

MASTER EN LINGÜÍSTICA INGLESA
DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA INGLESA I
UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID

Effective Collaboration between Native and Nonnative Speakers
in the Spanish CLIL Context:
The case of the Language Assistants in primary education

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DATE: June 1, 2010

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Pilot Questionnaire- Language Assistant
Pilot Questionnaire- Head Teacher Version
Observation Manual
Interview Questions- Language Assistant
Interview Questions- Head Teacher

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CBI- Content Based Instruction
CLIL- Content and Language Integrated Learning

EGL- English as a Global Language
EMI- English as a Medium of Instruction
EU-European Union
FL- Foreign Language
GT-Grammar Translation
HT-Head teacher/tutor
L2- Second Language
LA- Language Assistant
NS- Native Speaker
NNS- Non-native Speaker
SLA-Second Language Acquisition
TL- Target Language
TPR-Total Physical Response
TT-Team Teaching

SUMMARY IN SPANISH/RESUMEN EN ESPAÑOL

La Unión Europea (UE) concede gran importancia a la promoción y preservación de las lenguas europeas, puesto que la comunicación es vista como un medio para promover la integración europea. Por eso, el aprendizaje y la enseñanza de

segundas lenguas se han convertido en prioridad en muchos contextos educativos en toda la UE. A fin de facilitar la consolidación del aprendizaje de idiomas y asegurar que los estudiantes serán capaces de comunicarse en una segunda lengua, la UE se ha beneficiado de muchos años de investigación de la lingüística aplicada en la adquisición de segundas lenguas. La mayoría de las investigaciones de aprendizaje de segundas lenguas usan como referencias los programas canadienses de inmersión. En dichos "programas bilingües de estilo inmersión", el aprendizaje de idiomas a través de contenidos en un contexto comunicativo se ha demostrado uno de los métodos de mayor éxito de enseñanza y aprendizaje de segundas lenguas.

Dentro de la UE, el término AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras) se ha convertido en un sinónimo de la educación bilingüe. En la UE, la implementación de AICLE es distinto en cada contexto, pero todos utilizan una segundo lengua como un vehículo para explorar el contenido. En España, y más concretamente, en la Comunidad de Madrid (CAM), el AICLE ha crecido enormemente durante la última década. La CAM ha puesto en marcha un nuevo paradigma de educación bilingüe en las escuelas primarias de la comunidad. Dentro del programa de educación bilingüe, la CAM ha presentado muchos recursos innovadores, uno de los cuales es complementar a los profesores cuya lengua materna no es el inglés con asistentes lingüísticos nativos de habla Inglesa. Este programa de auxiliares de conversación es un programa tremendamente gratificante y útil para todos los involucrados, y en especial para los alumnos que tienen la oportunidad de estudiar con esta metodología y obtienen grandes beneficios lingüísticos y culturales.

Sin embargo, los problemas del programa de auxiliares de conversación son cada vez más visibles. En general, parece que hay una falta de la definición del papel del auxiliar en términos de implicaciones pedagógicas, y que existe un percance en cuanto a las expectativas de papeles por ambas partes. Los maestros querrían que los auxiliares fueran más pro-activos y productivos, y a los auxiliares les gustaría ser incluidos en mayor grado en las clases y con más participación en el programa. Esto demuestra la necesidad de una investigación y evaluación de la situación actual, en la que ambos participantes, maestros y auxiliares, parecen tener expectativas y quejas parecidas, pero por alguna razón no son capaces de desarrollar sus necesidades, deseos y objetivos de una manera funcional y colaborativa. Además, desde el inicio del programa en 2004, todavía no se ha realizado un informe completo sobre el funcionamiento del programa de los auxiliares de conversación en el contexto bilingüe. Más que la necesidad de un estudio actual, es la falta de bibliografía sobre la enseñanza en equipo entre los hablantes nativos y no nativos, en el contexto AICLE. La investigación existente se centra en la enseñanza en equipo entre los hablantes nativos y no nativos en el aula de lengua Inglesa, sin embargo el contexto presentado en este estudio es único e innovador, ya que su sujeto es la clase de Conocimiento del Medio con inglés como medio de instrucción.

Con el fin de contextualizar y analizar la práctica actual de la enseñanza en equipo en el contexto de la CAM, esta investigación empleó un procedimiento dividido en tres partes para proporcionar un análisis intensivo y evaluador del programa. La

metodología consistió en los siguientes fases. En primer lugar, se distribuyó un cuestionario piloto con el fin de detectar las opiniones y actitudes de los profesores y los auxiliares. Posteriormente, de los datos proporcionados por esta herramienta, se creó un manual de observación con el fin de limitar el alcance de la segunda herramienta de investigación, la observación del aula. En tercer lugar, en un intento de proporcionar una visión y una reflexión más profunda del funcionamiento de la enseñanza en equipo, se realizó una entrevista a los sujetos de la observación en el aula. Es en este sentido, este estudio pretende obtener hechos reales con el fin de reforzar la eficacia del programa del auxiliar de conversación para todos los involucrados, especialmente para los profesores colaboradores, ya que de un estudio en este formato se espera que sea útil para su desarrollo profesional como maestros bilingües.

Los datos obtenidos de este estudio han demostrado que si se aplica eficazmente la enseñanza en equipo, especialmente en el contexto de un profesor nativo y no nativo, puede ser beneficioso para todos. Los datos revelaron que este paradigma educativo innovador tiene el potencial de afectar positivamente no sólo el aula, sino también a toda la comunidad escolar. A través del análisis de buenas prácticas, la implementación del componente del programa de auxiliares lingüísticos puede ser muy beneficioso en impacto, en desarrollo y en la mejora de la lengua extranjera. En primer lugar, para los profesores, los auxiliares se pueden utilizar como un modelo de pronunciación, para ayudar con el vocabulario que suele ser difícil y poco familiar en las clases de los contenidos como en el área de ciencias, y como un modelo de la pragmática en el contexto de la clase, la cual ha sido observada como una de las áreas claves donde los maestros necesitan mejorar. En segundo lugar, el componente del auxiliar lingüístico “fuerza” la producción en una segunda lengua por parte del profesorado y el alumnado. Y por último, para los estudiantes queda demostrado que la presencia del auxiliar disminuye las barreras de la cultura de la segunda lengua y trae la autenticidad a las aulas.

Los resultados extraídos de las distintas herramientas de investigación, cualitativas y cuantitativas, fueron analizados para evaluar las áreas más fuertes y débiles en el contexto CAM. Los resultados han demostrado que muchos maestros están luchando con la aplicación e incorporación del auxiliar en sus aulas. Por otra parte, muchos auxiliares parecen no estar seguros de sus roles. Una conclusión ha puesto de manifiesto que, aunque oficialmente el programa se refiere al papel de los auxiliares como auxiliares de conversación y embajadores culturales, la mayoría de ellos y los maestros que tienen sentimientos muy positivos para el programa, creen que los auxiliares actúan como profesores auxiliares. En escenarios de buenas prácticas, los maestros aprovechan más del recurso cuando los auxiliares actúan como un maestro, y han revelado que en equipo son capaces de tener un mayor impacto en los alumnos y alumnas. El trabajo en equipo permite una enseñanza donde los contenidos curriculares son presentados de manera más funcional. Se observa y demuestra cómo dos profesores pueden hacer más fácil el trabajo en grupo, los experimentos, el aprendizaje basado en proyectos, y el uso de las TIC.

En la sección de resultados, se dan recomendaciones y sugerencias concretas para el profesorado sobre el programa de auxiliares. En conclusión, a través de la

formación y la investigación, se espera que el programa continúe dando pasos importantes, como los datos han confirmado, el programa de los auxiliares de conversación tiene el potencial de crear un gran impacto en el desarrollo de aspectos lingüísticos, curriculares y culturales de todos los implicados.

SUMMARY IN ENGLISH

The European Union (EU) places great importance on the promotion and preservation of European languages, as communication is seen as a means of fostering European integration. It is in this light that second language learning and teaching have become a priority in many educational contexts throughout the EU.

In order to facilitate entrenched language learning, and ensure that students will be able to communicate in a second language, the EU has benefited from years of applied linguistic research in second language acquisition. Most research in second language learning references the Canadian Immersion programs, for their success in facilitating accessible language learning for students. In these 'immersion-style' bilingual programs, learning language through content in a communicative context has been proven to be one of the most successful methods in second language learning and teaching.

Within the EU, the term CLIL (Content and language integrated learning) has become synonymous for bilingual education. European CLIL provision is quite different from one context to another, yet all use a target language as a vehicle through which content is explored. In Spain, and more specifically, the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM), CLIL provision has grown tremendously over the past decade. The CAM has implemented a new bilingual education paradigm in the primary schools within the community. Within the bilingual school scheme, the CAM has put forth many innovative resources, one of which is complementing local nonnative English speaking teachers with native English speaking assistants. This Language Assistant or, *auxiliar de conversación*, program is a tremendously rewarding and worthwhile program for all those involved, especially for the second language (L2) and cultural gains attained by students.

However, problems within the Language Assistant (LA) scheme are becoming more visible, as there appears to be a general lack of role definition for the LA in terms of pedagogical implications, further hindered by an 'expectation-oriented' mishap where Head Teachers (HTs) wished the assistant were more proactive and productive, and where the LA would like to be included more in the class and have more ownership in the program as a whole. This demonstrates the need for an investigation and evaluation of the current situation, where two parties, teachers and assistants seem to have similar expectations and grievances, yet for some reason are not able to develop their needs, wants, and objectives in a collaborative and functional manner. Moreover, since the initiation of the program in 2004, there has yet to be a full report on the functioning of the LA program within the CAM bilingual context. Further necessitating the current study is the lack of literature regarding collaborative teaching with native and nonnative speakers, in the CLIL context. The existing research focuses on team teaching between native and nonnative speakers in the English as subject classroom, yet the context presented in this study is unique and innovative, as its focus is science with English as the medium of instruction.

In order to contextualize and analyze the current practice of team teaching within the CAM context, a three-part research procedure was employed to provide an intensive and evaluative analysis of the LA scheme. First, a pilot questionnaire was distributed in order to survey opinions and attitudes of the collaborating teachers and assistants. From the data provided by this tool, an observation manual was created in order to limit the scope of the second research tool, classroom observation. Lastly, in an attempt to provide insight and further reflection on TT and the LA scheme, subjects of the classroom observation were interviewed. It is in

this regard that this study is intended to be fact-finding in order to strengthen the effectiveness of the language assistant scheme for all those involved, especially for the collaborating teachers, to whom a study of this format will hopefully be helpful for their careers as bilingual teachers.

The data obtained from this study has proven that if effectively implemented team teaching, especially in the context of a nonnative speaking teacher and native speaking assistant, can be beneficial for all involved. The data revealed that this innovative educational paradigm has the potential to positively affect not only the classroom, but also the entire school community. Via analysis of best practice, the implementation of the LA component can be extremely beneficial in impacting, developing and enhancing the target language. First, for the teachers, the LA can be used as a model for pronunciation, to help with difficult/unfamiliar vocabulary in content classes, as model for content language usage, and a model for contextual classroom pragmatics, which has been observed as one of the key areas in need of improvement for the HTs. Second, the LA component 'forces' L2 output for both students and teachers. Third, the LA lessens the barriers of the target language culture and brings authenticity to the classroom.

The results drawn from the various research tools were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed to evaluate the areas of strength and weakness with in the CAM context. The results have shown that many teachers struggle in implementing the LA into their classrooms. Moreover, many LAs seem unsure of their roles. One conclusion has revealed that although official program literature refers to LAs as Conversation assistants and cultural ambassadors, most LAs, and teachers who have highly positive sentiments for the program, feel that LAs act as assistant teachers. In good practice scenarios, HTs feel when an LA acts as a teacher, they as a team, are able to make a greater impact on students. Team teaching allows for teaching, curricular contents to be 'brought to life' more functionally, as two teachers can more easily facilitate group work, experiments, project-based learning, and the use of ICT. In the results section further recommendations and concrete suggestions for the LA program are given. In conclusion, through training and further research, it is hoped that the program will continue to make strides, as the data has confirmed the LA program has the potential to greatly impact the linguistic, curricular, and cultural gains of all those involved.

ABSTRACT

The European Union (EU) places great importance on the promotion and preservation of European languages, as communication is seen as a means of fostering European integration. Therefore, second language learning and teaching have become a priority in many educational contexts throughout

the EU. Within the EU, the term CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) has become synonymous for bilingual education. In Spain, and more specifically, the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM), CLIL provision has grown tremendously over the past decade. Within the bilingual school scheme, the CAM has put forth many innovative resources, one of which is complementing local nonnative English speaking teachers with native English speaking assistants. The Language Assistant program is a potentially rewarding and worthwhile initiative for all those involved, especially for the second language and cultural gains attained by students. However, problems in the functioning and sustainability of this program are becoming more visible. Moreover, since the commencement of the program in 2004, a comprehensive study has yet to be carried out. Thus, through questionnaires, observation, and interviews with both stakeholders, this research provides in-depth assessment of the current practice of collaborative teaching in this unique context. The results obtained in this study indicate areas of best practice for capitalizing on the language assistant resource in terms linguistic, pedagogical and cultural implications. Finally, recommendations for collaborating teachers and assistants are provided.

KEYWORDS: Bilingual Education/CLIL, second language acquisition, team teaching, native speaking language assistants, nonnative speaking teachers, best practice

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In the European Union (EU), languages are viewed as an asset to be preserved and promoted, and language learning is considered a means for promoting European integration. In order to facilitate this integration, the EU has placed great importance on second language learning and teaching (Grenfell 2003). The EU has developed in

parallel to the onset of English as international *lingua franca*, and thus English as the vehicle to teach content has taken on a prominent role in second language teaching. Drawing on lessons of the Canadian immersion programs (see Genesse 1987, 1994, Lyster 2007), the EU has promoted a new pedagogical paradigm where curricular contents and second languages are integrated in order to create a dual focus on both language and content. This new approach, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become synonymous for bilingual education within the EU (Dafouz and Guerrini 2009:4).

As CLIL is a relatively new educational paradigm, which requires much effort from all stakeholders, it is not surprising that it has become the focal point for considerable academic research over the past few years (Coyle 2000, Dalton-Puffer 2007, 2008, Ruiz de Zarobe 2009). Most studies show that those who are most ‘invested’ in this new educational arena are teachers (Halbach 2009). CLIL typologies require a new outlook on education and demand that teachers employ innovative methods to their teaching (De Graff 2007, Roza 2007). One such innovation employed in the Spanish CLIL context has been the addition of native speaking language assistants, who collaborate with the local nonnative Spanish teachers.

This form of team teaching between native and nonnative speakers is relatively common in English language classrooms throughout Asia (see Carless 2006, Gorsuch 2002, Tajino and Tajino 2000). The rationale backing these collaborative educational relationships is founded on the notion that by joining native and nonnative speakers in the classroom, the teachers’ individual benefits will be harnessed and thus provide for the ‘ideal’ teaching situation. Hitherto the “grandiose” idea of intercultural and interlingual teaching, many studies have demonstrated that native-nonnative collaboration does not always translate to ‘ideal’ teaching climates (Alderson 2001, Carless 2006). Yet, the benefit of team teaching, when appropriately organized and implemented can have sound effects (Maroney 1995, Sileo 2003). Moreover in contexts of bicultural team teaching, research suggests that students learn soundly in academic, social, and multicultural lenses (Carless 2006).

1.1 Rationale for the current study

Over the last decade, the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM) has implemented a new bilingual education paradigm in the region’s public primary schools. Within the bilingual school scheme, which began in 2004, the CAM has put forth many resources, one of which is complementing local nonnative English speaking head teachers (HTs), with native English speaking language assistants (LAs). The *Auxiliar de Conversación* program is a tremendously rewarding and worthwhile program for all those involved, especially for the second language (L2) and cultural gains attained by students. Nevertheless, the viability of the language LA facet of CAM bilingual schools is dependent upon various factors, and without proper supervision and organization the effectiveness and outcomes may be at risk. In terms of finance, the budget to ‘import’ native speakers is costly, coupled by the need for private insurance for non-EU assistants. Moreover, this program requires a management team to facilitate recruitment, selection, and organization of bureaucratic functions that are necessary to have ‘foreigners’ working in the schools.

As the bilingual program moves into the sixth year, there is an urgent need for the evaluation and analysis of the role of the LA in the program. In general terms, there

appears to be a lack of role definition for the LA in terms of pedagogical implications, further hindered by an ‘expectation-oriented’ mishap where head teachers wished the assistant were more proactive and productive, and where the LA would like to be included more in the class and have more ownership in the program as a whole. Many times teachers complain about the inactivity of the assistant, simultaneously as the assistant gripes about not being ‘utilized’. This demonstrates the need for an investigation and evaluation of the current situation, where two parties, teachers and assistants seem to have similar expectations and grievances, yet for some reason are not able to develop their needs, wants, and objectives in a collaborative and functional manner. Moreover, since the initiation of the program in 2004, there has yet to be a full report on the functioning of the LA program within the CAM bilingual context. Further necessitating the current study is the lack of literature regarding collaborative teaching with native and nonnative speakers in the CLIL context. The existing research focuses on team teaching between native and nonnative speakers in the English as subject classroom, yet the context presented in this study is unique, as its focus is science with English as the medium of instruction.

1.1.1 Aims, Objectives and Research Questions

This study is intended to be fact-finding based on the need for an evaluation of the current situation of the LA functioning in coordination with classroom teachers in the school/classroom. There have been anecdotal accounts¹ of various issues pertaining to the LA program, yet the overall absence of a systematic research initiative is one of the greatest weaknesses of the program. Thus a comprehensive study is needed to address the actual classroom practice, to assess the overall impact of the LA initiative, and finally to make recommendations for good practice for HTs and LAs alike.

The current study has four main overriding purposes:

1. To survey opinions, attitudes and expectations of the central stakeholders (i.e HTs and LAs).
2. To contextualize the current roles, functions and organization of language assistants within the CAM context.
3. To identify areas of good practice, in terms of organization and pedagogical contributions.
4. To provide practical recommendations for improvements by drawing on the data above.

It is in this regard that this study hopes to strengthen the effectiveness of the language assistant scheme for all those involved, especially for the collaborating teachers, to whom a study of this format will hopefully be helpful for their careers as bilingual teachers. The general purposes mentioned above can only be discovered through more focused research questions. Thus in order to clarify the specific objectives of the current study the following research questions are intended to limit the scope.

1. What are the general impressions (attitudes and opinions) of the CAM Language Assistant scheme according to LAs and HTs?
2. What forms of team teaching and corresponding didactic activities do team teachers actually use in their classrooms?
3. What are the specific roles and functions of each teacher when engaged in

¹ The anecdotal accounts refer to off-record comments made by Head Teachers and Language Assistants at various functions related to the bilingual program.

team teaching?

4. How does the presence of the native speaking LA affect classroom discourse?
5. How does the implementation of a native speaking LA affect overall classroom interaction?

1.2 Organization

The present study is divided into five chapters, each of which has been sectioned into smaller categories to provide the reader easier access to specific contents. Following this introduction, chapter two, conceptual frameworks, examines theories and concepts regarding second language teaching and learning. Moreover, the notion of team teaching is explored through the frame of native and nonnative speaker collaboration. Next, chapter three (the methodology) contextualizes the current study and describes the various research tools used. In this chapter, the observation manual that has been created for this distinctive context is presented. Then, the subsequent chapter, chapter four, presents the results and discussion of the findings of the various research tools. Finally, in chapter five, the conclusion and implications section reveals best practices in a variety organizational and classroom level applications. Moreover the findings have been synthesized to offer concrete suggestions for both HTs and LAs, to enhance collaborative methodologies.

