developing a PluriLiteracies approach to Teaching for Learning (PTL)'.

The most challenging yet fundamental stage involved 'growing by diffusing' in the growth cycle (Figure 3) where, the voice of practitioners who wanted to dispel 'meaningless rhetoric around what they *should* be doing in the classroom' (teacher feedback TF3:2)[2] led to translating and interpreting theoretical and academic discourse into a Theory of Practice based on 'shared professional and pedagogic understanding of real learners in real classrooms' (teacher feedback TF2.5)[3]. A wide range of significant research studies informed the early stages of the process e.g. the New London Group, 1996; Coffin, 2006; Coffin & Donohue, 2014; García, Bartlett & Kleifgen, 2007; Hornberger, 2003; Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Mohan, Leung & Slater, 2010; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008 and 2012; Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012; Jackson, 2011; Swain, 2006; Veel, 1997 and Gillis, 2014. Mindful of learning ecologies, these Theories (as defined by Rogers, 2006) informed the identification of four broad yet interconnected dimensions (Figure 4) for designing classroom learning in multilingual contexts: building knowledge and refining skills; demonstrating understanding; mentoring learning and personal growth; and generating and sustaining commitment and achievement.

Each dimension required detailed deconstruction by the Research Partnership. Key constructs based on research studies, readings, discussions and practices

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2 Teacher Data is drawn from workshops in Austria, 2014 and in Italy, 2016.

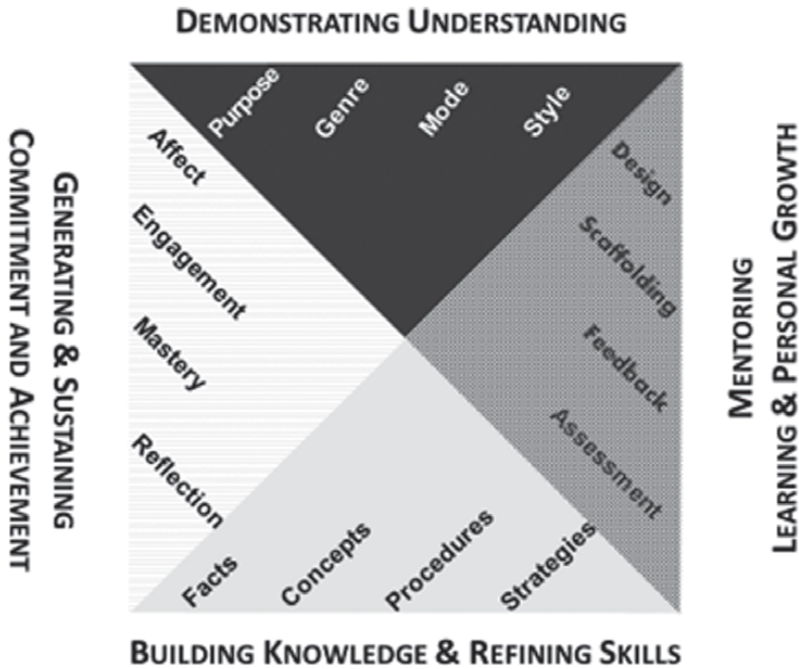3 Teacher Data is drawn from workshops in Austria, 2014 and in Italy, 2016.

Figure 4. Dimensions of the Pluriliteracies Framework for Teaching for Deeper learning.

were discussed and debated. These included exploring and agreeing definitions of concepts such as deeper learning, subject literacies, languaging learning, cognitive discourse functions, ecologies, knowledge pathways, mentoring learning and growth mindsets. The shift moved us out of a 'comfort zone' of language education into less familiar fields – literacies, subject discipline thinking and behaving, using more than one language for learning and enabling very diverse learners linguistically and cognitively to achieve. Many of the key constructs were informed by the broader more inclusive notions of learning (across languages as well as in a first language) for promoting designing and teaching for deeper learning. New ideas and definitions needed not only to be unravelled but also needed reconstruction and adaptation into a coherent interconnected whole which we termed 'pluriliteracies'. Moreover, the 'Theories' now needed to be informed by 'theories' (Rogers, 2006) involving practitioner enquiry and close-to-practice research fundamental to Theories of Practice.

Building on a wealth of accumulative professional and academic under-standing, the focus is increasingly on the quality of learning experiences for all learners i.e. deeper learning. Current pluriliteracies work includes a wide international community of teachers and learners as researchers ranging from those undertaking doctoral studies collecting classroom data to those engaged in enquiry carried out by learner-teacher Research Partnerships in schools – all experimenting, exploring, critiquing and evidencing what works and why. Throughout, there is emphasis on longitudinal data collection and innovative use of 'intervention' techniques and robust research design at all levels. This takes time and patience.

It was not my intention in this chapter to detail the PTDL Framework but rather to use its co-construction and ongoing development to underline the importance of Research Partnerships which I believe are required to change the direction of 'the itinerary of ideas and the generation and appropriation of knowledge within the professional community' described by Dalton-Puffer (2017: 386). Changing the 'classic trajectory' endemic in the research-practice divide is a challenge and one which I suggest should be prioritised in ongoing and future research. In 2007, a strong case was made for CLIL as a field of study in its own right, building up a research base 'beyond the current boundaries so that new research questions evolve and existing ones are addressed' (Coyle, 2007: 558). I contend that over ten years later, CLIL research has certainly shifted the boundaries and is positioning integrated learning within a much broader learning agenda. The question remains as to whether or not this broader agenda as yet prioritises or recognises fundamental issues to expand critical pedagogies – such as the importance of the role of language and languages in learning in ways which impact on: the quality of what happens in classrooms across languages (including first language and multilingual classrooms with tasks designed according to accessible and values-driven principles for deeper learning); across cultures (within and outwith the classroom, within and across subject disciplines); across curricula (focussing on specific subject literacies and behaviours); and across contexts (along the content-language-oriented con-tinuum in diverse settings). The charting of how such multilingual challenges can lead to pluriliteracies practices is indeed all-encompassing and requires not only more robust research-focused planning and extensive critical literature reviews to bring together increasing numbers of studies, but also alternative research thinking, methodologies and purposes to embrace multilingual learning ecolo-gies. CLIL research has a dynamic yet significant role to play – but we need the combined voices of our learner, practitioner, professional and academic research communities together to be heard.

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