Chapter 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

Second language learning is inevitably linked to second language teaching, where learning is dependent on teaching. Both teaching and learning have innumerable manifestations. In many cases, second languages are learned via the ‘school-of-hard-knocks’ in informal settings where languages are learned as needed, for example on the job, on the street, etc. Yet, most cases of language learning, and indeed research supporting language learning and teaching, are founded on language learning in formal

classroom settings. In formal settings, the terms target language (TL), second language (L2), or foreign language are often used to denote the language that is being studied.

The differences between the abbreviations above are dependant on the learning context and the goals of the language program. A target language (TL) is the most encompassing terminology as it is not defined by the role of a language within a given context or the order in which a language is being learned, first, second, third, and etc., but rather refers to a language which has a goal of being acquired by a learner (Lightbrown and Spada 2006). The distinction between a second language (L2 or SL) or a foreign language (FL) lies in the role the language understudy has in a given environment whereby a FL, refers to language being studied in a context where that language is not widely used in the community, and conversely a SL refers to a language which has some role within a given community (Ellis 2008).

These precise definitions of learner context are further complicated when the language of study is English. Over the last two decades, English has taken on the role of an international lingua franca, where speakers of many different first languages are using English as a means of communication in various contexts worldwide (see Crystal 2003, Graddol 2007, Jenkins 2003, Kachru 1992). This has created a situation whereby English may no longer function as an FL in most cases due to a global lingua franca status, whereby it has some role in nearly every context (Jenkins 2003). Moreover, English continues to grow parallel to globalization and as international interdependence becomes more profound, more English language learners are viewing it as a necessity for many different facets; occupational, educational, and quintessential for travel. Thus, learners and teachers in general see English language learning to have some 'role' in nearly every context (Jenkins 2003). Thus for this paper, in line with the onset of English as a global lingua franca, the abbreviation L2 will be employed. On the same note, the abbreviation SLA (Second Language Acquisition) will be used to refer to the process of learning English.

The proceeding chapter has been divided into three sub-chapters. The first sub-chapter sets out to describe the historical advances in second language teaching and learning, focusing on the development of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and its variations. In this section, one such variation, bilingual education is explored in terms of its origins, theoretical underpinnings, and rationale in both language and educational achievement. The second part of this chapter explores the current context of bilingual education within the European Union (EU), with specific focus on the Spanish context. The last sub-chapter transitions into the pedagogical paradigm of team teaching in L2 classrooms. In this section the practice of combining native and nonnative speaker teachers in collaborative settings will be explored and results from similar paradigms will be reviewed.

2.1 Theories on Second Language Learning and Teaching

Theories, methodologies, and materials abound in the field of second language learning and teaching. In determining what constitutes the 'best' way to learn and teach a foreign language a debate arises at every turn. Language learning is by no means a new phenomenon, yet in comparison, research into the field of SLA is comparatively new. Before the 1960's L2 teaching was form-focused and stressed grammatical rules. This style was dominated by the Grammar Translation (GT) method, which dates back to the teaching of classical languages, where students used their first language to memorize

lexicon and structures of the L2 (Lightbrown and Spada 2006). GT strived to develop student's ability to read classic literature, yet placed little focus on developing oral skills and fluency.

As grammar translation yielded low levels of oral skills, the audio-lingual approach overtook GT in the early 1960's (Brooks 1960, Lado 1964). The audiolingual approach was based on the motivation for students to learn how to 'speak' a TL. And thus, the underlying principle was that students would repeat in hopes of memorizing recorded dialogues. Students of this methodology were encouraged not to speak, until they had mastered a certain level, with the rationale that spoken mistakes would become fossilized, and are thus better avoided. Evidence proved these methods were still lacking in promoting students' L2 productive abilities. The move towards more communicative teaching approaches was furthered when a group of European Linguists working for the Council of Europe published the *Threshold Levels* the 1970's. These levels introduced competence levels in different areas of language acquisition, which included speaking (Van Ek 1975, 1976).

In the early 1970's experimental studies emerged stressing the benefits of communicative language teaching. Savignon (1972) conducted a study whereby communicative pedagogical approaches were shown to yield higher learner communicative abilities, whilst not interfering with the learning of structures and form. It was shown that opportunities for "free communication gave way to more entrenched learning and did not cause learners to do less well on measures of linguistic accuracy" (Lightbrown and Spada 2006: 143). Consequently, communicative language teaching disseminated quickly into L2 classrooms, as teachers and students were more comfortable with this 'new' methodology than with the previous accuracy-focused methods that made learners uneasy to take part in communicative activities (Savignon 1997).

2.1.1 Communicative Language Teaching

Savignon's (1972) seminal work into the benefits of communicative approaches in language teaching ignited the first revolution in language teaching methodology; the switch from grammatical accuracy and translation to approaches based on communication. During this time, many educators implemented approaches that created a dual focus between explicit grammatical teaching and oral-based activities that put grammar into practice. This approach is still one of the most predominately used and preferred pedagogies especially for adult learners (Saville-Troike 2006).

During this period, Stephen Krashen (1985b) surfaced as one of the leading authors/researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). His research has greatly influenced the field of L2 learning and teaching. One of Krashen's (1985b) significant attributions was the distinction between learning and acquisition. Acquisition refers to a subconscious process in which learners naturally 'pick up' or acquire knowledge occurring in authentic communicative situations. On the other hand, he noted that learning is a conscious process where learners are formally taught about a language; i.e. traditional methodologies of grammar translation. These two distinctions affirmed that learners have two 'independent means of gaining ability in second languages' (Krashen 1985b: 8). According to Krashen's (1985b:9) hypothesis: "Acquisition now appears to play a far more central role than learning in second

language performance. Our ability to use second languages comes mostly from what we have acquired, not from what we have learned.”

When learning a language, both of these ‘means’ of learning have potential to be engaged. The learning ‘means’ involves the formal study of the prescriptive rules that govern language. Rules that have been learned act as a monitor when performing in a second language as outlined in Krashen’s (1985a) Monitor Model. The monitor model introduced several hypotheses linking SLA to a learner’s internal creative construction of language. One of the most withstanding hypotheses, namely comprehensible input, requires that new language, or messages, be presented in a fully understandable manner in order to be learned. During the primary stages of L2 learning, learners may be silent, yet acquiring and understanding, which coincides with similar research from L1 acquisition where learners go through a ‘silent phase’ (Lightbown and Spada 2006). Previous theories on SLA failed to account for the period where learners were processing input, and focused only on production. Yet, according to Krashen (1985a) the process of acquisition begins far before learners begin to perform i.e. speak or write in an L2. Meaning is conveyed through comprehensible input, which is provided by teachers use of realia, gestures, pictures, etc. in order to contextualize messages for students. Krashen’s (1985a) theory of comprehensible input was the basis for a method coined Total Physical Response or TPR (Asher 1969), in which teachers model commands while giving the command, either by example or visual aid. Research on TPR demonstrated that it was effective for learner acquisition, and still, TPR continues to be used in L2 teaching today (Lightbown and Spada 2006).

Krashen and Terrell (1983) applied the theory of comprehensible input to teaching methodologies to develop the Natural Approach. The Natural Approach was designed to provide students with comprehensible input, which was then used in games, discussions, and task-based activities in the classroom. Students were allowed to use the L1 or TL, and errors were not corrected. Grammar study (learning) was left for homework. The results of a study comparing students of the Natural Approach to students of traditional methods focusing on grammar reinforced Krashen’s theories and that of earlier studies on communicative competencies (Voge 1981). This study revealed that students following the Natural Approach outperformed traditional approach students in both speaking and writing, and were equal on grammar. Moreover students in the Natural Approach were more optimistic and motivated about their learning.

After years of academic research, Krashen (1985b) recognized that comprehensible input was not enough, and saw a gap in classroom learning and real world communication. Krashen (1985b) following a pilot project in ‘language immersion’ in Canada proposed that comprehensible input be worked into a contextual curriculum.

2.1.2 Content-Based Instruction

Around the same time the Communicative ‘revolution’ was taking place, a small grass-roots initiative, was proposed by English speaking parents near Montreal (Canada) to change the language of instruction for their children from English to French. This change would entail a monumental educational change, whereby most of the student’s primary instruction would be conducted via an L2, including non-language based subjects, such as science and mathematics. Parents requested this in an attempt to make

their monolingual English-speaking children more fluent in the L2 of their bilingual community (Swain 1985). The preliminary results of these 'immersion' style methods incited the content-based (CBI) revolution in language teaching (see Lambert 1972, Wesche et al. 1996).

CBI is an approach to language learning which integrates particular content, typically an academic subject, with language teaching aims (Brinton et al. 1989). Genesee (1994) furthered this notion suggesting that the content of CBI classes need not be purely academic, but should be focused on topics that are of interest or importance for students. In a CBI approach, language is used as the vehicle through which subject matter is learned, rather than the immediate focus of study.

The Canadian immersion programs have become models for CBI-approaches to language learning. From the early results of the program, linguists began to recognize the benefits of this pedagogical model.

“Canadian immersion is not simply another language teaching program- it may be the most successful language teaching program ever recorded in the professional language teaching literature. No program has been so thoroughly studied and documented, and no program, to my knowledge, has done as well (Krashen 1985b: 57).”

Decades after the early results of Canadian immersion programs surfaced, they continue to be a frame of reference for CBI (Baker and Prys Jones 1998). Moreover, the success of these programs has diffused into other educational paradigms, which have created programs, based on the success of CBI programming. As previously mentioned, the global role of English as an international means of communication, has motivated many schools systems to designate English as the language of instruction. Many of these programs have different names, English Across the Curriculum, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), Bilingual Education, and/or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), yet all are largely based on the foundations of CBI.

Findings from SLA studies demonstrate that CBI learners consistently outperform students working under more traditional methods (Grabe and Stoller 1997). The correlation linking CBI and language acquisition lies in the engaging and natural environment of CBI provision. First, CBI programs promote acquisition, which occurs in a natural context. In natural learning, and indeed first/native language learning, language is never divorced from meaning. Traditional language learning features abstract rules governing language that are not readily understandable, nor usable for communicative purposes. Reverting back Krashen (1985a) the rules that are typically taught in L2 classes act as monitor, and are difficult to learn. Moreover, the rules that are learned are hard to produce in a non-scripted dialogue. Thus, language learning best occurs when emphasis is on meaningful, relevant and cognitively demanding content rather than on the language itself (Curtain 1994, Met 1991). Moreover, CBI aligns with cognitive psychology theories, where form, function, and meaning are not separated and are acquired in, as mentioned above, a natural setting, which leads to higher cognitive processing (Anderson 1990). This is derived from the notion that naturalness of learning a language via content increases rates of acquisition because the emphasis is on meaningful content and not on the 'monitor' rules (Met 1991).

Second, in terms of cognitive development both in subject and content matter, language mixed with content coincides with young language learners cognitive and language

development. Snow, Met and Genesee (1989) argued that traditional methods of language teaching separate language development from general cognitive development. CBI overcomes this segmentation by connecting language learning and cognitive development. Met (1991:150) states that “content in content-based programs represents material that is cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner, and is material that extends beyond the target language or target culture.” Moreover Genesee (1994: 3) reaffirms the cognitive development theories relating to CBI stating that:

“Language, cognition, and social awareness develop concurrently in pre-school children and young school aged children. Indeed language is an important medium through which social and cognitive development normally proceeds.”

The material taught in CBI programs is tailored to the cognitive development and interest of the students, whereas many traditional L2 courses employ the same grammatical structures and cultural ‘content’ for learners of all ages. For learners to engage in meaningful learning, content must be age appropriate and reflect the needs of the learners.

Further research demonstrates that traditional L2 methods engage learners only to a certain level as classes are focused on survival communicative skills (Met 1991, Brynes 2000). These skills often referred to as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), which are everyday conversational skills that are quickly acquired (Cummins 1981). Yet in CBI programming, BICS are intertwined with another communicative skill, termed cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins 1981). CALP skills require more abstract and higher-level cognitive skills and take more time to fully develop. The combination of BICS and CALP create more engaging classes as together they demand higher cognitive processing as contents (i.e. science) can be further engaging and interesting than abstract language rules and hypothetical topic conversations. In adding stimulating content, found in CALP language, greater learner relevance is attained.

The third rationale supporting CBI methods aligns with the classroom level pedagogical techniques employed by teachers. Revisiting Krashen’s (1985) notion of comprehensible input, effective CBI practitioners employ visuals, realia, gestures, and TRP-style commands and modeling, in order to bring content alive and the language carrying the content into a meaningful understanding for students. This is exemplified in the idea of showing a plant grow into order to learn the lexicon associated with growing via pictures and experiments, rather than explaining why something in a continual state of action requires a continuous tense. Observing a plant in the ‘growing’ process is more meaningful and concrete, than explaining the grammar rules behind continuous tenses. Moreover, as this example shows, in CBI classrooms, language is used as a means of communication, where situational and experiential learning are key and commonplace. In such a paradigm, classrooms strive to have students who are engaged in interesting and motivating learning activities where situated cognition is at play, as in cooperative and experiential learning (Grabe and Stoller 1997).

Different learning techniques known to be successful in general learning come alive in CBI classes. CBI promotes Vygotskian-based (1978) concepts generally thought to favor SLA. In other words, via content, learners are able to work beyond their Zone of Proximal development through experiments, group work, and other strategies that challenge students to think and negotiate with the language in order to discover the

content. Teachers facilitate students learning and cognitive development by scaffolding techniques, which allows for the incorporation of a variety of higher-level thinking skills (Met 1991). Scaffolding refers to instructional guidance that facilitates students' motivation and ability to work with more challenging material, than when working alone or without guidance (Saville-Troike 2006).

The success of CBI, based on immersion/bilingual educational methods, culminates from the amalgamation of successful SLA theory and practice. CBI promotes communicative language learning, through natural acquisition of language found in content. CBI focuses on learning with strategies that heighten learner motivation and parallels learner cognitive development. CBI arose as a means for more natural language acquisition, and has proven to be highly successful. With over twenty years of practice, the pilot program of Canada has given way to much academic research over the decades. One specific lesson that has transpired is the need to include form-focused instruction in immersion contexts, as 'exposure' is not enough to attain specific grammatical structures. The Canadian experience has shown that a focus on form is necessary especially in terms of productive skills (Lyster 2007). Thus, a return to the 'focus on form' has since taken precedence in various research endeavors and has elicited changes in bilingual curriculum design (see Pérez-Vidal 2007)

2.2 Bilingual Education in the European Union

The European Union (EU) has greatly benefited from the lessons learned in the pilot and subsequent mainstream bilingual (immersion) programs in the US and Canadian context. In doing so, the EU has been able to develop innovative and successful bilingual programs. However, throughout the EU, bilingual programming differs greatly in practice. The implementation, organization, and ultimate goal of these programs vary depending on the individual context of the learner's community. The subsequent sections expound the recent history of bilingual education in the EU, and the emergence of a European approach to bilingualism: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

2.2.1 CLIL Origins and Definitions

The 1992 signing of the Maastricht Treaty formalized the integration of European Union communities, which among many reforms, policies and organizations, instituted the need for linguistic pluralism stated in an official document as '*Developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of member states.*' European integration is dependant on plurilingualism, which lies in both the promotion and preservation of languages. In order to do this, EU policy places special importance on reforming education in general, with a special focus on language. The 1995 White Paper entitled, *Teaching and Learning: Towards a Learning Society*², introduced the notion of 'European' bilingual education. The White Paper led to an *Action Plan*, which introduced the notion of a 2+ 1 formula for European integration. The 2 + 1 formula proposes that all EU citizens should be able to use their native language, plus two others, typically a language from a bordering area and usually English as a lingua franca (Pérez Vidal 2009). Within the EU plan for multilingualism lie the following objectives (Pérez Vidal 2009: 4):

² *White Paper on education and training. Teaching and Learning towards the learning society 1995.*
[pdf accessed: 12/2/2009] Available at: http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf

1. Diversification of Modern languages learned as early in life as possible.
2. Promotion of democratic access to knowledge for all European citizens, nondiscriminatory of their L1.
3. Priority given to the development of linguistic abilities at a very young age by introducing the L2 at nursery school age, intensive and interdisciplinary teaching of this L2 at primary school, and the intensive and interdisciplinary teaching of a third EU language in secondary school.

In order to meet these objectives, a new pedagogical paradigm was introduced specifically for the European context coined Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). In order to implement this form of instruction, the EU commissioned a panel of experts to develop a summative document, concerning bilingual education in the EU. According to this document:

“The acronym CLIL is used as a generic term to describe all types of provision in which a second language (a foreign, regional or minority language and/or another official state language) is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than the language lessons themselves (Eurydice 2006: 8).”

The term CLIL is rooted in a need to distinguish the European multilingual context with that of earlier immersion programs in the US and Canada, where bilingual (either English/Spanish or English/French) programs referred to the earning of two languages only. Thus, a term that correlates the specific European multilingual context was needed. Whereas CBI introduces language via content, with language being the predominant focus, CLIL places a dual focus on both language and content. Like other bilingual pedagogies, CLIL incorporates language as the vehicle through which content is learned. The development of CLIL has emerged in parallel to the growth of the European Union. Moreover, the onset of CLIL programming has coincided with the development of new pedagogic methods in promoting learner autonomy in language learning and the technology boom that has taken place since the late 1990's (Pérez Vidal 2009). Thus, CLIL is a relatively new pedagogic paradigm, which distinguishes itself from other forms of bilingual educational programs as being modernly 'European'.

Concurrently, CLIL reflects and promotes the communicative approaches introduced in the 70's and 80's coupled with the demands and developments of the 21st century. CLIL provision strives to incorporate curricular contents and learner tasks that link classroom learning into real world learning, bridging the gap between school and professional life (Wolff 2007). Thus, the distinguishing factors upon which CLIL has been created fall within the sphere of European integration, globalization, and modernization.

Pro-CLIL arguments expound success in three categories; learners, teachers and schools. Learners who study under CLIL pedagogies, show higher levels of TL processing and usage, they have higher content retention, they are more prepared for future working life (Wolff 2007). Teachers in CLIL contexts are promoters of both plurilingualism and multiculturalism, and show high reliance on innovative techniques (De Graff et al. 2007). Schools benefit from CLIL provision by raising the school's standing, creating cooperation amongst schools and within the school (cross-curricular

approaches) and demonstrating increased professionalism amongst the school community (Wolff 2007).

2.2.2 CLIL Dimensions

In Marsh, Maljers and Hartiala (2001) *Profiling European CLIL Classrooms – Languages Open Doors*, dimensions or reasons for introducing CLIL into schools and universities were presented in order to renew teaching within the EU. Since then, CLIL provision and program design have been motivated by various dimensions. The dimensions of CLIL provide the rationale for the innovative Euro-centrist plurilingual approach to education. Pérez Vidal (2009) has synthesized the original five dimensions created by Marsh, Maljers and Hartiala (2001) resulting in a more overlapping and integrated view on the dimensions of CLIL. The dimensions can be classified in terms of socio-cultural, educational-curricular, and linguistic.

The socio-cultural dimension reflects the role language and culture play in creating a mutual philosophy of ‘European Citizenship’ as well as national citizenship. Within the framework for EU integration, cultural and linguistic diversity are complemented with a Euro-vision, entailing shared common values, membership, and a unique Euro-world view. In order to create this, educational authorities promote policies, which enhance cultural and inter cultural communication.³

The educational/curricular dimension promotes learning via a socio-constructivist frame. Under this notion, learning and thinking are formed and developed by collaboration and negotiation through which individuals create meaning via social construction of knowledge (Piaget 1977, Doise and Mugny 1984). Moreover in a socio-constructivist frame, learning not just an individual activity, but rather formed by their surrounding society. In this right, learners are part of an assisted learning community where via scaffolding learners are more apt to higher achievement than in individual learning situations (Cazden 1983 or see Vygotsky 1978).

The linguistic dimension is feasibly the least dubious of the dimensions, as the L2 acquisition of CLIL learners far exceeds traditional learners when matched comparatively (Dalton-Puffer 2008). As previously mentioned, European CLIL provision has benefited from earlier research in the Canadian context. Reverting back to the communicative revolution, CLIL has been called the “ultimate dream of communicative language teaching” (Dalton-Puffer 2007:3). Moreover, due to the immersion style method, CLIL has been metaphorically termed a ‘language bath’, where students absorb language, by means of acquisition rather than explicit language learning (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 3).

CLIL practitioners focus on meaningful input in which learners receive high amounts of exposure to a TL in various contexts, which are meaningful in terms of both competencies of BICS and CALP, as students in CLIL classrooms are exposed to formal academic language (the language of the science class), and informal language needed for everyday negotiating (the language of classroom management). In regard to CALP, input both must be comprehensible to the student’s level, yet leave an element for which the student must struggle to learn, which coincides with Krashen’s theory on ‘i+1’ (1985a). According to this hypothesis, learners improve and progress along the ‘natural order’ when they receive L2 ‘input’ that is one step beyond their current stage of

³ Such policies and programs include, Erasmus Programs, Language Portfolios etc.

linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when 'Comprehensible Input' is just beyond the 'i' level, hence 'i + 1' (Krashen 1985a).

In order to put this style of learning and instruction into practice within the CLIL context, Coyle (2000) has introduced the 4C's of successful curriculum planning; *Culture, Content, Cognition, and Communication*. In combining these elements, Coyle (2000) demonstrates how learning occurs when knowledge, skills, and content cumulate in a cognitive and communicative frame. Since CLIL integrates content and language, communication takes a key role in classroom practice and lesson planning. Thus, ideally content in CLIL classrooms is introduced and worked with in a student-centered and orally interactive way.

CLIL programs are abundant in giving student input, but output is also a key dimension in L2 acquisition. Student output is necessary to competence in L2 development. Swain and Lapkin (1995) formulated the 'Output hypothesis' stating that language is learned and internalized when learners attempt to transmit messages via the L2. In CLIL contexts, the need for socio-constructivist methodologies, which encourage 'forced yet meaningful output', is apparent. The three dimensions are highly interdependent, and many overlap and necessitate the others, yet together they form an idealized foundation upon which programs are organized and implemented, moreover they give structure for those practitioners who put CLIL into actual practice, teachers.

2.2.3 CLIL Educational Programming

Throughout the EU, CLIL methodologies take on many different implementations. Subjects that are taught via a TL differ from one region and/or country to the next.

"CLIL is an umbrella term adopted by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) in the mid 1990s. It encompasses any activity in which 'a FL is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role' (Marsh 2002:58).

According to the Eurydice (2006) Report, many EU members employ some variety of CLIL provision in their educational systems. Amongst the diversity of CLIL provision, some facets remain commonplace to CLIL programming. Swain and Johnson's (1997: 1-15) *core features* have been condensed to describe the essential elements of CLIL European programming:

1. L2 (or TL) is the medium of instruction.
2. Overt support exists for the L1.
3. Students enter CLIL programming with limited TL/L2 competency.
4. Teachers are sufficiently competent in the TL/L2.
5. L2 parallels the L1 curriculum.
6. Classroom culture reflects the local community.

These features demonstrate the uniqueness of the EU CLIL context contrasted with that of other bilingual programming. In immersion contexts, by contrast most teachers are either bilingual or monolingual in the TL, not natives to the L1 (like the students), nor is there such overt support for local culture and L1 development. CLIL implementation has significantly spread across the EU over the past decade as both EU member states have increased, and more importantly, as the pilot programs of the early 1990's have

provided the foundation, backed by research, which entails the benefits for CLIL implementation.

2.2.4 CLIL in Spain

The linguistic diversity of Spain's autonomous regions has incited bilingual policies and programs, especially in the field of education. Even before the term CLIL had been implemented, specific bilingual autonomous communities were constructing curricular contents to promote mainstreaming of minority languages (Cenoz 2002, Sierra 1994). Bilingual educational provision in Spain has developed with diverse goals; first for promoting minority and regional languages as mentioned above (Galician, Basque, and Catalan), and secondly and, much more recently, promoting TLs via CLIL methods. The first programs promoting the revival of minority languages date back to the 1980's before the EU language policies were in effect. Bilingual programming was instituted in specific regions due to the unsuccessful communicative acquisition of students who were enrolled in traditional L2 classrooms with minimal weekly hours (Arнау and Artigal 1997). These revival programs taught in the bilingual autonomous regions of Spain have yielded positive results pertaining to CLIL-typology in Spain (Pérez Vidal 2001).

The second and more recent implementation of CLIL typology consists in the teaching of a language outside that of a regional minority language. As with most parts of EU, English has taken the lead as the TL and the vehicle for teaching content in Spanish schools; French and German also have CLIL typologies in smaller quantities. Since the late 1990's the Spanish Ministry of Education has promoted and funded a significant number of bilingual CLIL schools. Spain's CLIL schools follow the dimensions (see section 2.2.2) and programming (see section 2.2.3) of the EU educational protocol. Within the Spanish programming, the Ministry of Education has invested in 'importing' Native speaking language assistants to further the authenticity of classroom discourse and to be a key linguistic resource for teachers and students. Assistants and teachers are to team teach content lessons and share in creating innovative CLIL classrooms. Chapter 3 will further discuss CLIL programming in Spain, and will analyze in depth the specific Spanish context of the Autonomous Community of Madrid.

2.3 Team Teaching

The practice of team teaching (TT) has been gaining momentum in nearly all educational contexts since interdisciplinary pedagogical approaches have proven beneficial for effective learning (Davis 1995). Within the realm of second language teaching, two scenarios of team teaching commonly occur. The first style entails the combination of a content teacher and a language teacher working together to implement CBI-style instruction. This manifestation has proven successful in CLIL classrooms at secondary and tertiary levels.⁴ The second style, as mentioned above in Spanish context, combines native speakers and nonnative teachers together in L2 classrooms. Studies have shown that this style of team teaching has grown in the past decades, and that if strategically implemented positive results are plentiful on various surfaces and for all stakeholders (Carless 2001).

2.3.1 Definitions, Styles and Prerequisites

⁴ www.cilil-axis.net accessed 11/17/2009.

Team teaching (TT) in simple terminology refers to the act of two teachers collaborating for a shared educational goal. Debate in terminology arises in terms of the in-class manifestation of TT, as TT can take on many different realizations. The most common format of TT includes the presence of both teachers in the classroom actively involved in instruction (Buckley 1998). Yet, other definitions allow for a more flexible framework where teachers share in the education of one group of students (Quin and Kanter 1984). For the purposes of this paper a mix of these definitions are combined to define TT as a pedagogical approach where two teachers collaborate and share in the instructional process for the same group of students within a given subject matter.

Team teachers classroom functioning may have many different instructional styles and formats. Most team teachers use a variety of styles and combine styles to fit their specific needs. Maroney (1995) states that many effective TT situations combine styles depending on the strengths and personalities of the teachers, as well as the needs of the students. Maroney's (1995) styles have been synthesized into the following five styles demonstrated below.

Team Teaching Style	Definition
Standard TT	Takes places when both teachers actively share in instruction.
Collaborative TT	Similar to standard TT yet students learn solely in group formats, sometimes referred to as Total Collaborative Learning (Gokhale 1995).
Complimentary/ Supportive TT	Refers to approaches where one teacher is in charge of content teaching, the other focuses on reinforcement activities or skill building.
Parallel TT	Students are divided at random and each teacher is responsible for the learning of their group.
Differentiated TT	Similar to parallel TT yet students are grouped according to learning needs/levels.

Table 2.1 Styles of team teaching (Maroney 1995)

In order to successfully implement any of the styles mentioned above, team teachers must first create a relationship of accord and support. In order to this, Cushman⁵ states there are five elements that lead to successful TT collaboration. First, teaming teachers should plan and coordinate together through designated meetings. Second, co-teachers should create a shared belief system whereby both teachers feel that by collaborating they are better, both on a personal and summative level. Teaming allows teachers to pool their diverse knowledge, techniques, and skills for the betterment of their students. Third, teachers should show parity; whereby individual differences are valued as enriching both teachers' and learners' experiences. Fourth, collaborating instructors must agree to redistribute their leadership responsibilities and make compromises for the betterment of their 'team'. Johnson and Donaldson (1999) have termed this modification in classroom control 'the distributed functions theory of leadership'. Research in TT has revealed that this element is crucial in creating a 'team' of teachers, and is many times the reason why TT is not successfully executed (Johnson and Donaldson 1999). As teachers by nature are solitary creatures, wherein their classroom is often times their kingdom, opening the gates to an 'outsider' is indeed difficult. Thus, compromise in tasks and functions must be monitored as part of this designation of leadership. Fifth, teaming teachers must still preserve their individual accountability. This last element is essential in ensuring effective team functioning, so that one teacher

⁵ Cushman, S. *What is Co-Teaching?* http://www.corwin.com/upm-data/6847_villa_ch_1.pdf accessed 11/17/2009.

doesn't perceive a situation of unequal labor distribution. By planning together and having specific role descriptions such occurrences can be avoided.

2.3.2 Challenges and Benefits

The most visible benefit of TT is reduction of student to teacher ratio. Although TT can offer more than just reduced ratios; if effectively carried out TT can be an extremely valuable, interesting and motivating pedagogy especially in CLIL-style classes. This section presents the general benefits of TT, followed by the specific benefits of combining native speakers and nonnative speaking teachers taken from research in the field.

The impacts of collaborative teaching affect all those involved. In any given TT context, teachers benefit as collaboration allows for on the job professional development. Teachers are able to learn from colleagues and bear witness to different styles of planning, presentation, organization, and evaluation within a given subject (Brandenburg 1997). Robinson and Schaible (1995: 45) state that "by working with another adult, teachers are less lonely" and have more supportive environment, co-teachers can be a "sounding board for sharing the joys and disappointments of particular lessons".

The presence of two adults in the classroom can facilitate more cooperative learning. Cooperative and group learning highlight scaffolding techniques whereby collaboration produces work that exceeds the abilities of students working alone. Indeed, collaborative learning coincides with CLIL's support for 'student-centered' learning styles (Coyle, Hood, and Marsh 2020). Group work has proven to increase retention, motivation, and achievements scores (Robinson and Schaible 1995). Group work becomes more feasible in terms of organization with two teachers present. Behavior issues and content/linguistic concerns are easier to tackle with two teachers monitoring the student's work. The collaboration between teaming teachers also serves as model for teamwork, which is linked to the heightened interpersonal skills of the students who model the cooperative nature of team teachers. Conclusively, the benefits of TT mentioned above can be effectively attained when a variety of the styles (see Graphic 2.1) are employed. Diversification of TT styles is beneficial for students and, moreover for teachers, diversifying styles can reduce the perceived 'monotony' typical classroom teaching, and is a catalyst for implementing the various CLIL dimensions (see section 2.2.2).

2.3.3 Teaming Native Speakers and Nonnative Teachers

In the context of native speakers collaborating with nonnative speaking teachers, both collaborators innately have distinctive strengths and weaknesses. The following graphic shows the 'perceived' differences of native and nonnative speaking teachers.

	Native Speaker (NS) Teachers	Nonnative Speaker (NNS) Teachers
Use of the English Language	-Demonstrate high confidence levels -Use 'real' language	-Lack confidence in L2 -Use 'book' language
Attitude towards teaching	-Flexible -Innovative -Less empathetic -Less committed	-Guided by syllabus -Cautious - More empathetic -More committed
Classroom Practice	- Focus on fluency and oral skills -Tolerate errors -Use a variety materials -Less use of L1 -Employ pair/group work	-Focus on accuracy, form, grammar written, and formal registers -Correct errors - Depend on bookwork -Use L1 -Employ frontal work

Table 2.2 Native and Nonnative Speaker Teachers (Adapted from Medgyes 1994: 27)

Additionally, research into native-nonnative collaboration has shown that native speakers typically have a more active vocabulary, know situational idiomatic usage, have language intuition, and are ambassadors of the L2 culture (Barratt and Kontra 2000).⁶ On the contrary, local nonnative teachers have a first account of learning the TL as an L2, know about the local educational policies and curriculum, and can handle classroom management as they are 'trained teachers' (Carless 2006). After years of debate and analysis as to which makes a 'better' L2 teacher neither NS nor NNS teachers are inherently better than the other, yet evidence shows that in fact typically they use different styles (Medgyes 1992). Thus, TT between NS and NNS appears to be a constructive strategy in complementing teachers by overcoming lacking areas on both sides and harnessing respective teaching strengths.

For over 20 years, The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET) has been employing native English-speaking graduates to team teach with nonnative speaking (NNS) teachers in Japan's public schools (Gorsuch 2002). The 2008-2009 school year, witnessed over 6,000 Native speakers (NS) collaborating with over 20,000 local teachers. Most team teaching occurs at the secondary level, but as educational policy continues to change, more NSs are teaming at the primary levels⁷. Research avowing positive results taken from the JET program have led the way for TT in L2 classrooms in nearly 40 other countries, such as Hong Kong, Korea, and Slovenia (see Alderson et al. 2001, Boyle 1997, Carless 2006, Choi 2001, and Tajino and Tajino 2000).

Successful teaming in the JET and similar schemes has revealed that since the onset of the NS-NNS teaming, learners are acquiring more language and enjoying classes more (Carless 2006). In terms of specific L2 achievement the teaming of teachers heightens 'comprehensible input' (Krashen 1985) due to the doubled-teacher discourse. This is exemplified by the NS ability to expand the NNS's discourse (which typically uses standard phrases and short answer examples and utterances), NS teachers enrich the classroom discourse by repeating, rephrasing, or recasting (Carless 2006). Moreover, spatial learning is more prominent as teaming teachers are able to exemplify discourse with actions and/or visuals. Successful teachers model language together and role-play situations, which before would have been done via recorded 'listening comprehension'

⁶ When referring to attributes of NS teachers and NNS teachers, I argue that the information presented in the table and text above applies not just to teachers but to native speakers as a whole, whereby some qualities such as language intuition is inherent to native speakers, and whereby others are culturally engrained such as tolerating errors or preference for group work.

⁷ see official JET PROGRAM webpage www.jetprogramme.org

formats. Moreover, the NNS teacher is able to clarify via L1 usage, which reduces student's anxiety when not understanding.

Research has shown that JET students are more cognitively engaged via differentiated group work (Carless 2006). Group work is beneficial as it reduces student to teacher ratios and facilitates constructivist and participatory learning. Some NNS teachers feel students benefit from the contrastive styles of team members. In groups, the local teacher (NNS) works with students needing more help, and the NS works with students with higher levels. These level-based groups are used to facilitate the language, so that activities are not 'dumbed-down' because of language deficiencies. Group work also increases 'forced output', which gives students more quantity talk time especially when each group is led by a teacher. In classes without two teachers present, teachers must manage both groups simultaneously. Moreover, teachers can circulate the class in order to give quality feedback to students during speaking activities.

Lastly, in terms of motivation, and in line with general TT benefits mentioned above, student motivation is much higher in NS-NNS team taught classes (McConnell 2000). Again this is related to the liveliness of TT classrooms, specifically in the JET context, the authenticity in both communication and materials brought by the NS motivates the students in a different way. Also, the two diverse personalities of the teachers, demonstrates situational authenticity of the language, where learners see the co-teachers collaborating and functionally working in the L2 (Buckley 2000).

The benefits of having a native speaking language assistant allows for the cited benefits of general TT mentioned above. Yet specifically, when TT between a NS and NNS is correctly implemented the gains for both the students and NNS teacher are significant. According to 'best practice' for teaming teachers in the JET program, NS can contribute academically, culturally, and linguistically. Although many times the NS is not a trained teacher, they can positively compliment the curriculum, from having been a student in another educational culture. As a requirement to be a JET, NS must have completed a tertiary degree. This entails that most NS JET Assistants have 16 years of educational experience from an academic system much different from the Japanese system. NSs are able to complement Japanese methods by employing Anglo-culturally entrenched pedagogical styles and objectives like group working, project based learning, public speaking, and critical thinking. Collaborative teaching in the JET context has shown that cultural manifestations can be quite simple, yet very telling. NSs may seem more informal, i.e. giving students rewarding 'hi-fives' a practice which is uncommon in Japanese educational settings, yet common within American schools. Furthering the notion of culture, NSs are representatives of the TL culture. NSs can be used as a resource to create L2 cultural activities.

The linguistic benefits of having a NS in class reach beyond the ideas of an idealized speaker in terms of pronunciation. For teachers the NS can be a tool to increase their L2 development. In JET 'good practice' scenarios, teachers acknowledged that the NS is one of their best tools for personal language growth (Carless 2006). For students the NS, especially those who do not speak the student's L1, create 'forced output' opportunities by requiring the students to try to convey messages in the L2.

The lessons from the JET and the other programs have shown that cross-cultural and bilingual collaboration between native and nonnative teachers has the potential to yield

positive linguistic, pedagogical and cultural results. Although according to many team teachers, the lack of planning and the lack of literature and training on team teaching strategies have left many teachers with a less than favorable opinion of collaboration. In the JET context, with over 20 years of experience, problematic areas still exist, found mostly in undefined roles manifesting in confusion in class functioning (Carless 2004).

The results of teaming native assistants and nonnative teachers in CLIL settings have yet to be fully realized. The unification of both teachers in a collaborative dynamic is a relatively new innovation. Moreover, there is a lack of specific research as to the functions, benefits, and implications in the specific domain of team teaching in CLIL content areas. Most studies, and indeed the majority referenced in this chapter relate to classrooms where TT occurs in English language classes. Thus the roles, functions, and overall interaction will feasibly be different in the CLIL context, where the focus changes from English to Science in English. The following chapters present this novel paradigm whereby team teaching between natives and nonnatives will be explored in the specific CLIL context of the Autonomous Community of Madrid.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The aim of this chapter is to present the research methods used in the current study. In correlation with the research questions presented in chapter one, the research tools that were selected for this study allow for both a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the current team teaching situation within bilingual primary schools in the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM). This chapter is organized in the following sequence; first, a detailed summary of the CAM bilingual context is provided, followed by an introduction to research design and timelines, and last a comprehensive detailing of the three research tools employed in this study, including the respective populations, locations, materials, and procedures used for each of them. The data drawn from the various procedures will be analyzed and discussed in chapter 4.

3.1 The Teaching and Learning Context

In the 2004/05 school year the Department of Education in the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM), under the supervision of the Directorate General for the Improvement of Education Quality, commissioned the first bilingual primary schools throughout the CAM.⁸ The goal of the bilingual school program is to improve students' target language (TL) level, in most cases, English, in order to better prepare them for future professional opportunities in a globalized world. One of the fundamental objectives of the CAM bilingual experience is that of foreign language communicative competence in everyday settings.

3.1.1 Organization and features of CAM Bilingual Programs

The CAM bilingual initiative has set lofty goals in the implementation of the program. The 2009/10 school year will be the year six of the rollout program, with 225 primary schools (25% of the total CAM primary schools) participating in the program. Following the organization of the Spanish school system, this means the initial 24 schools and participating students will be in their last year of primary education. Bilingual schools within the CAM are organized as such that at least 1/3 of the 25 weekly hours of classes are given with English as the medium of instruction. Curricular design and implementation is particular to each school, where the school director constitutes the plan of study.

In terms of bilingual programming, most schools have implemented arts and crafts, science, music and/or physical education as part of the programming, as well as maintaining the English (L2) class.⁹ With the hours of English instruction, which come from both the subject area of English, and the bilingual programming, the goals for L2 acquisition are the following¹⁰:

1st Cycle (Grades 1 and 2): Language Acquisition and Introduction to reading and writing.

2nd Cycle (Grades 3 and 4): Reading and Writing and development of conversation skills.

3rd Cycle (Grades 5 and 6): Science, Geography and History in English.

⁸ Orden 796/2004 of March 5 from the Consejería de Educación de la Comunidad de Madrid.

⁹ Within the CAM context, the only prerequisites are that Math and Spanish language are conducted in the Spanish language, all other subjects may be taught with a TL as the medium of instruction.

¹⁰

<http://www.madrid.org/cs/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application%2Fpdf&blobkey=id&blobtable=MungoBlob&blobwhere=1158614556808&ssbinary=true> [accessed 17/11/2009].

Primary school teachers in the bilingual program are composed of two demographics; specialized content teachers who have been *habilitados*, or certified to use English as medium for content via English training, or English language specialists with content training. Before entering the bilingual program teachers take part in a training focusing on CLIL methodology and specific language classes. Moreover, teachers have the opportunity to participate in furthering education courses and training sessions with pedagogical and linguistic focuses.

Within the bilingual program various innovative and special programs have been implemented to create a more globalized learning model. For instance, CAM bilingual schools have twin schools in the United Kingdom which permit cultural exchanges and give real life learning to language. The progression of the students and the external evaluation of the program is conducted and assessed by student participation in Trinity Exams sponsored by the Trinity College, London. Students in 2nd, 4th and 6th grades voluntarily participate in these oral exams.

One innovative feature of the Madrid bilingual school program is the large presence of native speakers who work in schools on a sustained basis¹¹. In the school year 2008/09, there were on average three native speakers in each school, allocated in accordance with student population and years in the bilingual program. The native speaker's role is to bring language learning to life, expose students to new cultures and ways of thinking, break down national boundaries and more than anything, get young people excited about discovering language and culture. As outlined in the *Guía del Auxiliar*, a key function is "to reinforce oral skills of students as a native speaker and promote cultural understanding".¹²

3.1.2 Language Assistants

Over 600 *Auxiliares de Conversación*, Conversation/Language Assistants (LAs), are employed by the *Comunidad de Madrid* to work in bilingual primary schools for 16 hours a week. Within these hours, two can be dedicated to teacher education, by which the LA gives English classes to either teachers or other faculty members. The organization of an LA's schedule is at the discretion of the school director as to which classes and levels they will participate in.

Demographically speaking, LAs come from inner circle native English speaking countries. 60% come from the USA, 15% from the UK and the other 25% come from Ireland, Canada, Australia, and South Africa (information given through a pilot study conducted by O'Byrne and Hibler 2009). They are typically in their early twenties, and university graduates. LAs receive a two-day informational training session before entering the school environment, followed by two shorter training sessions conducted over the course of the academic year.

Once in schools, LAs work in the classroom alongside the teacher on a daily basis as well as preparing and delivering additional special activities. Collaborating teachers

¹¹ As well as the bilingual primary schools, there are a number of secondary schools who benefit from native speaking assistant, some of whom are administered by the regional government of Madrid and some of whom are administered by the Ministry of Education.

¹² http://www.educa.madrid.org/cms_tools/files/2d5fd23a-0e00-4ffd-be77-fa6bc57015be/Guiaauxiliar.pdf [accessed 17/11/2009].

have various expectations and work descriptions for LAs, yet the functions according to the *Guía de Auxiliar* (LA Guide) are the following¹³:

- Help teachers plan lessons and assist them in the classroom with linguistic support.
- Follow the indications of the teacher and collaborate with them.
- Reinforce fundamental oral strengths of the students and promote cultural understanding. To do this the auxiliary will maintain frequent contact with students.
- Encourage and promote student's motivation and interest in both the LAs native language and country of origin.

3.2 Research Design and Timelines

The research methods that have been selected for this study intend to contextualize and analyze the classroom roles of the Head tutor/teacher (HT) and Language Assistant (LA), with focus on specific pedagogical techniques of team teaching. The research undertaken for this thesis has been conducted in a three-part sequence. The stages of the research were built upon each other, where results in one area led to focus in the subsequent stages. First, a pilot questionnaire was carried out, second, classroom observations were conducted, and third observation subjects were interviewed. By utilizing three research tools, it is hoped that the anecdotal accounts of the current situation of underutilized LAs and unsatisfied HTs would be demystified, and in turn examples of best practice would be documented.

3.3 The Pilot Questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was designed with a dual objective, first to formally and concretely confirm that the anecdotal accounts of mutual dissatisfaction were present within the CAM Language Assistant Program. Second, the pilot survey gave way to the subsequent areas of focus within the LA context. The pilot questionnaire was used to obtain a general survey of the attitudes surrounding the LA scheme and made specific focus on the roles and expectations from both the HT and LA perspective.

The materials employed for this part of the study consisted of two questionnaires, one pertaining to LAs and the other concerning HTs (see appendix A and B). Although the questionnaires were quite similar in content, a few questions were tailored for the specific respondents. The questionnaire was distributed either in person or via email to HTs and LAs. The total population of the pilot questionnaire was 30 respondents; composed of 15 LAs and 15 HTs. The HTs and LAs that participated were contacted from the researcher's previous work within the CAM bilingual schools, yet both parties were encouraged to pass the questionnaire amongst their colleagues in order to increase the population. To ensure that the feedback would be objective, the questionnaires were anonymous and were completed privately.

Instructions for the completion of the questionnaire were included in an email, where participants were also thanked for their time and contribution. The questionnaire was attached as a file, which respondents could download and complete, then return via email with an attached file. Participants were informed that it would be appreciated if they could return the surveys in a two-week period. Yet as response time was slower

¹³ A downloadable version of the LA guide can be accessed at the following link http://www.educa.madrid.org/cms_tools/files/2d5fd23a-0e00-4ffd-be77-fa6bc57015be/Guiaauxiliar.pdf [accessed 17/11/2009].

than expected, eventually, the timeline for this part of the procedure was extended for a two-month time frame.

In an attempt to generate a larger pilot response group, the questionnaire was focused on HTs and LAs in general, and not customized for a specific grade level or specific subject area.¹⁴ Thus it was foreseen that diversity may arise in the responses due to range of LA/HT functions and roles in classes which are outside of the core curricular subjects; Spanish language, math, science, and foreign language. Subjects outside of the core curriculum, such as physical education and music, may have a different format in terms of pedagogical approach, and thus the role that the LA/HT plays will be quite different. This issue was therefore controlled in the following research proceedings.

3.4 Classroom Observation

The next stage of the research was carried out via observation. The goal of the observational component of this research was to investigate the actual practice of team teaching in the CAM context. By actual practice, it is intended that the observation provide examples of specific functions and detailed roles taken on by the LA and HT while working together. In order to have a balanced view of the classroom context, two diverse research tools were employed, the first, Internet-based observation of prerecorded classes and the second, live in-class observation.

The rationale for the dual-faceted approach to observation was selected for two reasons; first for accessibility and efficiency and second for diversity and objectivity. The Internet sessions allow for repeated viewing and provide a more efficient research tool in terms of time-efficiency and cost-effectiveness. By incorporating the online component of the observation, the corpus of the data presented in the results section is significantly larger. Moreover the Internet sessions allow for more objectivity in terms of participant-observer influence factors that occur during live classroom observation (see Rosenthal and Jacobson 1968, 1992). During live observation, the participant is conscious of the observer in class, which may affect or sway their performance. Therefore by using two methods the research is more balanced and a larger corpus is created.

3.4.1 The Observation Manual

In order to limit the scope of the observation task an observation manual was designed. Due to the lack of literature, on the specific context pertinent to this study (i.e. TT with native speakers and nonnative teachers in CLIL environments) it was necessary to design a manual. The resulting manual consulted similar studies and contexts, and modified them for the specific needs of this study. In one such study, Alderson et al (2001) employed a detailed observation manual for a large evaluative study on TT between natives and nonnative in Slovenia. This observation manual proved fruitful for TT in the English classroom and was thus adapted to the CLIL science classroom.

¹⁴ As mentioned in section 3.2.1 the CAM bilingual programming allows for all school subjects (excluding Math and Spanish Language) to be taught through English as the medium of instruction.

<i>Error correction</i>	<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Comprehensive Input and Forced Output</i>
Pronunciation (LA)	Role plays	Repetition, expansion
Grammar (HT)	Different voices	Inter-teacher talk
Lexicon (LA)	Movement	Rate of delivery ZPD HT- LA-
Usage (LA)	Liveliness Humor- Rapport	Opportunities for talk
Content (HT)	Task value	Code switching – L1 Usage
Direct	Authentic material	SS addressing HT
Recast		SS addressing LA
HT error correction		

The observation manual used in my study is comprised of three sections. The first section involves organizational and demographical information. The second section, open observation, is divided into a HT column and LA column. In this way, the two columns are used to distinguish specific roles and other salient issues that pertain to each subject. The third section is a focused observation grid that limited the scope to issues of TT methodology/functioning and second language acquisition. Graphic 3.1 presented below demonstrates the team teaching component of the observation grid. The TT methodology component is divided into four columns. The first column pertains to TT styles and didactic methods (see section 2.3.1). The second column highlights the benefits of the native and nonnative speaker teachers (see graphic 2.2). The third column focuses on the diverse discourse functions each speaker employs while in the classroom setting. The fourth column is centered on good practice in team teaching, which has been reviewed in the literature (see section 2.3).

<i>TT Style / Didactic Methodology</i>	<i>NS/NNS benefits</i>	<i>Discourse Function</i>	<i>Communication and Interaction</i>
Standard	Student's problems (HT)	Explaining	Preplanning
Supportive	Grammar (HT)	Expanding	Mini-meetings
Parallel	Pedagogical/Content (HT)	Clarifying	Classroom activity
Differentiated	Syllabus/Exam (HT)	Rewarding	Rapid role exchange
Frontal	Discipline (HT)	Reprimanding	Eye contact/Signals
Group	Fluency (LA)	Ordering	Positioning
Pairs	Target Culture (LA)	Consulting	Transitions
Individual	Idiomatic (LA)		

Table 3.1 Team Teaching Component of the Observation Manual

The second language acquisition component, presented below in graphic 3.2 is separated into three categories that have proven fundamental for success in L2 teaching and learning. The first column focuses on error correction. Within this column the focus was to see which errors were corrected by whom, and how they were corrected. The second column is a grouping of conditions that are thought to promote greater learner motivation. Some of these issues include task-value, classroom liveliness, and role-playing. The third column focuses on strategies that increase comprehensive input (Krashen 1985) and forced output (Swain 1995).

The goal of the dual-component observation manual was to keep the observer on task whilst being able to make side notes. In this way, the focused observation was used as the predominant guide and observations were marked in tally and notation format. (Refer to the Appendix for a full account of this method.)

Table 3.2 Second Language Acquisition Component of the Observation Manual

3.4.2 Internet-based Observation

The internet-based component complemented the live observation for diverse reasons. First, a prerecorded and uploaded video, with free and unlimited access via Internet connection allows for in-depth analysis of teaching styles. It is in this way that the videos can be replayed and analyzed without having limitations in terms of time/space/participant/ variables. Second, the videos accessed via the web are without subject interference. The videos which were used for this study were recorded and uploaded by the Regional Educational Department (*Consejería de Educación*) of the CAM, and were recorded with the purpose of introducing the bilingual program.

The population studied in the online observation was composed of primary teachers in the bilingual program within the CAM. In order to control the experiment, the videos selected had the following limiting criteria:

1. The school must be an official school of the CAM bilingual program.
2. The Language Assistant and Head Teacher both must be present during the hours of observation.
3. The content area must be science (*conocimiento del medio*) within the first two cycles of primary education, 1st grade-4th grade.
4. The observation session must be a 'typical session' where there was neither an exam nor a special activity in progress.

The three classrooms observed in the videos reflect the profiles shown in the table below.

School	Location	Grade	Video Length	Web Link address	Topic
C.E.I.P Dulcinea	Alcalá de Henares (30 Km from Madrid Capital)	2	17'56"	http://mediateca.educa.madrid.org/reproducir.php?id_video=15dtzbcpl78aecv	The skeletal system
C.E.I.P Antonio Machado	San Sebastián de Los Reyes (20 Km from Madrid Capital)	2	27'49"	http://mediateca.educa.madrid.org/reproducir.php?id_video=4eelu14oqc5sh25l	Classification of animals
C.E.I.P	Madrid Capital	1	29'05"	http://mediateca.educa.madrid.org/reproducir.php?id_video=4eelu14oqc5sh25l	Classification of

Martínez Montañés				org/reproducir.php?id_video= 8mivuihyzd9lxh35	animals
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Table 3.3 School Profiles for Internet Observation

The materials used for the online-component of the observation were a computer, the Internet, and the observation manual. In employing the observation manual, the technique used for online videos was the following; first to try to complete all aspects of the manual with just one viewing, in attempt to be prepared for live classroom observation. After the first viewing, the subsequent views were used for analysis and to focus on certain aspects pertinent to the results section. A total of three viewings were used for each video.

3.4.3 In-class Observation

The in-class observation and the interviews that proceeded were the most in-depth and comprehensive of the three research tools. It was intended that the results yielded from this stage would be used to create recommendations for best practice within the unique CAM context. Through observation and interviews participants revealed strategies that have proven beneficial in implementing collaborative pedagogies.

The population used in the in-class observation was selected in compliance with the three criteria mentioned above for the internet group; an official CAM primary bilingual school, HT and LA work together on a regular and sustained basis, the LA and HT are present on the day of observation, and the subject of observation is science, in the first two cycles. Moreover, the teachers that were approached to participate in the in-class observation had taken part in a language program led by the researcher during the previous summer. Those who were asked to participate in this part of the research had shown interest in collaborative methodologies, and moreover had demonstrated positive experiences with the LA program. In addition, many of them had discussed innovative ways in which they had incorporated the LA into their classrooms. Thus these participants demonstrate cases of ‘illuminatory instance’ (Holliday 2002), whose purpose exemplifies areas of best practice in collaborative teaching. The following table presents the demographics of the schools observed in this section.

School	Location	Grade	Time	Topic
C.E.I.P Jaime Balmes	Madrid Capital	3	50 minutes	Habitats
C.E.I.P Jaime Balmes	Madrid Capital	2	50 minutes	Flowers
C.E.I.P Ciudad de Columbia	Tres Cantos (20 Km from Madrid Capital)	3	50 minutes	Habitats
C.E.I.P Ciudad de Columbia	Tres Cantos (20 Km from Madrid Capital)	4	50 minutes	Sexual Reproduction
C.E.I.P Ciudad de Columbia	Tres Cantos (20 Km from Madrid Capital)	5	50 minutes	The Circulatory System
C.E.I.P Le Panto	Madrid Capital	3	50 minutes	The Skeletal System
C.E.I.P Le Panto	Madrid Capital	6	50 minutes	The Discovery of America

Table 3.4 School Profiles for In-Class Observation

The materials used for the in-class observation task were the observation manual and a voice recorder. The same observation manual that was employed in the internet-based component was used in this stage, with additional demographic information noted as was feasible due to participant proximity.¹⁵

The procedure of the in-class observation was undertaken in the following sequence:

1. Pre-observation established the initial contact with HT and LA. At this stage (typically via email) the objectives were presented and the participants were made aware of the goals of the research and the timelines.
2. Confirmation and scheduling (typically via email) was done to confirm participants and to schedule observation days/times.
3. In-class observation began with a brief meeting, held before the class started, to make introductions and to give any pertinent information about either the lesson or the organization of the class period. Next, the voice recording of the observation began and was strategically placed for optimal voice recording of the entire session. During the in-class observation the researcher followed the observational manual in order to focus on the predetermined aspects pertinent to collaborative pedagogies.

3.5 Interviews

In this study interviews are a useful complement to the previous methods, and allow for the observed participants to expand on their position and give more qualitative input for analysis. The interview component posed concrete questions that would lead to discussion on ways in which best practice has developed for the participating teachers. Moreover interview methods are useful in that the presence of the interviewer can help clarify queries from the respondents and can stimulate the respondent to give full answers, not feasible in questionnaires. Indeed, there is evidence that face-to-face encounters improve response rates (Bailey 1994:174).

The interviewees were subjects of the in-class observation. Interviews typically took place with the individual participants following the observation. The interviews conducted were recorded via voice recorder with participants having the option of speaking in either English or Spanish. The interviews were guided by open-ended questions through which participants were encouraged to openly contribute and elaborate on personal opinions and experiences (See appendix C and D).

The participants who took part in this study provide an authentic sample of the current CAM LA-HT situation. As with any population group, outside factors may influence individual performance. The subjects who participated are not homogenous in various milieus. The external factors that could not be controlled are reflected in teacher demographics such as age, sex, years in bilingual program, years working with LAs, or university training (i.e. Language teachers who have become content teachers, or content teachers who have been trained in language). The participating LAs also demonstrate diverse demographical features which include country of origin (all native English-speaking), age, sex, educational and professional backgrounds and the years the LA has worked in the CAM program. Lastly as LAs are allowed to work for two years in the CAM context, some LAs and HTs have more experience working together than others. In conclusion, the diversity of the participants and resulting data reveal a true

¹⁵ Subject contact information was not provided for the Internet videos from the *Consejería de Educación*.

snapshot of a large and comprehensive program, as is that of the LA scheme in CAM bilingual schools.

In conclusion to this chapter, the diversity of both the research tools and the subjects have enabled this study to present an in-depth account of the current practice of TT in the CAM context. The results obtained from these various research tools will be explored in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the various research tools used in this study. The results are provided in the sequential stages in which they were carried out, first the pilot questionnaire, followed by the observations and interviews. The results that are presented below are distinctive in that very little research has been conducted in terms of the team teaching contexts in CLIL classrooms, whereby the team is composed of native speaker and a nonnative speaking teacher, and moreover in science classrooms with English as the medium of instruction.

4.1 The Pilot questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire was used as a preliminary introduction and assessment of the current practice of team teaching in the Community of Madrid (CAM) bilingual primary schools. Specifically, the pilot questionnaire was used to formalize the anecdotal accounts regarding matters of mutual discontentment within the current team teaching (TT) scheme. Furthermore the pilot questionnaire was created in order to reveal concrete areas in need of evaluation and analysis with regards to the pedagogical functions of both the Head Teacher/tutor (HT) and Language Assistant (LA). Lastly, the results of the pilot questionnaire were used as a focus in the subsequent research proceedings.

The following paragraphs present the findings and discussion for the results of the HT and LA components of the pilot questionnaire. As the questionnaires were tailored to each population, the results are presented first from the perspective of the LA and second from the HT. Later, the results are synchronized whereby comparing similar questions a comparative analysis is presented. (Both questionnaires can be found in the appendix, as well as examples of completed questionnaires.)

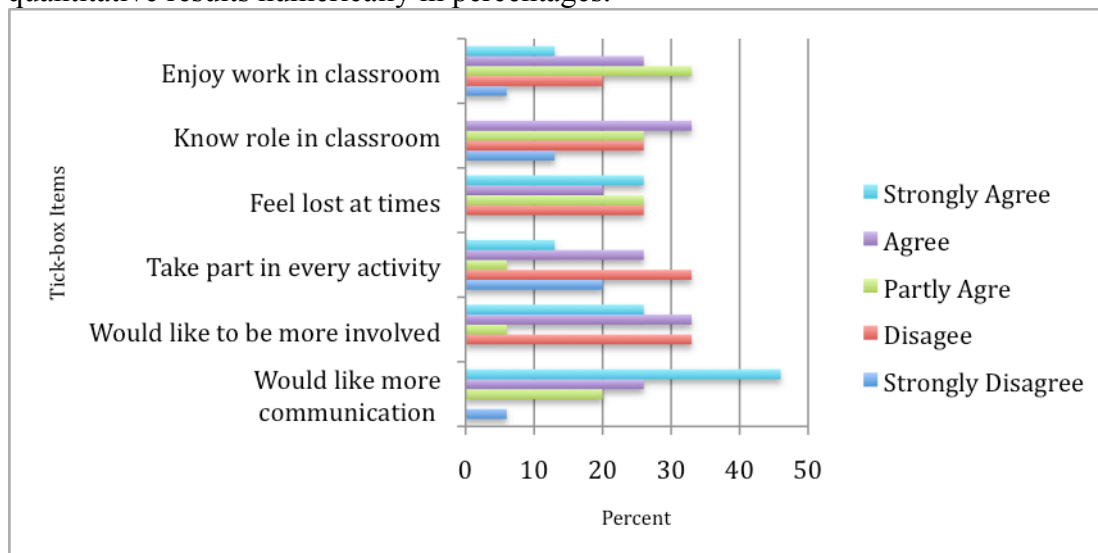
4.1.1 Results and Discussion of the LA Pilot Questionnaire

The first section of the questionnaire pertained to demographics of the 15 LA subjects. This section of the questionnaire revealed the following data reflecting the demographics of the participating LAs. In terms of age, LAs ranged from 19 to 32 years old, with 12 females and 3 males. The nationalities of LAs were the following: 11 American, 2 British, 1 Canadian, 1 Irish. These figures give adequate representation of the typical demographic distribution of the 2008/09 LA program participants, as it coincides with the data taken from *Language Assistants in Madrid Bilingual Schools: Evaluation and Recommendations* (O'Byrne and Hibler 2009).

An interesting and salient feature of the demographic information found that many of the participating LAs had relevant educational backgrounds and applicable experience. 14 out of 15 LAs had completed their undergraduate degree, with five holding a degree in Education. Four participants held higher educational degrees (Masters) in English and/or Education. Moreover 6 participants had completed some form of a course on Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language. 7 participants had taught in some capacity in the past, and only two participants indicated that they had no relevant educational or occupational experience. This information shows that LAs have more experience and relevant educational studies than what is thought. According to the

Official Bulletin of the Community of Madrid, Language assistants are not teachers¹⁶. Moreover as will be shown in the results for the HT populations, LAs are not considered ‘teachers’. This notion of ‘teacher’ has thus been further studied in the interview component of the research (see section 4.2).

The second section of the LA pilot questionnaire was a tick-box evaluation of general impressions and functions of the LA program. The following graphic presents the quantitative results numerically in percentages.



Graphic 4.1 LA Pilot Questionnaire Opinion Results

The tick box results show a variety of responses from participants. Quotes from the open-ended questions of the questionnaire are used to exemplify corresponding results from the tick-box section. In this way the quantitative results are reinforced and exemplified with qualitative data.

The questions that were selected from the pilot questionnaire to be analyzed directly relate to the LA role in the classroom. Starting on a positive note, the majority of LAs marked that they enjoy their work in the classroom. As shown in the first item of the graphic, nearly 75% of the participating LAs enjoyed their work to some degree in the classroom, shown in the cumulative results of the *Partly Agree-Agree-Strongly Agree* responses for this item. From the comments found in the qualitative component, it can be asserted that LAs find working with the students highly rewarding. 100% of the respondents, regardless of their overall satisfaction in the classroom, mentioned that the students ‘were what they liked most about the job’, as the following comments illustrate:

“ Students at my school were spirited, enthusiastic, and overall very intelligent and hardworking. They were a joy to teach.” (LA 2)¹⁷
 “The kids are the best part of this job...they love me and I love them!” (LA 7)

Yet, that leaves 25% of the respondents, who in fact disagreed or strongly disagreed that they enjoyed their work in the classroom. One respondent commented on this issue

¹⁶ Official Bulletin accessed 12/12/2009 available at http://www.madrid.org/cs/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application/pdf&blobkey=id&blobtable=CM_Orden_BOCM&blobwhere=1142560519301&ssbinary=true.

¹⁷ The number noted in parenthesis beside the quote stands for one of the fifteen LA pilot survey respondents.

stating that, they ‘agreed’ yet ‘It really depends on the co-teacher’. Another who also ‘agreed’ stated that they enjoyed their work under the following stipulation: ‘When I was involved in in-class activities’. One of the participants who strongly disagreed, noted that ‘[the teachers] are not trained in how to use their aides and our knowledge and expertise is wasted.’ Another respondent who ticked that they strongly disagree stated ‘training for LA roles and expectations for LAs would help.’ Interestingly, both of the participants who ‘strongly disagreed’ with this item were trained teachers, with seven years of experience in educational settings.

The second item in the tick-box regarded the LA role. In general, 40% of respondents stated that they did not know their role. The remaining 60% felt they knew or somewhat knew their role, yet as can be seen in the graphic, no participant marked that they ‘strongly agree’ on the concept of role acknowledgement. As some participants commented:

“I wonder sometimes if the school administrators are fully aware of our roles.” (LA 10)

“It seems like no one knew my role in the classroom.”(LA 3)

“No one told me my role, so I tried to create my own role, but it was hard to find a balance, I didn’t want to step on the toes of the teacher, but I also didn’t want to be a human voice recorder- I think I have so much more to give than what the teacher sees, or wants to see.” (LA 15)

The question on ‘knowing your role’ was reinforced by the questions ‘feeling lost at times’ and ‘taking part in every activity’ which showed very similar results to those of role knowledge. The former, where respondents marked feelings of being lost, showed 73% of respondents marked that they ‘agreed’ to some extent that at times they felt lost in the classroom.

“I want to help but I don’t know what to do. I wish the teacher would tell me.” (LA 2)

“If the teacher was going over something I would sit in the back.” (LA 9)

“Last year, I often functioned as wall-paper. I just stood there and the teacher hardly allowed me to do anything.” (LA 3)

“Sometimes I stand there and look cute.” (LA 11)

Participants varied in responses on taking part in most classroom activities. Over 50% of the respondents noted that they did not participate in most activities. The remaining 50% ranged in participation frequency.

“Sometimes I get bored and feel the teacher didn’t plan well the class or try to incorporate me in a way that is enjoyable for me.” (LA 8)

It is important to mention that many LAs commented that they take part in ‘outside of the class’ activities while the teacher is teaching to the whole group. The questionnaires revealed, and the data from the observations and interviews strongly support the notion that nearly all LAs do ‘small group hall work’ in differing degrees. It seems that some LAs find this beneficial for the students and personally enjoyable, while others find this ‘pullout’ function to be boring and tedious (see section 4.2.1.1 for a more detailed account of pullout TT).

“A typical day with year 3 is taking them out to read a book in groups of two. I am always in the hall asking them questions. I find this repetitive

and boring, and although it is good for the kids' language development,
I would like to be able to switch roles with the teacher from time to time. " (LA 12)
"One week I sat in the hall, 14 of my 16 hours." (LA 3)
"I am pulling students out for Trinity practice." (LA 13)
"I don't like going outside the classroom all the time ..." (LA 5)

In order to confirm the LAs desire to participate more in their classes, the questionnaire directly asked if they would like to be more active. Over 50% of the respondents would have liked to be more involved. In terms of revealing information about the LA role and what LAs would have liked, the following excerpts demonstrate the LAs willingness and desire to give more to the program.

"When I am given responsibility for a chapter or specific lesson,
I enjoy preparing for it, teaching it, following through with it. When
I feel like a useful and contributing member of the team."(LA1)
" I enjoyed the few times when I had the freedom to create my
own lesson and deliver it." (LA 7)
"I had no ownership of what I did, the teachers told me exactly what
to do and rarely asked for my input." (LA 8)
"I came here to work, not sit and occasionally read instructions, or
pronounce words when the teacher asks, but then I never say anything
with all the grammatical and vocabulary errors, which the students
then REPEAT...It is beyond frustrating." (LA 15)

Almost all of the respondents would like more communication with the teachers with whom they collaborate. It can be assumed that participants feel that more communication with the HT could lead to more positive interaction and most importantly, being included and participating in class. Three participants noted that the lack of communication led to their 'least' favorite aspect of the job; 'leading the class with no preparation.' In response to what the LAs liked least about their job, nearly all respondents commented on working in an unplanned manner. The following quotes illustrate the LAs response to what they like least about their job:

" Having to improvise class on the fly (true of all seven teachers)" (LA 11)
"The way I get put on the spot to teach the class with no warning." (LA 7)
"He (the HT) never informed me of what we would be doing, so I didn't
feel confident about teaching." (LA 10)

From the LA perspective it seems that there is an expectation gap, where LAs feel that they would have benefited from more ownership and participation with their classes. Moreover, those who participated in nearly all activities, in a meaningful way, marked more positive responses on the survey.

The survey also revealed that LAs depend highly on HTs to designate classroom roles. It seems that once a role, and the corresponding functions and tasks were defined, participants noted more positive collaborations.

"Now I feel very included and useful, but it has taken some time to
get to this point, because in the beginning each teacher had their
own concept of what our functions were supposed to be, or had
erroneous ones." (LA 3)
"I like working with the first and second grade teacher. She has
worked with LA in the past. She knows how to utilize us. She makes
me feel like an integral part of the classroom, and I know what she

expects of me.” (LA 10)

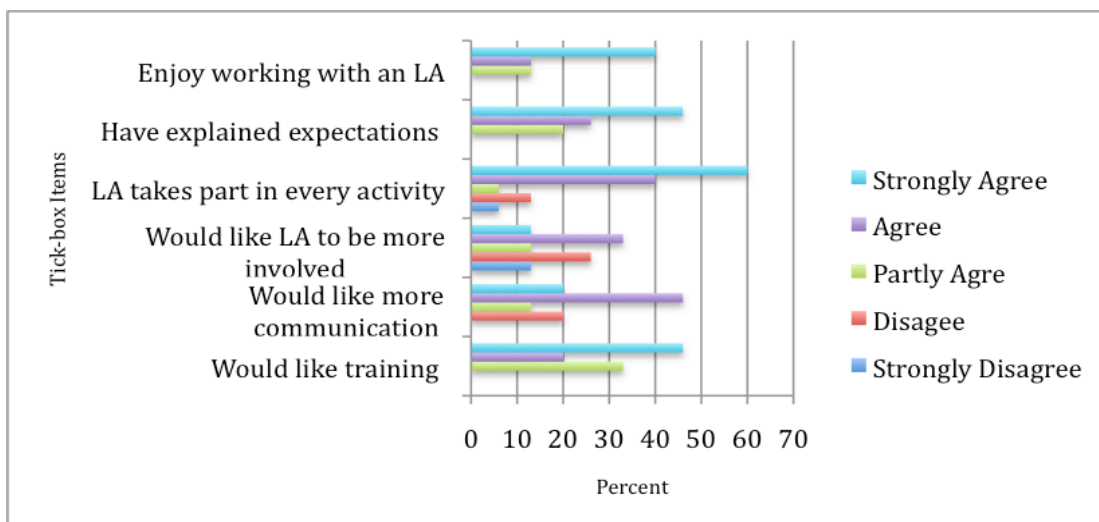
The results presented in this section confirm the anecdotal accounts from the LA’s perspective of wanting to be included in a more meaningful way in the classroom. The LA pilot questionnaire has shown that many LAs have qualifications and experience, beyond their ‘native speaker’ status, which are not being utilized by the collaborating HTs. Additionally, those who don’t have specific teacher training or experience, seem to have a desire to contribute in a more significant manner. The results also show that the largest areas in need of improvement fall in the categories of collaborative planning and classroom integration.

4.1.2 Results and Discussion of the HT Pilot Questionnaire

The data from the Head Teacher/Tutor (HT) section will be presented similarly to the results of the LA data. Once the quantitative data has been presented, it will again be highlighted with quotes taken directly from the HT qualitative remarks. Later, a synthetic analysis will be made, in an effort to link the HT and LA segments of the pilot questionnaire.

The HT population demographics were much more heterogeneous than the LA group. All teachers were of Spanish nationality and speak English as an L2. They are all primary teachers, who have degrees in education, and teach in bilingual public primary schools. The gender distribution was that of 23% male (3 subjects) and 77% female(12 subjects). In terms of age, the average was 35, with the youngest at 23, and the oldest at 55. Within the bilingual school initiative, the participants have participated in the program for an average of 3 years.

Reflecting back on the pilot questionnaire, it would have been very beneficial to ask the HT population if they had received any training in collaborative pedagogical strategies, or any form of training/furthering education on team teaching. This would have allowed for a comparative analysis in terms of correlation between those who most utilize the LA and feel that the LA program is beneficial for all stakeholders and those who have been trained in collaborative teaching methods. The following table presents the data taken from the quantitative tick-box component of the HT Pilot Questionnaire presented in percentages.



Graphic 4.2 HT Pilot Questionnaire Opinion Results

The first item presented in the data demonstrates the positive affiliation HTs have with the LA program. Nearly all respondents agreed to varying extents that they enjoy working with an LA. One responder noted that this year they highly enjoy collaborating with an LA, yet ‘in other occasions not so much’. The data shows that HTs enjoy having LA for two main reasons. First, they model ‘native’ language, through which most HTs feel that they are key players in ‘correct pronunciation.’ Second, LAs can be cultural ambassadors who provide insights on their respective cultures.

“They are essential for children to listen to a native speaker and for teachers a great help in terms of language.” (HT 4)

“They help me with the language and we can be a team.” (HT 9)

Some participants noted that due to the ‘English-only’¹⁸ norm, students and teachers are forced to use English. Teachers feel that this forced output is beneficial for their students’ L2 acquisition.

“The students are highly motivated with the LA. They make our students use English as much as possible and provide real opportunities to speak the target language.” (HT 9)

“Our LA makes the kids speak English, with me they switch to Spanish, because they know I speak Spanish, but with X, they try and try in English, it is like she says, Awesome!” (HT 15)

Through further analysis, a discrepancy emerged whereby the data shows that 100% of the HTs enjoy having an LA, was not reinforced through the qualitative comments. In the open-ended part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked *what has been your experience with the LA program?* The following quotes reflect the difficulties HTs face with the LA scheme.

“In the beginning I didn’t know how to work with the LA, but little by little I have learnt to take advantage of them.” (HT 1)

“I am about to start a new stage. I have committed some mistakes and must overcome these difficulties.” (HT 6)

“The first two years the LA abandoned the program and it was rather frustrating.” (HT 7)

“I didn’t take advantage of the first two auxiliares.” (sic)

“The experience has not been exactly the appropriated that I wanted.” (sic)(HT 11)

The following item shown in graphic 4.2 reflects responses concerning expectation management. In an evaluation of the LA Program, conducted for the Regional Educational Department (*Consejería de Educación*) for the Autonomous Community of Madrid (Hibler and O’Byrne 2009), LAs noted with high frequency that there were unaware of what was expected of them. As shown in the LA data presented above, many LAs have good intentions in assisting and participating, yet are unsure as to how to go about this. Thus, it was important to ask the HTs, if they spoke to LAs about their expectations for them. All of the subjects responded that had spoken to the LA about expectations. Only one respondent elaborated on this issue stating:

¹⁸ In the *Jornadas de formación* (Training Sessions) for the LA, there are various presentations where LAs are highly recommended to not speak Spanish with any of the children, and moreover to ‘act’ as if they don’t speak Spanish (see O’Byrne and Hibler 2009).

“I send them a document in summer telling them about the program, the school, the children, our expectations, the weather, the clothes they should bring.....” (HT 4)

The items in the tick-box component concerned LA in-class involvement. A large majority, 60%, strongly agreed that the LA participated in most activities. Interestingly, 67% marked that they would like the LA to be more involved in class. These two statistics show somewhat of a contradiction in that if the majority of the HTs feel the LA is involved in most activities, then there should be a lesser degree of HTs wanting the LA be more involved. Thus, as the data reveals an expectation gap must exist in terms of the LA’s manner of participating. It could be assumed the HTs feel that although the LA is participating, they hope for more or a different form of participation. The comments presented below give way to one of the most divisive elements in terms of HTs’ perspectives on the role the HT plays in facilitating LA involvement.

“I think that they [LA] are as involved as they want to be. Only some are lazy. In many cases teachers don’t know what to do with them and they are part of the furniture. What a pity!” (HT 4)

“If you help them[LAs] they do [participate in most activities].” (HT 4)

“They are not prepared to deal with kids....Although you give them instructions related to the things they should do outside ...they don’t do it unless you remind them. They are not really involved with the students...” (sic) (HT 3)

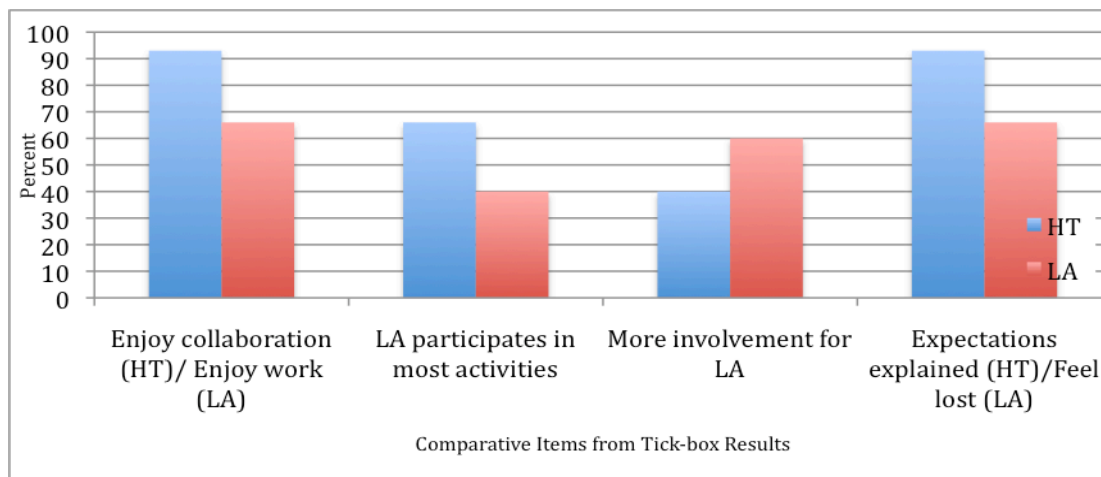
“The LA sees you teach something, then you say you teach it to one children, then the LA says to the children, repeat yellow, then after one minute sits down.” (sic) (HT 1)

These quotes reflect the diverse opinions of the HTs concerning LA contribution. The data shows that some HTs feel that it is their role to integrate and guide the LA, while others feel that the LA should take more individual initiative in becoming an active member of the class. These quotes demonstrate the diversity in the functions in which LAs take part. Whereas others feel that they LA doesn’t follow their instruction to satisfactory results.

The last two items in the tick-box demonstrate the subjects’ desire and intention to better the existing team teaching situation within the CAM context. The data reflects a desire for better communication among 80% of the respondents, and 100% of the respondents would like some form of training in team teaching.

4.1.3 Comparative Results of the HT and the LA Pilot Questionnaire

In order to compare the results from both questionnaires, the data presented above has been synthesized whereby corresponding questions from both questionnaires demonstrate both perspectives simultaneously. The most salient issues found in the pilot questionnaire are presented in graphic 4.3 in a comparative format. In order to create the synthetic results graph, the quantitative results from above have been tabulated in specific regards to the corresponding questions. The responses are shown in percentages.



Graphic 4.3 Comparative Results of the HT and LA Pilot Questionnaire

As the first item shows, program contention rates are higher for HTs than LAs. Nearly all, 92% of HTs enjoy working with an LA, whereas only 65% of LAs enjoy their work. In a further analysis of the LA data, it was found that those who were least content with the LA program, had the highest educational and professional pedagogical experience. This was a surprising finding, as many HTs mentioned that they felt problems arose due to the lack of teaching experience of the LA. Yet, the data reveals the opposite; that the more qualified the LA, the less they enjoy their work. This could be correlated to the notion that the ‘qualified’ LA has higher expectations in terms of classroom procedure and didactic activities. Moreover, it could be assumed that those who were more qualified would have liked to participate more since they have experience in the field. These findings uncover a fundamental issue in the CAM context, whereby HTs feel that due to the LAs lack of experience their TT situation is not always the most desired, yet as the findings prove, the problems seem to be found in area of cohesion and not in experience. The origin of team cohesion issues is most likely found in the lack of collaborative training for HTs and LAs.

At this point it is important to revert to some of the difficulties inherent to collaborative teaching. As mentioned in Chapter 2, one hurdle team teachers must surmount is the presence of another teacher (adult) in the class with them. This is further complicated in the CAM context, due to the fact there is a new dynamic in the HT’s classroom; the Target language (TL) they teach now has a native speaker in the class. This can create tension both in terms of language and didactic performance. Some HTs feel that the LA creates an extra effort for them and that at times their presence is unwanted. This unwanted presence coupled with a lack of training in collaborative pedagogy, often leads to the LA working outside the class (often in the hall), in a ‘pullout’ method (see section 4.2.1.1).

“It can be hard on certain occasions to have them [LAs] in the classroom on those days when nothing seems to go right and you feel so ashamed of your performance that you wish they were not there.” (HT 7)

The second comparative item presented in table 4.3 exposes the contradicting data between both participants in regards to LA classroom participation. 73% of HTs stated that the LA was involved in nearly all in-class activities, whereas only 46% of LAs marked that they were indeed involved. These numbers reflect the need for an

evaluation from both sides as to what exactly LAs do in class, and how those LAs who are actually involved in nearly all activities are integrated.

The third comparative item shows nearly equal responses from both subjects in regards to wanting more LA involvement. This statistic confirms both populations would like more collaboration and involvement. Interestingly, this questionnaire demonstrated how HTs are struggling to get the results they would like, results that would feasibly lead to higher LA contribution, and more satisfied collaboration relationships.

“Sometimes we [HT] don’t know how to integrate them into the bilingual program.” (HT 9)

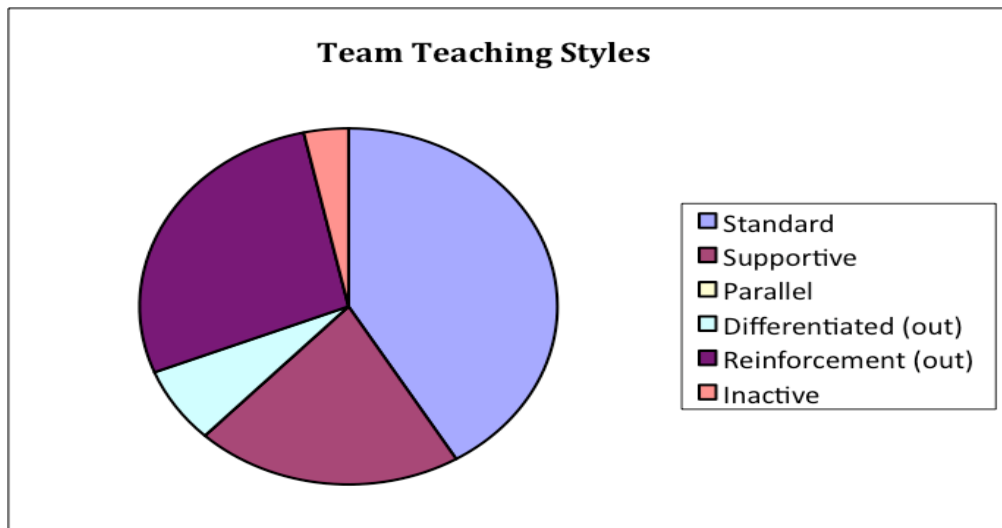
The last comparative analysis reveals one of the most interesting findings. The data reveals that nearly all HTs have explained to the LA what they expect of them in terms of roles and functions, and yet 74% of LAs feel lost ‘at times’ in the class. This data is alarming in that clearly miscommunications are occurring between HTs and LAs. This could be due to the lack of concise roles for LAs, thus a guide for both subjects prescribing ways in which the LA should or could be utilized in the classroom is urgently needed.

4.2 Observation and Interviews

The results of the pilot questionnaire were used in the development of the subsequent research proceedings; observations and interviews. The research tools employed for classroom observations both online and in-class will be used to present and analyze the overriding research questions. Parts of the subsequent research tool, interviews, will be used to illuminate instances of good practice in this section, yet will be used primarily as focus in the implications section (see Chapter 5). With that said, the results presented below, follow the order of the research manual grid (see section 3.4.1), especially in the category of methodology. The results, which pertain to the SLA part of the grid, are presented in a more summative format, whereby instances of good practice are described more qualitatively than quantitatively.

4.2.1 Team Teaching Styles

One of the overriding queries of team teaching (TT) in general, and specifically in the context of this dissertation, is that of, the specific role of each teacher in team-taught classes (Mahoney 2004, Weiss and Lloyd 1992). In particular, within the CAM context, are the unique roles assumed by the HTs (nonnative teachers) and LAs (native speakers) while working together. Collaboration between HTs and LAs can be broken down into various facets, whereby one factor influences another factor. For example, first and foremost, the style of team teaching (for definitions see section 2.4.1) implemented by the teachers, will influence didactic methods, which in turn also will bring out the benefits of each teacher (see section 2.4.3), and will influence the discourse functions of both teachers. It is to say, that the process of breaking down the benefits and implications of TT begins with the collaborative methodology used by the teachers. The following paragraphs demonstrate how TT in ‘illuminatory instances’ (Holliday 2002) is undertaken in the CAM. Graphic 4.4 presents the results of the Team Teaching Styles, which were tallied on the observation manual grid.



Graphic 4.4 Team Teaching Styles¹⁹

In the observed classes, most HTs varied the TT styles within in given class period, so that some activities were done in a standard format others in a supportive. The varied forms of TT seem to stem from the didactic style of the activity being carried out by the learners. Graphic 4.4 reveals that standard team teaching is the predominate style of TT within the observed classes. In this style, both collaborators lead and support simultaneously, and must be intuitive in reinforcing the other. Thus, standard team teaching may be considered the most difficult style to implement as complete teamwork, compromise and communication are required for success.

Moreover, as many times lessons do not follow the intended lesson plan, this form of TT requires that teachers be flexible, spontaneous, and in some regard be complementary in both style and personality. This style of TT was most prominent in classrooms where the HT and LA had worked together the previous year. It was noted during observation, that teachers in these classes were constantly communicating and many times instructions were given aloud, so that the HT and LA knew what would happen next, simply by stating the orders. For example, as students were finishing one activity, the HT introduced the next activity by stating that the LA would be reviewing the homework as the HT would be circulating checking the homework. At that point, the LA took the indication of the teacher, picked up the teacher's manual and began her part of the lesson. This style of TT demonstrates the importance of role exchange, from leading to supporting and vice-versa, which is an important facet of standard TT.

In standard TT, the designation of the leader and supporter role for the HT/LA was quite transparent. In a given activity the HT might start as the leader, then the LA takes over, thus the leader/supporter role changes constantly. In the supportive style of TT, this leader/supporter role is much less exchangeable. This style of TT is more rigid in role exchange, as one teacher leads 'their' activity. The observed lessons revealed equal distribution of HTs and LAs leading activities. In some cases, the LA led while the HT circulated answering questions and monitoring behavior. In others the LA circulated and helped individual students quietly as the HT led instruction. Via observation, this style of TT was seen to be very beneficial for students, as the supporter teacher facilitates individual questions, keeps students on task, and can repeat and recast errors

¹⁹ The styles presented in graphic 4.4 have been adapted from Maroney (1995). The styles marked with *out* refer to the pull-out style of team teaching (see section 4.2.1.1)

as they move about the classroom. For the teacher who is leading the activity, this style of TT could be considered easier to plan and implement, as the leader is solely in charge of presenting the material, and thus relies less on the other team member.

Within the supportive style of TT, one negative feature, inactivity, was salient in observation. In this form of TT, it is feasible that the supporting teacher can take on an inactive role. In the online observation, one video exposed the severity of support teacher inactivity. The video revealed a situation where an LA spoke less than four minutes in a clip of nearly 18 minutes. The remainder of the time the LA stood at the side of the class completely inactive. Unfortunately these participants could not be contacted for interviews, thus it cannot be speculated as to why such a lack of collaboration existed. It can be assumed that this scenario is not far from commonplace, as indeed results from pilot questionnaire show that many LAs are not active in the classroom.

In general, the in-class observation exhibited much less subject inactivity. Most cases of LA inactivity were found when classes were primarily guided by textbook and workbook activities. In some cases it was observed that LAs did not have a textbook, and were thus unable to adequately participate in this in-class activity. In another case, an LA was observed ‘hesitating’ to get involved. When interviewing this subject, the LA noted that she didn’t know what to do when there was down time. She felt that the HT gave such specific instructions for her role in most activities that if she were to act without being instructed she might do something the HT didn’t like. When interviewing the collaborating HT, the HT noted that this LA lacked initiative in circulating and helping the students. When asked if she has ever mentioned what she wanted to the LA, she said that she had, and that the LA said all she had to do was tell her. Thus the HT felt that the LA needed too much guidance in the classroom. This problematic area was highly salient in the pilot questionnaire as well. It seems that when a HT is overly active in planning the LA’s role, the LA may perceive this planning as control, and have an undesired negative reaction to the planning, whereby the LA feels that their role is dependant on the HT’s specific instruction. Moreover, HTs seem to view ‘waiting for instruction’ as a lack of ambition. In other classes where the HTs were more open to the LA’s performance of the planned activity, a more complementary dynamic was observed between teachers. Moreover, some HTs noted that they gave instant feedback to the LA when there was conflictive area of either role or methodology.

4.2.1.1 Pullout Styles

The styles mentioned above all take place with the LA and HT present in the same classroom. The in-class observation discovered that in the CAM context ‘pullout’ team teaching is quite common, which was also supported by results from the pilot questionnaire. Pullout team teaching was observed as a style of TT where the LA works most frequently with individual students or with small groups in a separate location, i.e. in the hall or in a different classroom. This style of TT was not mentioned in the literature provided in Chapter 2 as it is debatable if it is truly TT. Debate aside, this style of TT must be analyzed as it was found to be prominent and more importantly problematic in the observed classes and mentioned various times in the pilot questionnaire.

In the pilot questionnaire many HTs mentioned that they struggled with integrating the LA into the classroom. As previously mentioned, putting two adults together in a class does not directly lead to successful collaboration. TT can be very difficult to implement and requires compromise from both teachers. Through the observations and interviews, it was noted that many times, pullout TT occurs when there is a lack of compromise on behalf of the HT, or when the HT feels the LA is truly incompetent in the classroom. In these cases the LA does reinforcement activities in a separate location, allowing the teacher to work on an individual basis. In this way, the HT mustn't plan too much for the LA role, (as witnessed in one case, an LA was given a book, and told to read and discuss it with all the students, this activity occupied a full work week for an LA). Moreover, some HTs feel that two teachers in the classroom are not beneficial and that the 'extra' help (the LA) could be capitalized upon by giving students one-to-one or small group interaction with a native speaker. Although this may be true, good practice shows that one-to-one attention can be facilitated in the classroom if planned correctly via group work/pair activities.

Additionally, the LA interview component revealed that while working in a pullout style, three 'issues' typically arose. First the LA experienced problems with behavior management, second, the LA was unsure of the exact objectives and procedures for the activities, and third, the LA lacked the material necessary to complete the activity. In following up on these 'grievances' the LAs noted that most of the hall work is exclusively planned by the HT, and thus they feel 'put on the spot' in that they have not reviewed the activity before working with the students. This in turn, means that if there are doubts about how the activity should be executed, there is no time for questions. Also, LAs commented on the lack of materials or space for their work. One LA commented that spend half their time 'looking for an unoccupied classroom' and another noted that they must 'hunt for tables and chairs' every time they leave the classroom. Interestingly, some LAs mentioned how they could have made more of an impact on the students by adding realia or flashcards to their hall work, but since they were unaware of the activity, they lacked the 'additional' materials.

Moreover, the negative effects stemming from pullout methods were observed on various levels. First, for students, pullout methods appear to be disruptive and hinder continuity in learning. In the observed classes, when students would leave and enter, there was a bit of chaos as to who went to the hall, followed by questions about what page the rest of the class was on, questions on subject specific vocabulary that had already been defined, and in general disorientation about the given lesson. Moreover, each time a group left or entered it took at least a minute for the teacher to refocus the students on the topic, which could be seen as time wasted.

Second, HTs who work in pullout styles miss the opportunity for the personal development both linguistically and pedagogically which an LA can bring. Linguistically, LAs give on the spot contextual learning for teachers, have native intuition, and can expand most topics with their large active vocabularies. Pedagogically, as the pilot questionnaire revealed many LAs have educational experience, and those without experience can contribute as they are engrained with their native culture educational knowledge. Moreover as LAs typically work with many HTs, they are constantly observing diverse pedagogic styles, which HTs never see, as peer-observation is not a common practice. Moreover, as LAs work in different levels and in different content areas, they are able to make connections with other classes. In one of

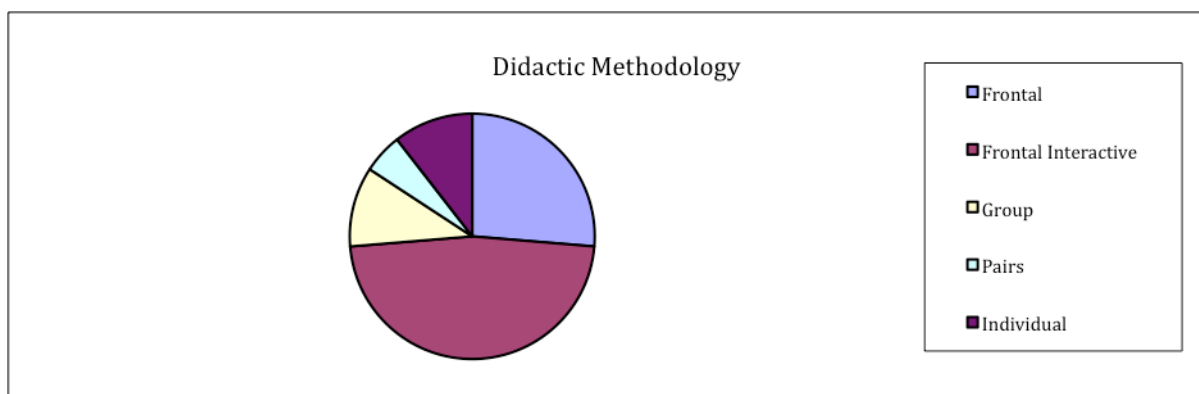
the observed schools, HTs and LAs have capitalized on the unique situation of the LA to connect cross-curricular and cross-level activities. In an interview one LA mentioned how she was able to reinforce the science vocabulary in physical education. She also mentioned how the projects she did with 5th grade were presented in the 3rd and 4th grades. This connection between different classes and different levels heightens feelings of community and brings bilingualism alive.

Third, some LAs commented that they ‘dislike’ this style as they find it repetitive and feel it distances them from the class. As the pilot questionnaire confirmed, most LAs desire more integration and to be part of the larger classroom environment not to be ‘in the hall.’ Many times LAs complain that the hall is disruptive for the students, and is either a place to ‘goof-off’ or ‘going to the hall’ can be seen as a punishment. Later in section 4.3.2 a unique pullout method will be discussed, yet as the observation has shown in, best practice can be found in diversifying TT methods, and limiting pullout styles.

Diversification of TT styles can be seen as positive aspect of HT-LA collaboration, as it yields benefits for all involved. For HTs, the use of diversified styles can lessen the ‘perceived’ burden of TT; more planning. By using different teaching styles, HTs can take advantage of the LA giving more, as they will play a more active role if they are ‘allowed’ to. The term ‘allowed’ is used as many times LAs would like to be more active in class, but feel the HT doesn’t take advantage of this desire. Thus, it was observed that HTs who use different methods (especially out-of-the-text activities) and show more HT-LA role reversal experienced a more meaningful LA contribution and more classroom integration of the LA.

4.2.2 Didactic Methods

The different TT styles revealed diverse levels of HT and LA participation and integration, so too do the didactic methods employed in the classroom. Didactic methodology refers to theory and formulation of activities to guide learning as led by teachers and carried out by students. The following graphic and discussion demonstrate ways in which HTs facilitate LA integration by diversifying teaching methods.



Graphic 4.5 Didactic Methodology

Graphic 4.5 reveals the didactic methods employed in the observed classes.²⁰ Surprisingly, the most prevalent method was not included in the observation manual. Frontal teaching, where communication between teacher and pupils is at the forefront, and cooperation of the pupils with each other is limited, was too restricting for the typical in-class methods that were observed. In typical frontal teaching, teachers-talk is much higher in quantity than in the observed classes. Thus, the field entitled ‘frontal interactive’ was created due to the demand of the classes. In these classes, the HT and/or LA lead(s) the class with significant contribution from the students. Moreover, although students were not formally working in groups, collaboration amongst students arose spontaneously throughout lessons. This style of teaching was observed to facilitate successful standard TT where teachers were able to exchange lead/support roles throughout the lesson. This format seemed to be less structured and allowed for more student input, which in turn was addressed by either of the teachers.

In the more teacher-fronted style, indicated as ‘frontal’ in the graphic, standard TT was less prevalent as this style follows a more conventional method whereby teacher-talk is predominant and lessons are expounded in a more structured manner. Frontal activities facilitated supportive TT with the HT and LA taking on specific roles in each activity. Moreover this style of teaching favored textbook instruction, where use of realia was limited.

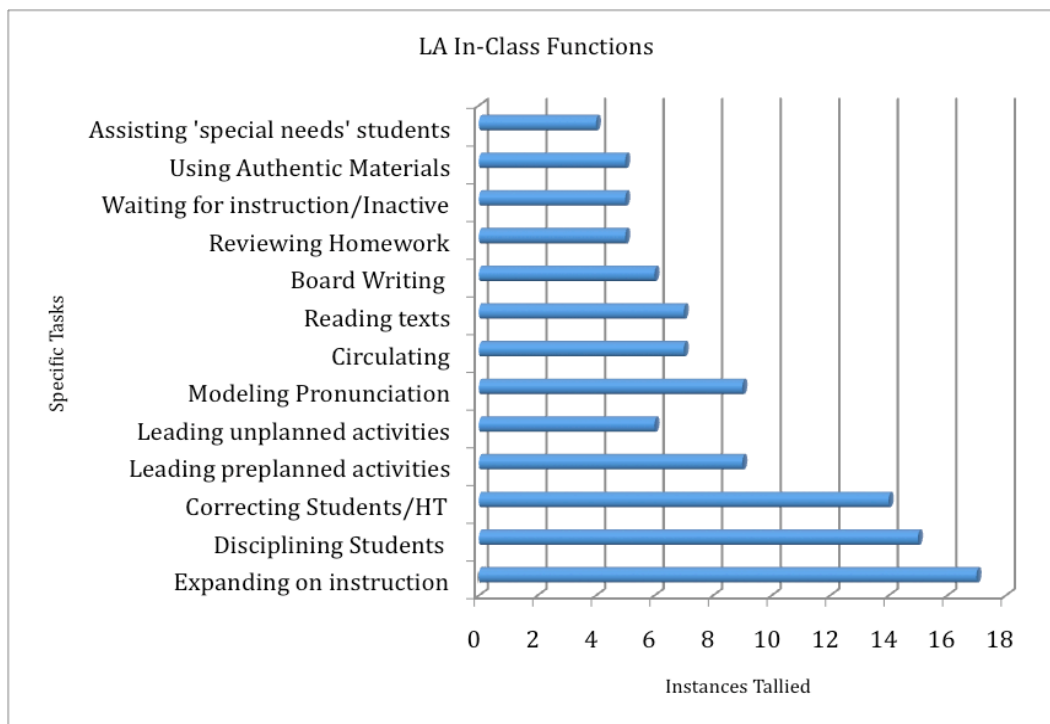
The graph shows relatively low results in terms of group and pair work. During observation, activities that were done in groups or pairs were noteworthy for the high levels of student motivation and L2 production. In one such class, students worked in groups to guess which animals had given features. In order to demonstrate how the activity could be done, the HT and LA modeled the activity for the students via role play. During the activity, the HT and LA circulated the room to support and reward the students. Such activities are key in CLIL settings. Group work leads to oral production practice and promotes cognitive and social development. Organizing and maintaining students working in groups can be difficult, there is less teacher control (which positively leads to more autonomous learning), more noise, and it may seem unruly and unorganized when compared to frontal learning, yet with two teachers circulating, the benefits of such styles are exceptional. In the observed classes, students working in groups/pairs were using the L2 in novel ways, asking for help in the L2, and seemed to be highly engaged in the activities.

The smallest segment of the pie chart reveals that individual activities were the least utilized in the observed lessons. During these activities, both HTs and LAs took the time to plan future activities and to circulate in order to help students. Most classes had a range of different activities which allowed for different HT and LA roles during a given class period.

4.2.3 LAs and Classroom tasks

One of the specific research questions, taken from the results of the pilot questionnaire, dealt with actual functions carried out by the LA during class. Graphic 4.6 lists the various LA functions that were observed. Tasks were marked in a tally format.

¹ In observations where pullout styles occurred, results were not included in this graphic, as they cannot be observed as TT, but rather two classes in separate locations unable to be observed simultaneously.



Graphic 4.6 Specific LA Functions

Graphic 4.6 describes the precise tasks of LAs in class based on instances tallied in the observation manual. As with the results mentioned above, the items in the graph are dependent upon both the style of TT and the didactic activities of the learners. The graph shows that LAs are involved in many classroom tasks. As most of the graph is self-explanatory and in general exhibits positive functioning of LA's in class activity, only two items of this graph will be specifically discussed in this section as this graphic will be referenced in subsequent sections.

4.2.3.1 Discipline

First, the most salient feature of this graphic is the role the LA plays in discipline, specifically because the LA handbook states that LAs should not take part in discipline. It is argued that via the observation undertaken for this work, they do participate in discipline. What is more, for an LA to collaborate effectively, they must be included in the class discipline system. For an LA to have respect and to be able to impact the students, both HTs and LAs that were interviewed noted how important discipline was for every function. In the observed classes, both teachers were disciplining students in class for minor behavioral issues, such as talking, name calling, cutting in line, etc, and the HT took on a more authoritative role for serious behavioral issues like swearing, insulting, fighting, where further action was needed.

4.2.3.2 Error Correction

Second, error correction was observed as another significant function of the LA. In the pilot questionnaire, most LAs noted that they were uncomfortable correcting both the HT and students' L2 errors. In general terms native speaker teachers tend to be more lenient in L2 correction than native speakers (see section 2.4.3). The interviews revealed that many times HTs would like the LA to correct the students more. They felt that the LAs were not 'doing their job' as native speakers in correcting the student's oral errors. Yet, by nature the LA may not feel comfortable or doesn't find it necessary to correct as such. The graphic above shows many instances of LA correction, which it must be

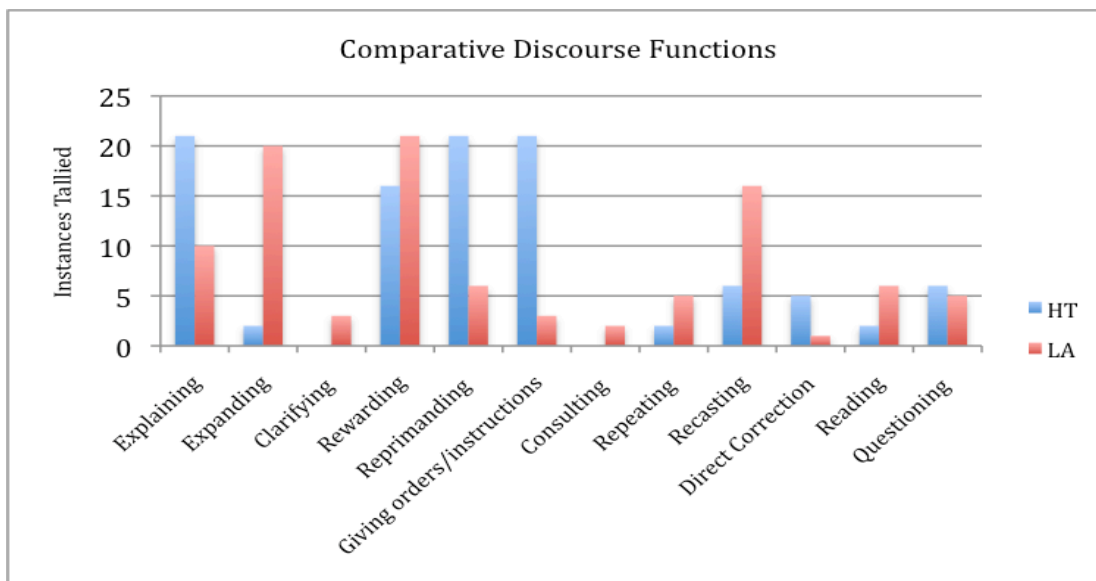
noted occurred almost always as recasts and not in a direct method. The interview subjects noted that they corrected when errors led to miscommunication or when communication was impeded by the error. Many times LAs recasted students' grammatical errors, yet they didn't ask them to repeat the corrected recast.

In terms of the HT language errors, the role of the LA is more complicated. For LAs witnessing HT errors, the pilot questionnaire uncovered that problems abound. In illuminatory cases, HTs indicated that having an LA in class benefited their L2 development. They noted that from the start they gave the LA specific instructions to correct them when they made mistakes. By giving specific indication and recognizing that they would make errors and that they were happy to have the LA to help them, the collaborating LAs were able to greatly impact the HT's language growth. Moreover, the HTs and LAs were able to create a format for error correction which would be neither discomfoting for the HT nor impede classroom functioning. In one best practice scenario, pronunciation errors were addressed on the spot in a recasted manor; where the LA would use a certain voice to indicate there was a pronunciation error and that they were not just repeating important information. On the other hand, usage and grammatical errors were noted and addressed later.

The proceeding subsection presents findings in the discursive features of both subjects. One of the discourse functions studied falls directly into the frame of error correction. Graphic 4.7 demonstrates of LAs prefer "recasts", where incorrect items are restated by the teacher in a corrected version, to "direct corrections". The graphic also highlights HTs use of "direct correction". Moreover, on various occasions, students were observed communicating directly with the LA employing various grammatical and lexical errors which went unacknowledged and uncorrected. The graph confirms previous studies concerning NS and NNS error correction styles (Braine 1999, Canagarajah 1999). Again, these may be issues of cultural norms that are indeed relevant and in need of further study the CAM context. It should be noted that there is very little published research on cultural issues in bilingual/bicultural team teaching settings.

4.2.4 Discourse functions of the HT and LA

Furthering the question of the specific roles of the LA in class, part of the observation manual was designed to evaluate the diverse discourse functions of the LA and the HT. The notion of discourse function used here refers to the communicative purpose of an interlocutor (i.e. HT or LA) in an interactional event (i.e. classroom). Drawing on related terms such as discourse strategies (Wade and Fauske 2004) and the importance of politeness in classroom discourse (Cazden 2001), this preliminary analysis aimed at revealing what type of relationship is co-constructed between the HT, LA and students. The taxonomy employed for the diverse discourse functions was guided by Dalton-Puffer (2007) and was then adapted based on data-driven observation. The following graphic reflects tallied instances of HT and LA discourse as were recorded in the observation manual.



Graphic 4.7 Comparative Discourse Functions of HT and LA

The graphic illuminates the variety of discourse functions for both the HT and LA. Where HT discourse strongly resides in four categories, namely explaining, rewarding, reprimanding, and giving orders and/or instructions, LA discourse is more diverse in function. The three most prominent LA discourses coincide with various theories on ways to promote L2 acquisition (Krashen 1985a). First, discourse that falls in the areas of expanding, clarifying²¹, repeating and recasting facilitates higher quantities of comprehensible input, allowing students to receive data various times and/or in different ways. Moreover LAs show high regard for rewarding students, which is linked to higher levels of motivation.

More specifically, LA's most frequent discourse function was expanding on either HT instruction or expanding on instructional materials. Expanding is a broad term which can be used as a way of scaffolding the given material in books, videos or graphics and taking it to another level by developing on the basic level or textbook definition of contents. The LAs, who function without L2 barriers, are key resources in expanding the language to express the content, by using their larger active vocabulary to reinforce with synonyms, paraphrases, or with extended discourse. Similar results have been observed in the JET-Context, where native speaking assistants act 'spontaneously' when expanding on subject and language issues (Carless 2006).

To exemplify this specific discourse function, in one observed lesson, the LA was explaining sexual reproduction and was describing the physical changes which males undergo. In addition to what was given in the book, the LA pointed to her throat and mentioned that she didn't have a ball in her throat, and went on to tell the students that men have an Adam's apple. The students were able to make a connection to Adam as the man in the bible and apple as the ball in his throat, which they found quite humorous and interesting. The HT later noted that she was unaware of the word in English and found the LA's story about Adam and his Apple quite effective in learning about bodily changes, which were not found in the book.

²¹ Clarifying is different from expanding in that it is used to simplify or disambiguate either content or language mishaps/errors.

The graphic also yields interesting findings in the category “discipline”, itemized in the graphic as ‘reprimands’. As graphic 4.6 indicated the LAs are very much a part of discipline, however the converse is demonstrated in graphic 4.7, whereby LAs show low instances of reprimanding discourse. Through further analysis, it can be seen that the LA and HT discipline styles are very different. This may be linked to cultural and pragmatic differences between English and Spanish. Most HTs were very vocal in disciplining students. Thus, many times reprimands would be exhaustive and from the stand point on the LA (and their cultural norms, rather ‘humiliating’). HTs used loud voices, slamming of hands on desks, and even the strong ‘shut up’ as a way of reprimanding students. On the other hand, LAs were much less severe, and used more nonverbal strategies (such as the finger to the mouth shhh-sign, raised eyebrows) and employed strategies of negotiation.

From the interviews, a significant cultural ‘mishap’ was found where HTs see the LA’s discipline style as an indicator of their inability to control the class, and where the LAs see the HT’s discipline style as brusque and even offensive, especially since many L1 (Spanish) cultural and linguistic norms are being transferred to the L2. The area of discipline discourse within bilingual settings especially with teams composed of native and nonnative speakers is in need of further research. From the research undergone in this paper, it is recommended that cultural issues within the area of discipline be implemented in teacher training and LA training sessions. Moreover, linguistic training for teachers should include a section of pragmatics, discourse functions, and classroom management language.

Further observations were made regarding the complication of L2 use in an L1 environment, which is commonplace in CLIL practice. Graphic 4.7 exhibits the high frequency of HT’s use of commands. In general, classrooms are rich in command (directive) usage (see Dalton-Puffer and Nikula 2006). In the observed classes, HTs’ pragmatic functions and linguistic realizations, especially when reprimanding and giving orders, revealed direct translation from L1 Spanish to English. Politeness in English, in terms of speech acts differ in their situational ‘appropriateness’ and politeness from the corresponding discourse in Spanish (Janney and Ardnt 1992, Pinto 2008). The observation and subsequent interviews showed that HTs seem to use English commands as they would Spanish commands with the resulting pragmatic failure as the following examples show:

- “Do you want to shut up?” (HT to chatty student)
- “Tell me.” (HT addressing a student’s question)
- “X is in the moon, not paying the attention, and acting like a silly.” (sic)
- “You don’t speak now.” (HT giving a directive for a student to be quiet)

One of the most problematic issues related to the HT’s pragmatic failure is the impact this discourse has on the students. As the excerpts above show, many times pragmatic failures occur during discipline discourse. As reprimands typically target one student, this one type of discourse that is quickly learned and acquired. In the observed lessons, two students were observed calling each other ‘silly’ and telling others to ‘shut up’. This misuse, especially in this sense of ‘rude’ discourse, runs the risk of serious repercussions in the student’s lives after school, for example in intercultural and professional settings. Thus, the role of the LA can be fundamental in modeling correct pragmatic conventions, which coincide with behavior management discourse.

Also, in HT and LA training sessions, these issues should be addressed to lessen the awkwardness of these pragmatic failures while team teaching. For LAs it is important that they are aware of language transfer, and also of the role they can play in modeling correct conventions and discourse. HTs in turn, must be aware of the repercussions of their discourse, as students truly act as sponges in acquiring/modeling their speech patterns. Finally, HTs should be trained in strategies that facilitate the LAs participation in modeling correct pragmatic conventions.

In sum, the three research tools that were employed for this study have uncovered many facets of the functioning of the language assistant scheme within the CAM bilingual schools. One of the most relevant overriding findings is that, although, discrepancies and complaints exist, the overwhelming majority of the stakeholders feel the program is valuable. Moreover the results have demonstrated, that indeed team teaching requires more 'work' in terms of planning and preparation, yet on the other hand, the benefits seem to outweigh the perceived obstacles. The data has revealed that problems arise in terms of putting solid team teaching into classroom practice, due to lack of experience and training for both parties, and not in abilities or desire. The data reveals that the current state of TT can be improved. In the next chapter a further analysis of the data will be used to make concrete recommendations for the LA program stakeholders, especially HTs. Moreover, the given study will be contextualized into greater scheme of TT in bilingual settings whereby larger implications will be expounded.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The aims of this study were to investigate the roles and impact of native-speaking Language Assistants who collaborate with nonnative speaking Teachers, within the bilingual primary schools in the Autonomous Community of Madrid (CAM). At the outset, the main objective was to survey opinions from the actual participants, nonnative head teachers/tutors (HTs) and Native speaking Language Assistants (LAs). These results, in turn, guided this study to be fact-finding in terms of implementation and styles of TT. Moreover, this research has investigated the in-class roles of the HT and LA, in order to identify areas of good practice, and to be problem solving via use of 'Illuminatory instances' (Holliday 2002).

For this purpose the following methodology was employed in order to explore the given context in diverse ways. First, a pilot questionnaire was distributed to 30 subjects, which gathered data on attitudes and experiences of the participants. Second, 10 classroom observations were performed; three online and seven in classrooms at three different schools. Third, six interviews were conducted with the in-class observation subjects. The analysis of the various data collected reveals that in general the HT-LA team teaching combination has positive effects on all stakeholders in the CAM context. In some 'illuminatory cases', used for this study, the implementation of the LA scheme has yielded extremely positive results. In other cases, both HTs and LAs have proven discouraged and disengaged with the practice of TT. It is in this regard, that instances of best practice and analysis of the observations and interviews are intended to be used for all HTs, in order to make their TT experience more beneficial for themselves, the LA with whom they collaborate, and most importantly for their students.

5.1 Implications for teacher education

The data obtained from the pilot questionnaire was used as a focus for the subsequent observations and interviews. It was in this way, that the anecdotal accounts of mutual discontentment with the practice of TT could be reaffirmed via each research tool. The analysis of each of the research tools revealed that many of the problematic issues that were mentioned by HTs and LAs in the pilot questionnaire, had been overcome by some of the observation subjects/interviewees. Interestingly, these participants had found innovative ways to capitalize on their unique situation and individual abilities.

The subsequent bulleted points demonstrate ways in which HTs can maximize the LA resource. Moreover the bullets are intended to be used as suggestions for teacher education, whereby the inherent 'problems' of team teaching can be overcome by employing some of these strategies. The bulleted issues coincide with the most salient issues found in the observations as well as the 'problems' that were mentioned various times by HTs (see Chapter 4).

- **Allowing for planning time**

Both HTs and LAs noted that there was not adequate time for them to plan together, which they feel is necessary in order to collaborate. However, CAM education policy and program organization does not include planning time for collaborating teachers. Thus, innovate ways to find planning time have been created. In the observed lessons, many HTs capitalized on 'free' time during lessons. Free time was found when students were taking out their books, organizing their homework, writing in their agendas, transitioning into new activities, and while working in pairs/groups. During these

periods teachers were observed in ‘mini-meetings’ whereby precise instruction, planning, and pertinent issues were quickly discussed and resolved, in under a few minutes. The utilization of ‘mini-meetings’ has proven quite successful in reducing the need for structured collaborative planning. In order to successfully implement ‘mini-meetings’ both teachers should use a notebook where they keep ideas/issues that can be noted and then addressed in a ‘mini-meeting’. One highly successful HT-LA combination held six ‘mini-meetings’, all under a minute, in one 50-minute lesson. These teachers felt that by constantly communicating, they have lessened the need for structured planning time.

- **Integrating the LA into classroom functions**

The pilot questionnaire revealed that although nearly all HTs feel the LA program is beneficial, many were struggling to integrate the LA resource into their classroom practice. For many reasons, one of which is feasibly the idea that HTs may not know how to utilize the LA, LAs may work in a separate individual manner. This style, previously addressed as ‘pullout’ teaching (see section 4.2.1.1) on various occasions yielded undesired effects for HTs, LAs and students alike. Most LAs felt disconnected from the classroom when most of their time was spent in another location. This in turn had trickle-down affects whereby the LA became quite distanced from the HT, and did only what the HT asked of them. It is to say that, many LAs perceive pullout teaching as the HT not wanting or trying to incorporate them into class. Thus LAs are unwilling to contribute in a more significant way to the program. In order to utilize the LA, diverse styles of TT are recommended, and didactic activities such as role-plays, pair and group work should be implemented in order to take advantage of the benefits two teachers in a classroom can facilitate. Moreover, by diversifying TT styles both HTs and LAs have the opportunity to exchange roles of leader/supporter. Lastly, as seen with cases of best practice in pullout settings, LAs who develop and implement special, yet mandatory, projects have proven that pullout styles can be successful, yet must be implemented cautiously (see section 4.2.1.1).

- **Assigning specific everyday tasks for the LA**

One of the most restricting issues in implementing TT is the lack of necessary planning time. The data found in the results section shows that LAs take on many different roles within the classroom (Graphic 4.6). Within the roles given in class activities it was found beneficial to have set everyday tasks for LAs. These tasks should be meaningful and capitalize of the LA’s oral production benefits. Once a daily task has been assigned, the HT should give informal feedback to the LAs regarding their performance. This is especially beneficial for LAs with little to no experience. Any task the LA takes on, especially during the first few months, should be evaluated and feedback should be given. This will set the stage for a communicative and mutually beneficial TT relationship. Training on giving feedback is recommended for HTs.

For one of the observed TT partnerships, a strategic way to get around the lack of planning time was to designate roles and the corresponding tasks for the LA that occur in every lesson. In the observed lesson, the LA began the day by leading the morning routine. The LA and HT created the morning routine together in an innovative way, which strays from the typical morning routines where a student answers the teachers questions regarding the date and weather. In this routine, the LA acts as a news reporter in collaboration with a student to discuss the weather, the date, the lunch menu, and special school events. In the same class, the LA had the role of homework correction.

Homework correction is always led by the LA, in such a way that the LA knows that this is one of their concrete in-class jobs. By instituting 'everyday jobs' the HT remarked that "it makes my job easier, I know exactly what X will be doing in class, I also get to check small things like handwriting while X is at the board correcting." Thus, designating reoccurring in-class pedagogical roles for the LA can reduce the stress of joint planning and leads to higher levels of LA integration and participation. This format of designated in-class jobs works well for LAs who work with the same group of students on a sustained basis, as they are able to follow the curriculum and know the individual abilities of the students.

- **Creating special 'Cultural' projects in a pullout format**

One of the purposes of the LA Scheme in the CAM bilingual program is to heighten student's intercultural awareness. In fact the LA program is marketed on the Internet as a program where native speakers work as 'Cultural Ambassadors.'²² Yet this cultural role seems to be lacking in actual practice. Results from the interviews showed that LAs do not see themselves as 'cultural ambassadors'. Most of them rarely do cultural activities, other than Halloween and Christmas celebrations. In order to bring the LA's culture to the students, one of the HTs and LAs who participated in my study together created a special reading program that would promote the LA's culture via reading.

In this instance, the LA is responsible of her project, and has created a special area of the library where she works with children. This style of pullout TT, has shown to be beneficial when the LA is responsible for the creation, planning, and implementation of the pullout activities with the guidance of the HT. Nearly all of the LA's time is spent in the 'her' area of the library. Students seem to perceive 'going to library' as a special class, rather than 'hall work.' Moreover, the HT is fully supportive and part of the library, in that the LA records the student's performance and development in library, similar to any curricular subject, and these grades are used in the student's formal evaluations. This special program stimulated LA initiative, which then gave the LA a feeling of both ownership and inclusion in special way.

Moreover special programs like these are 'no-planners' in that the LA has a specific role and really creates their own program. These programs work well in cases where the LA works in many different classes and with many teachers. In cases such as these, the LA may collaborate in a given class only a few hours a week, and thus may not be familiar with the curriculum, the students needs, the especially teaching style of the HT. Thus, these projects allow for both the HT and the LA to be comfortable in their TT situation without having much contact. Lastly, for students, reading has proven fundamental in L2 development, and by combining reading and culture students acquire the two simultaneously (Krashen 1985).

- **Viewing the LAs as team 'teachers'**

Via the pilot questionnaire and through further analysis in interviews, it was concluded that most HTs do not see the LA as an actual teacher. Many HTs have complained the LAs lack knowledge of pedagogy, grammar, and in general are uneasy working with young children. Many HTs have also recommended that the program administrators select only LA's with educational experience or degrees in education. Nevertheless, the data from this thesis showed that many LAs have more experience than what is initially perceived. More importantly, those LAs who had high levels of educational experience

²² See http://www.mec.es/sgci/usa/en/programs/us_assistants/default.shtml

correlated to high levels of program discontentment. Two important issues were observed as essential in resolving the debate about LAs being or not being teachers. First, HTs can model and facilitate that LAs ‘act’ as teachers by coaching them and giving them feedback. One HT mentioned that it was her job to manage the LA, and that as a manager, she motivated and coached the LA. Second, it is crucial that all stakeholders see the LA as a teacher. For an LA to gain the respect of the students, and thus be able to impact their educational growth, the students must feel that the LA is also ‘their’ teacher and shares a similar status.

- **Motivating LAs**

The results reveal that most HTs would like more contribution from the LA. For some LAs, the program may be the first time they have been in a primary school setting since they were students themselves. For others this may be the first time they have ever worked with children. LAs may be unaware as to how they can help, as they may feel completely lost in the context. Thus lack of LA initiative may be more a question of how to help, as opposed to not wanting to contribute. It is for that reason that HTs should save material used/created by previous LAs that can be compiled in resource book format that other LAs can use. Moreover, LAs who are just beginning the program should observe experienced LAs in order to see exact ways in which they can assist students and HTs.

- **Maximizing the LA for meaningful contributions**

Many LAs noted that the HTs did not utilize them to their fullest ability. The notion of utilizing or not utilizing the LA overlaps with some of the previously mentioned issues, such as unclear roles, LAs not being teachers, and LAs lack of initiative. With these issues put to side, teachers have successfully utilized LAs by capitalizing on their unique situation, which has led to positive gains for students and for themselves. Throughout the course of this study, the following methodological and linguistic areas have been observed and analyzed as means for HTs to capitalize on the strengths of the LAs. Data taken from this study demonstrates how LAs can be utilized for methodology and content gains in the following areas:

1. *New Technologies*: As most LAs are young adults they may be apt with new technologies. It is recommended that HTs find out if the collaborating LA is familiar with technological innovations, which can be utilized for ICT projects (Information and Communication Technologies), for searching the web for didactic material, such as educational websites and educational video-clips.
2. *Group Learning*: With two adults in the classroom, group learning and diverse didactic methods are more feasible. In order to capitalize upon this, LA resource LAs should be trained and included in behavior management and should be encouraged to be vocal during group learning activities. One specific group style activity includes experiments. Science experiments can be managed more effectively with two teachers.
3. *Cross-curricular subject areas*: Many LAs collaborate with different HTs across different subject areas. In some cases LAs may work in different subjects with the same students. LAs can be used as a link

in bringing science curricula into other subjects. LAs who work in music, art or physical education have unique position in their presence in both classes. Thus, they should be encouraged to contribute ideas to these classes so that students have the opportunity to learn in a more three dimensional and cross-curricular format.

4. *Peer-observation*: The unique role that the LA has in collaborating with different teachers can be utilized in seeing other forms of teaching. As LAs typically work with different HTs they are able to observe different methods and didactic activities. It is recommended that HTs inquire and discuss with the LA what they do in their other classes, as this can provide a means for sharing ideas, strategies and resources amongst the faculty.

LAs can play a key role in language development in the following ways:

1. *HT language development*: The LA serves a pivotal role in developing the HT's classroom language. LAs possess the pragmatic knowledge and corresponding 'classroom' language that may be of particular interest to HTs. This area of discourse may be unfamiliar to the HT, as the roles of the HT have changed with the CAM program.²³ HTs should be aware of the different language used by the LA, and if possible an open relationship whereby the HT asks for the LAs input on their language development should be encouraged.
2. *Student language*: The data shows that LAs discourse involves a lot of repetition and expanding, these discourse functions should continue to be encouraged. LAs should be trained in error correction strategies, as they have commented on their lack of knowledge on such matters. LAs play a key role in increasing student's output and making interaction meaningful and more frequent. It is recommended that the LA always speak in English with the students.
3. *TL Cultural informants*: Most of the LA's interviewed felt that the term 'cultural ambassador' did not reflect their actual job. LAs can be used to make comparisons and connections between the language and the culture of the L2. It is recommended that special importance be given to the LA in creating comparisons and connections in everyday content.

5.2 Final Remarks

The results of this study have shown that team teaching is viable and feasible in the CAM context. Many of the HT subjects have demonstrated that the LA has become an integral part of their classroom. They have expressed satisfaction with the assistance the LA provides for themselves as teachers, as they enrich the curriculum and provide the

²³ Since the onset of the CAM bilingual school programs HTs teaching roles have changed. Many HTs have become grade-level tutors, instead of specialist teachers, which entails a change in responsibilities, and hence the language that corresponds to such responsibilities and tasks.

overall classroom environment with ‘authenticity.’ Most of the subjects feel that the LAs provide students and themselves with someone with whom they ‘must’ speak English. This necessity has affected the presence of English within the school environment, transforming English from hypothetical language spoken in the classroom, to an authentic language of work and communication. Moreover, HTs felt that since the inception of the LA program their students are producing more elaborate and authentic L2 speech patterns.

In most CLIL contexts, HTs have proven to be the force igniting the transition of English from the isolated L2 classroom language to the language of communication. The HTs who have participated in some or all of the research proceedings of this study have demonstrated an extreme effort in making the bilingual program succeed. This has been witnessed in HTs concise planning, their use of innovative classroom activities, their implementation of authentic materials, the use of peer consulting, sharing materials, and their mutual offering as sounding boards for personal successes and failures. The research undergone for this study has proven the HT subjects are truly invested in the bilingual program, and the work that they are doing, although often unrecognized, is remarkable.

It is on this note, that the original ‘anecdotal accounts’ of mutual dissatisfaction between LAs and HTs are revisited. This study has demystified these ‘naysaying’ accounts, by putting them into a larger context. For HTs, the underlying issue is not a problem with the LA scheme, but rather how to use the LA. Many LAs feel that their presence is not fully utilized and in some cases unwanted, which is predominately not the case. HTs’ have an enormous investment into the program, for which the program has grown and prospered over the past six years, but they are simply not sure how to translate this positive energy into classroom practice with the LA.

Admittedly, some of the problematic issues that were found in the data can only be addressed at the administrative level, yet most of the implications taken from the data correlate to problems that exist at the classroom level. One of the most salient issues in the larger context is that of expectation management. From the onset of the LA experience, it seems that both HTs and LAs have different expectations for the program. LAs are told they will be cultural ambassadors and HTs are instructed to team-teach with an LA, who the educational authorities stress is not a teacher. ‘Job title’ discrepancies may be a factor in creating the mutual mismatch of expectations. It may be beneficial if the official status, and thus perception, of a ‘cultural ambassador’ and ‘conversation assistant’ is modified to simply an assistant teacher. As indeed, successful cases of TT in the CAM context have shown that in practice, this is the job of an LA.

In conclusion, as with any team, communication and compromise are fundamental in attaining positive results. Communication between teachers does not need to be set in a formal manner, but should be informal, continuous, and consistent. Communication can be as simple as a smile to give positive feedback, a head nod to indicate meaning between teachers. The observed HTs and LAs who worked in an extremely collaborative manner were constantly communicating, even if just via eye contact.

In addition to communication, team teaching requires compromise. As one HT stated, “I am no longer the only queen of this classroom.” The addition of the LA to the HT’s classroom is difficult to manage and even more difficult to utilize in a significant

manner. One of the key issues that transpired through this study was whose role and responsibility is to integrate the LA into the classroom. The HT who said that she was no longer the 'only queen', elaborated on this sentiment in referring to her new position as 'manager'. She mentioned the aspect of managing the LA resource to be the leading speaker of the class, yet she felt that at the end of the day, she was the one in control. Interestingly, the LA who collaborates with this HT felt:

“In the end they (an HT) can have the best LA in the world, who has years of experience, tons of ideas, lots of *ganas*²⁴ to help, but this can mean nothing if the HT doesn't use it. Because in the end, it is their class, their students, their career, I'm just a visitor trying to help, and if let me help, and make me want to help, then that is what I'm here for.”

It could be reasoned that this LA is correct in her assumption. LAs come and go; yet their contribution can be significant, if an HT and the LA can effectively collaborate. Again, collaboration comes with communication, and team teaching comes with compromise. These aspects will come in time and are very internal to each person, yet training in team teaching both for LAs and HT will begin to open the doors, and the minds of the teachers in ways to make this unique and truly innovate TT context a model to be followed. Moreover, through training and experience it is hoped that the program will continue to make strides, as the data has confirmed the LA program has the potential to greatly impact the linguistic, curricular, and cultural gains of all those involved.

²⁴ Spanish term for desire or intention

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APPENDICES

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE -UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE MADRID
An Overview of the Language Assistant program within CAM bilingual schools
 Researcher: Abbie Hibler, abbie.hibler@gmail.com

I. Demographics

Name (optional)

Age

Sex

Nationality

University degree

Relevant experience *i.e. TEFL Certificate, Degree in Education, Teaching experience*

How many years have you been a Language assistant (LA)?

What grade levels (ages) do you work with?

How many teachers do you work with?

What subjects do you take part in? *i.e. Science, Physical Education*

II. Program Evaluation

Mark your response from 1 to 5 (5 totally agree, 4 agree, 3 partly agree, 2 disagree, 1 strongly disagree)

	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy my work in the classroom. Comments:					
I feel that the school community has welcomed me. Comments:					
I feel that my presence and my work are valued. Comments:					
I get along well with the teacher/s with whom I work. Comments:					
I know my role in the classroom. Comments:					
I take part in almost every activity in the classroom. Comments:					
I wish the teacher and I had better coordination and communication. Comments:					
I wish I were more involved in the classroom.					

Comments:					
I feel a bit lost at times about what I should be doing in class.					
Comments:					

III. Open-ended responses

What are your general impressions of the CAM bilingual program?

What do you do on a “typical day” in your classes?

What improvements could be made for Language Assistants?

What do you like best about the job?

What do you like least about the job?

What information would you liked to have received before starting or had been part of a training session that you feel would help you (in your daily roles or in general)?

Feel free to include ANY and ALL comments!!!! I will greatly appreciate any opinions you care to share

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE -UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE MADRID
An Overview of the Language Assistant program within CAM bilingual schools
 Researcher: Abbie Hibler, abbie.hibler@gmail.com

I. Demographics

Name (optional)

Age

Sex

How many years have you taught in the bilingual program?

What grade levels (ages) do you teach?

What subjects do you teach? *I.e. Science, Physical Education*

How often do you have a language assistant in your classroom?

II. Program Evaluation

Mark your response from 1 to 5 (5 totally agree, 4 agree, 3 partly agree, 2 disagree, 1 strongly disagree). Feel free to comment on any of the statements.

	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy having a language assistant (LA). Comment:					
The LAs are well prepared for their job. Comment:					
I have spoken to the LA about my expectations for them. Comment:					
I get along well with the LAs. Comment:					
I think the LA program is beneficial to all involved. Comment:					
My LA takes part in most activities in the classroom. Comment:					
I wish the LA and I had better coordination and communication. Comment:					
I wish the LA were more involved in the classroom.					

Comment:					
I wish I knew more (had more training/resources) on how to better use my LA. Comment:					

III. General Comments

What has been your experience with the LA program?

What is the best asset an LA can have?

What do you like most about having an LA?

What do you like least about having an LA?

Do we/ does a bilingual program need LAs?

Do you have any recommendations for bettering the LA program?

Any other comments?...PLEASE to give your opinions! ☺

OBSERVATION MANUAL

Part 1. Introductory Information

Date	
School	
Participants	
Class	
Lesson Content	
Lesson plan and Materials	Available: ___ yes (request copy)___ no
Notes	

Part 2a: Open observation

Parts of the lesson	Teacher (HT)	Language Assistant (LA)	Time
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Introduction:		Total
Transition:		HT
		LA
Activity 1:		Total
		HT
		LA
Activity 2:		Total
		HT
		LA
Activity 3:		Total
		HT
		LA
Activity 4:		Total
		HT
		LA
NOTES:		
Tense----- Relaxed		

TD and LA Collaboration and Disposition

Poor----- Admirable

Communication

Little----- Constant

Special LA behavior/Roles:

Overall feel of LA with students:

Overall atmosphere of TT:

OBSERVATION Grid- must be printed separately

INTERVIEW 1. Language Assistants

1. Demographics

Name

Age

Nationality

Educational background

Teaching Experience

2. LA organization

How many years have you worked as an LA?

How many teachers and students do you work with?

Which classes do you work with? *Ie PE 3rd grade*

3. Team Teaching Role

(0- never, 1-Very little, 2-Sometimes, 3-Frequently, 4-Very frequently)

		Comments:
Lead the class		Do you plan before? Do you ever arrive and teach with no prep?
Work in small split groups		
Teach with the teacher as you follow their lead		
Teach with teacher – both leading the class		
Of the styles mentioned above, which do you prefer and why?		
Create material and Lesson Plan		Do you have access to lesson plans? How do you know what is the lesson will be?
Correct work Prepare material while the teach teaches		
Correct students L2 errors		How?
Correct teacher's L2 errors		How?
Speak Spanish		

Not know what to do in class (Sit and observe)		Are you involved in all the activities in class? If not what do you do?
Reprimant students		
Cultural activities (your culture)		What?

4. Reflection

Are you satisfied with your role and contributions?

How comfortable are you in the classroom?

Do you have any special roles as an LA? How did they come about?

Do you see yourself as a teacher in the classroom? Which classes do you contribute the most to?

Would you like more guidance from the HT?

Do you contribute more as a native speaker, cultural ambassador, or as an assistant teacher, and how?

How do you compliment the teacher? Do you have a contrasting role? (Are the stronger in some area, and vice versa, are you stronger in some areas?)

What role does the teacher have in you enjoying your work?

Do you feel the HT fully utilizes what your abilities?

What recommendations do you have for HT and LA working together?

INTERVIEW 2. Head Teacher/Tutor

1. Demographics

Name

Educational background

Teaching Experience

How many years have you worked with the LA program?

Have you had any training in collaborative teaching methods?

2. Reflection

Team Teaching

In what ways has the collaboration with an LA changed your teaching methods?

Has collaboration with an LA impacted your L2 development or your professional development?

Do you plan your lessons with your LA in mind?

Does your collaborating LA know what will be taught before they arrive to class? If yes, how? If not, how do you inform them of what will take place?

Have you had to make compromises in order to facilitate collaboration with the LA? (for example roles, material, not saying negative things in order to have harmony)

How do you decide who (meaning you and the LA) does what in the classroom?

Have you spoken to the LA about what they are to do in class? (Reprimanding students, where to stand, how to correct the students, how to address your error corrections?)

Do the roles of the LA change as the academic year progresses? More leading after a few months, etc, And, has the role of the LA changed in the years you have been teaching?

How do you and the LA compliment each other?

(For example, are there areas that you are stronger at than the LA, and vice versa)

Which skills is the LA best at teaching?

Do you ask your LA to prepare material, lead the class, offer opinions?

Do you evaluate your LA performance? (formally or informally) How?

What advice would you give to teachers to improve their collaboration with an LA?

Second Language Acquisition

Are the students more motivated with the LA in the classroom?

Are classes more communicative with the LA present?

Have you noticed the students 'acquiring' more language since the onset of the LA scheme? (ie modeling the language of the LA, without formally being taught)

Do you use more, or does the LA contribute to the implementation of more authentic materials, role plays, etc in your teaching?

How does the LA contribute to your L2 growth?

What are the advantages and disadvantages to working with an LA?